

# Evolog - Actions and Modularization in Lazy-Grounding Answer Set Programming

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# Evolog - Actions and Modularization in Lazy-Grounding Answer Set Programming

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# Danksagung

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# Kurzfassung

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## Abstract

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HAPTER 1

# Introduction

Intro here

## **Preliminaries**

### 2.1 Answer Set Programming

When speaking of Answer Set Programming (ASP), we nowadays mostly refer to the language specified by the ASP-Core2 standard [CFG<sup>+</sup>20]. It uses the *stable model semantics* by Gelfond and Lifschitz [GL88] as a formal basis and enhances it with support for advanced concepts such as disjunctive programs, aggregate literals and weak constraints. This chapter describes the input language supported by the Alpha solver, which will serve as the basis on which we will define the Evolog language.

#### 2.1.1 Syntax

**Definition 2.1.1** (Integer numeral). An *integer numeral* in the context of an ASP program is a string matching the regular expression:

$$(-)$$
?  $[0-9]$  +

The set of all valid integer numerals is denoted as *INT*.

**Definition 2.1.2** (Identifier). An *identifier* in the context of an ASP program is a string matching the regular expression:

$$[a-z][a-zA-Z0-9]$$

The set of all valid identifiers is denoted as *ID*.

**Definition 2.1.3** (Variable Name). A *variable name* in the context of an ASP program is a string matching the regular expression:

$$[A-Z][a-zA-Z0-9]$$

The set of all valid variable names is denoted as VAR.

**Definition 2.1.4** (Term). A term is inductively defined as follows:

- Any constant  $c \in (INT \cup ID)$  is a term.
- Any variable  $v \in VAR$  is a term.
- Given terms  $t_1, t_2$ , any artihmetic expression  $t_1 \oplus t_2$  with  $\oplus \in \{+, -, *, /, **\}$  is a term.
- Given terms  $t_1, t_2$ , any interval expression  $t_1 \dots t_2$  is a term.
- For function symbol  $f \in ID$  and argument terms  $t_1, \ldots, t_n$ , the functional expression  $f(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$  is a term.

**Definition 2.1.5** (Subterms). Given a term t, the set of *subterms* of t, st(t), is defined as follows:

- If t is a constant or variable,  $st(t) = \{t\}$ .
- If t is an arithmetic expression  $t_1 \oplus t_2$ ,  $st(t) = st(t_1) \cup st(t_2)$ .
- If t is an interval expression  $t_1 \dots t_2$ ,  $st(t) = st(t_1) \cup st(t_2)$ .
- If t is a functional expression with argument terms  $t_1, \ldots, t_n, st(t) = st(t_1) \cup \ldots \cup st(t_n)$ .

A term is called *ground* if it is variable-free, i.e. none of its subterms is a variable.

**Definition 2.1.6** (Basic Atom). Given a predicate symbol  $p \in ID$  and argument terms  $t_1, \ldots, t_n$ , the expression

$$p(t_1,\ldots,t_n)$$

is called a *atom*. An atom is ground if all of its argument terms are ground. A ground atom with predicate p is called an *instance* of p.

**Definition 2.1.7** (Comparison Atom). Given terms  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  and comparison operator  $\odot$  where  $\odot \in \{<, \leq, =, \geq, >, \neq\}$ , the expression

$$t_1 \odot t_2$$

is called a *comparison atom*. Syntactically, a comparison atom is a regular atom where the predicate symbol (i.e. comparison operator) is written in infix- rather than prefix-notation.

**Definition 2.1.8** (External Atom). Given an external predicate name ext, input terms  $t_1, \ldots, t_n$  and output terms  $t_{n+1}, \ldots, t_m$ , the expression

$$@ext[t_1, \ldots, t_n](t_{n+1}, \ldots, t_m)$$

is called an *external atom*. Syntactically, external atoms are regular atoms where @ext is the predicate symbol and  $t_1, \ldots, t_m$  are argument terms.

**Definition 2.1.9** (Literal). A literal in ASP is an atom a or ("default"-)negated atom not a. Literals wrapping comparison- or external atoms are called fixed interpretation literals.

**Definition 2.1.10** (Rule, Program). A rule is an expression of form

$$a_H \leftarrow b_1, \ldots, b_n$$
.

for  $n \geq 0$ , where the rule head  $a_H$  is an atom and the rule body  $b_1, \ldots, b_n$  is a set of literals. An ASP program is a set of rules. A rule with an empty body is called a fact. A rule is ground if both its head atom and all of its body literals are ground. By the same reasoning, a program is ground if all of its rules are ground.

Given a rule r, he refer to the head of r as h(r) and the body of r as b(r). Furthermore,  $b^+(r)$  is used to reference the set of positive body literals of r, while  $b^-(r)$  references the negative body literals.

**Definition 2.1.11** (Constraint). A *constraint* is a special form of rule, written as a rule with an empty head, i.e.

$$\leftarrow b_1, \ldots, b_n$$
.

It is syntactic sugar for

$$q \leftarrow b_1, \ldots, b_n, not \ q.$$

where q is a propositional constant not occurring in any other rule in the program.

#### 2.1.2 Semantics

**Definition 2.1.12** (Herbrand Universe). The Herbrand Universe  $HU_P$  of a Program P is the set of all valid terms that can be constructed with respect to Definitions 2.1.1, 2.1.2 and 2.1.4. Note that most papers use stricter definitions of the Herbrand Universe where  $HU_P$  consists only of terms constructible from constants occurring in P. The broader definition used here is chosen for ease of definition with respect to some of the extensions introduced in Section 3.1.

**Definition 2.1.13** (Herbrand Base). The Herbrand Base  $HB_P$  of a Program P is the set of all ground atoms that can be constructed from the Herbrand Universe  $HU_P$  according to definition 2.1.6.

**Definition 2.1.14** (Herbrand Interpretation). A Herbrand Interpretation is a special form of first order interpretation where the domain of the interpretation is a Herbrand Universe and terms are the interpretation of a term is the term itself, i.e. the corresponding element of  $HU_P$ . Intuitively, Herbrand Interpretations constitute listings of atoms that are true in a given program. Since the domain of a Herbrand Interpretation is always the Herbrand Universe  $HU_P$ , we only need to give a predicate interpretation for the predicates occurring in a program P in oder to fully specify a Herbrand Interpretation. We can therefore denote Herbrand Interpretations as sets of atoms  $I \subseteq HB_P$ .

#### Grounding

Given a program P containing variables, grounding refers to the process of converting P into a semantically equivalent propositional, i.e. variable-free, program.

**Definition 2.1.15** (Substitution, adapted from [Wei17]). A substitution  $\sigma: VAR \mapsto (ID \cup INT)$  is a mapping from variables to constants. For a atom a, applying a a substitution results in a substituted atom  $a\sigma$  in which variables are replaced according to  $\sigma$ . Substitutions are applied to rules by applying them to every individual atom or literal within the rule. By the same mechanism, we can apply substitutions to programs by applying the to all rules.

**Definition 2.1.16** (Grounding). Given a rule r, the grounding of r, grnd(r), is a set of substitutions S, such that the set of ground rules resulting from applying the substitutions in S is semantically equivalent to r. In a slight abuse of terminology, grounding in this work also refers to the set of ground rules resulting from applying S as well as the process of finding said set.

#### **Stable Model Semantics**

**Definition 2.1.17** (Fixed interpretation literals). Fixed interpretation literals, i.e. comparison- and external literals, respectively, are interpreted by means of a program-independent oracle function  $f_O: H_U(P)^* \mapsto \{\top, \bot\}$ , i.e. a fixed interpretation literal with argument terms  $t_1, \ldots, t_n$  has the same truth value under all interpretations.

**Definition 2.1.18** (Truth of Atoms and Literals). A positive ground literal l with atom a is true w.r.t. a Herbrand Interpretation I, i.e.  $I \models l$  if

- a is a basic atom contained in I, i.e.  $a \in I$ ,
- a is a fixed interpretation literal with terms  $t_1, \ldots, t_n$  and  $f_O(t_1, \ldots, t_n) = \top$ .

For a negative ground literal not a, the reverse holds, i.e.  $I \models not \ a$  if

- a is a basic atom not contained in I, i.e.  $a \notin I$ ,
- a is a fixed interpretation literal with terms  $t_1, \ldots, t_n$  and  $f_O(t_1, \ldots, t_n) = \bot$ .

A set of literals L is true w.r.t. an interpretation I if  $I \models l$  holds for every literal  $l \in L$ .

**Definition 2.1.19** (Positive Logic Program). A *positive* logic program is a program according to Definition 2.1.10, where all rule bodies are positive, i.e. no rule body contains a negated atom.

**Definition 2.1.20** (Immediate Consequence Operator, adapted from [EIK09]). Given a Herbrand Interpretation I and a ground positive logic program P, the immediate consequence operator  $T_P(I)$  defines a monotonic function  $T_P: 2^{HB_P} \mapsto 2^{HB_P}$  such that

$$T_P(I) = \{h(r) \mid r \in P \land I \models b(r)\}$$

i.e. the result set of applying  $T_P$  with a Herbrand Interpretation I contains the heads of all rules whose body is true under I.

**Definition 2.1.21** (Least Model of positive logic programs). The least model LM(P) of a (ground) positive logic program P is the least fixpoint of the  $T_P$  operator of P, i.e. the set toward which the sequence  $\langle T_P^i \rangle$ , with  $i \geq 0$ ,  $T_P^0 = \emptyset$  and  $T_P^i = T_P(T_P^{i-1})$  for  $i \geq 1$ , converges. The existence of said fixpoint and its characterisation as limit of  $\langle T_P^i \rangle$  follow from the fixpoint theorems of Knaster, Tarski and Kleene, respectively.

**Definition 2.1.22** (Gelfond-Lifschitz Reduct, adapted from [GL88] and [EIK09]). Given a ground ASP program P and a Herbrand Interpretation I, the Gelfond-Lifschitz-Reduct ("GL-reduct")  $P^I$  of P with respect to I is the program obtained by:

- removing from P all rules r that are "blocked", i.e.  $I \not\models l$  for some literal  $l \in b^-(r)$
- and removing the negative body of all other rules.

Note that  $P^I$  is a positive logic program.

**Definition 2.1.23** (Answer Set [GL88] [EIK09]). A Herbrand Interpretation I of an ASP program P is an answer set or stable model of P iff it is the least model  $LM(P^I)$  of the GL-reduct  $P^I$  of P.

### 2.2 Lazy-Grounding ASP Solving

#### 2.2.1 Two-phased ASP solving

In traditional ASP solving systems such as SModels [SN01], DLV [LPF+02] or Clingo [GKK+08], grounding an input program and solving the resulting propositional program are distinct sequential steps in the overall solving process. Consequently, in order to obtain answer sets of a program, one has to calculate a grounding for the entire program first, and can only then start the actual solver. Since the grounding of an arbitrary program may be exponentially larger than the nonground program or, in some extreme cases, not even finite, calculating a full grounding is often not feasible, especially for programs where only very few ground rules can actually fire. Lazy-grounding systems like Alpha try to alleviate this by interleaving the grounding- and solving steps and ideally ground only as much of the input programs as is necessary to find all answer sets.

### 2.2.2 Conceptual solving workflow in Alpha

The formal basis of lazy-grounding architectures lies in the notion of a *computation* sequence, i.e. a set of rules firing in a given order in order to get to an interpretation that is an answer set. Definition 2.2.1 formally introduces computation sequences.

**Definition 2.2.1** (Computation Sequence, adapted from [Wei17] and [LN09]). Let P be an ASP program and  $S = (A_0, \ldots, A_{\infty})$  a sequence of assignments, i.e. herbrand interpretations denoted by a set of atoms assumed to be true, then S is called a *computation sequence* iff

- $A_0 = \emptyset$
- $\forall i \geq 1 : A_i \subseteq T_P(A_{i-1})$ , i.e. every  $A_i$  is a consequence of its predecessor in the sequence,
- $\forall i \geq 1 : A_{i-1} \subseteq A_i$ , i.e. S is monotonic,
- $A_{\infty} = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} A_i = T_P(A_{\infty})$ , i.e. S converges toward a fixpoint and
- $\forall i \geq 1 : \forall a \in A_i \setminus A_{i-1}, \exists r \in P : h(r) = a \land \forall j \geq i-1 : A_j \models a$ , i.e. applicability of rules is persistent.

 $A_{\infty}$  is an answer set of P iff S is a computation sequence. Note that there may exist an arbitrary number of computation sequences leading to the same answer set.

Obviously, computation sequences can be easily found by simple iterative application of the  $T_P$  operator for programs that do not use negation in rules. However, since in general once negation comes into play, solvers may have to retract assignments of atoms ("backtrack"), over the course of the solving process. Lazy-grounding solvers suffer from

a performance penalty compared to two-phased systems in that respect. This penalty results from algorithms based on Conflict-driven Nogood Learning (CDNL) [GKS12] achieving higher performance since conflicts occur faster and more nogoods can be learned from them with a full grounding available. A key challenge in designing lazy-grounding systems is therefore identifying classes of programs as well as groups of rules within programs that can be evaluated using simplified deterministic algorithms in order to

minimize the number of potential backtracks.

#### Structural Dependency Analysis and Stratified Evaluation

**Definition 2.2.2** (Unification). Let  $l_1$ ,  $l_2$  be literals. Then a substitution  $\sigma$  is a unifier of  $l_1$  and  $l_2$  iff  $l_1\sigma = l_2\sigma$ . Two literals for which a unifier exists are said to be unifiable. We use the notation  $l_1 \uplus l_2$  to express that  $l_1$  and  $l_2$  are unifiable.

Example of mutually blocking rules!

Since we're talking about nonground stratification, should we define a nonground  $T_P$  operator! Just simply say we add the rules where all defining rules have already fired in each step **Definition 2.2.3** (Defining rules). Given an ASP program P and literal l of form a or not a with atom a, the set def(l) of defining rules of l is defined as

$$def(l) = \{r \mid r \in P \land h(r) \uplus a\}$$

i.e. all rules in P whose head is unifiable with a.

**Definition 2.2.4** (Stratification, adapted from [ABW88]). Given a (non-ground) ASP program P, a stratification is a partition S of P into sub-programs called *strata*  $(P_0, \ldots, P_1)$  such that

- $\bigcup_{i=0}^n P_i = P$ , i.e. S is total,
- $\forall i \geq 0 : \forall r \in P_i : \forall l \in b^+(r) : def(l) \subseteq \bigcup_{j=0}^i P_j$ , i. e. for every positive body literal l of every rule r, it holds that all rules defining l reside in a stratum with lower or equal index to the stratum r resides in, and
- $\forall i \geq 0 : \forall r \in P_i : \forall l \in b^-(r) : def(l) \subseteq \bigcup_{j=0}^{i-1} P_j$ , i. e. for every negative body literal l of every rule r, it holds that all rules defining l reside in a stratum with strictly lower index than the stratum r resides in.

A program is called *stratified* iff a stratification exists for it.

**Definition 2.2.5** (Stratified Evaluation, adapted from [EIK09] and [ABW88]). Let P be an ASP program,  $S = (P_0, \ldots, P_n)$  a stratification of P and  $T_{P_i}$  with  $0 \le i \le n$  the immediate consequence operator for sub-program  $P_i \in S$  respectively. Then the least model LM(P) of P is defined as follows. The sequence  $\langle M_{P_i} \rangle$ ,  $0 \le i \le n$  with  $M_{P_0} = lfp(T_{P_0})$  and  $M_{P_i} = lfp(T_{P_i \cup M_{S_{i-1}}})$  for all  $1 \le i \le n$  defines the least model for each stratum. The least model LM(P) of program P is then the least model of the highest stratum  $M_{P_n}$ , i.e. the end of the sequence  $\langle M_{P_i} \rangle$ .

**Definition 2.2.6** (Dependencies). Let P be an ASP program and  $r \in P$  a rule contained in P. a rule d is a positive dependency of r, i.e.  $r \succ_d^+ d$  iff one the following holds:

- $\exists l \in b^+(r) : d \in def(l)$ , i.e. d is a defining rule for some positive body literal r, or
- $\exists d_1 \in P : r \succ_d^+ d_1 \land d_1 \succ_d^+ d$ , i.e. there is some positive dependency  $d_1$  of r of which d is a (transitive) positive dependency.

Negative dependencies are defined in the same way, i.e. a rule d is a negative dependency of  $r, r \succ_d^- d$  iff

- $\exists l \in b^-(r) : d \in def(l)$ , i.e. d is a defining rule for some negative body literal r, or
- $\exists d_1 \in P : r \succ_d^- d_1 \land d_1 \succ_d^- d$ , i.e. there is some negative dependency  $d_1$  of r of which d is a (transitive) negative dependency.

Any positive or negative dependency d of r is a dependency of r, i.e.  $r \succ_d d$ . We denote the set of dependencies of a rule as  $D(r) = \{d \mid r \succ_d d\}$  and positive and negative dependencies as  $D^+(r) = \{d \mid r \succ_d^+ d\}$  and  $D^-(r) = \{d \mid r \succ_d^- d\}$  respectively. Any non-transitive dependency of a rule is called a direct dependency.

**Definition 2.2.7** (Dependency Graph). Let P be an ASP program. Then the dependency graph  $DG_P = (R, D)$  is a directed graph with vertex set R, which has one element for each rule in P, and (dependency-)edge set D such that

```
D = \{(r_1, r_2, +) \mid r_1, r_2 \in P \land r_2 \text{ is direct positive dependency of } r_1\}\cup \{(r_1, r_2, -) \mid r_1, r_2 \in P \land r_2 \text{ is direct negative dependency of } r_1\}
```

Edges are represented as 3-tuples where the first two values represent target and destination vertices and the third value indicates the "polarity", i. e. positive ("+") or negative ("-"), of the dependency.

**Definition 2.2.8** (Component Graph). The component graph  $CG_P = (C, D)$  of a program P is defined as the "condensed" dependency graph, i. e. vertices of  $CG_P$  represent strongly connected components of  $DG_P$ . Each vertex of  $CG_P$  is labelled "+" if the respective strongly connected component is connected only by positive edges, or "-" if there is a negative edge in the component. Edges of  $CG_P$  are those edges of  $DG_P$  that connect vertices from different strongly connected components where double edges resulting from multiple rule-level dependencies of same polarity between components are condensed into single edges.

**Definition 2.2.9** (Splitting Set, adapted from [LT94]). Given a program P, a set of atoms U is a *splitting set* of P if for every rule r, where  $h(r) \in U$ , also the atoms corresponding to all body literals of r are in U. The set of rules corresponding to U, i.e. the rules defining the atoms in U, is called *bottom* of P with respect to U, denoted as  $B_U(P)$ . Consequently,  $P \setminus B_U(P)$  is called *top* of P, which is denoted as  $T_U(P)$ .

**Definition 2.2.10** (Common Base Program, adapted from [Lan19]). Given a splitting set S of program P, the bottom  $B_S(P)$  is called *common base program*, i.e. CBP(P) if it is stratified and maximal in the sense that adding any further rule to  $B_S(P)$  would destroy the property of  $B_S(P)$  of being stratified.

Intuitively, a set of rule heads is a splitting set if for every rule head in the set, all rule heads on which it depends are in the set as well. The importance of the notion of a splitting set lies in the fact that answer set computation can be split up using splitting sets: Given a splitting set, we can first calculate all answer sets of the bottom, and then solve the top with respect to each of those answer sets [LT94].

Alpha's evaluation logic makes use of this by evaluating first the maximum stratified bottom (*common base program*, see Definition 2.2.10) using the simplified bottom-up algorithm outlined in Algorithm 2.1 and then only using the - computationally more complex - CDNL-based algorithm for the top part.

### **Algorithm 2.1:** Procedure evaluateCommonBaseProgram

```
Input: Stratification S
    Input : Program P
    Output: partially evaluated program P_{eval}
 1 Facts F = facts(P);
 \mathbf{2} \ n \leftarrow (|S| - 1);
 3 foreach i in 0 \dots n do
         Program grnd(P_{S_i}) = ground(P_{S_i});
         Facts F_{old} = \emptyset;
 5
 6
         \mathbf{do}

\begin{vmatrix}
F_{old} = F; \\
F \leftarrow pr(T_{grnd(P_{S_i})}(F));
\end{vmatrix}

 7
 8
         while F_{old} \neq F;
         P \leftarrow P \backslash P_{S_i};
10
11 end
12 return P_{eval} = P \cup F;
```

## The Evolog Language

The Evolog language extends (non-disjunctive) ASP as defined in the ASP-Core2 standard [CFG $^+$ 20] with facilities to communicate with and influence the "outside world" (e.g. read and write files, capture user input, etc.) as well as program modularization and reusability features, namely *actions* and *modules*.

### 3.1 Actions in Evolog

Actions allow for an ASP program to encode operations with side-effects while maintaining fully declarative semantics. Actions are modelled in a functional style loosely based on the concept of monads as used in Haskell . Intuitively, to maintain declarative semantics, actions need to behave as pure functions, meaning the result of executing an action (i.e. evaluating the respective function) must be reproducible for each input value across all executions. On first glance, this seems to contradict the nature of IO operations, which inherently depend on some state, e.g. the result of evaluating a function getFileHandle(f) for a file f will be different depending on whether f exists, is readable, etc. However, at any given point in time - in other words, in a given state of the world - the operation will have exactly one result (i.e. a file handle or an error will be returned). A possible solution to making state-dependent operations behave as functions is therefore to make the state of the world at the time of evaluation part of the function's input. A function f(x) is then turned into f'(s,x) where s represents a specific world state. The rest of this section deals with formalizing this notion of actions.

3.1.1 Syntax

**Definition 3.1.1** (Action Rule, Action Program). An action rule R is of form

$$a_H : @t_{act} = act_{res} \leftarrow l_1, \dots, l_n.$$

where

cite something here!

Define non-disjunctive ASP-Core2 in detail in preliminaries. Give detailed definition of all "standard ASP" elements referenced here!

- $a_H$  is an atom called head atom,
- $t_{act}$  is a functional term called action term,
- $act_{res}$  is a term called (action-)result term
- and  $l_1, \ldots, l_n$  are literals constituting the body of R.

An action program P is a set of (classic ASP-)rules and action rules.

#### 3.1.2 Semantics

To properly define the semantics of an action program according to the intuition outlined at the start of this section, we first need to formalize our view of the "outside world" which action rules interact with. We call the world in which we execute a program a frame - formally, action programs are always evaluated with respect to a given frame. The behavior of actions is specified in terms of action functions. The semantics (i.e. interpretations) of action functions in a program are defined by the respective frame.

#### **Action Rule Expansion**

To get from the practical-minded action syntax from Definition 3.1.1 to the formal representation of an action as a function of some state and an input, we use the helper construct of an action rule's expansion to bridge the gap. Intuitively, the expansion of an action rule is a syntactic transformation that results in a more verbose version of the original rule called application rule and a second rule only dependent on the application rule called projection rule. A (ground) application rule's head atom uniquely identifies the ground instance of the rule that derived it. As one such atom corresponds to one action executed, we call a ground instance of an application rule head in an answer set an action witness.

**Definition 3.1.2** (Action Rule Expansion). Given a non-ground action rule R with head atom  $a_H$ , action term  $f_{act}(i_1, \ldots, i_n)$  and body B consisting of literals  $l_1, \ldots, l_m$ , the expansion of R is a pair of rules consisting of an application rule  $R_{app}$  and projection rule  $R_{proj}$ .  $R_{app}$  is defined as

$$a_{res}(f_{act}, S, I, f_{act}(S, I)) \leftarrow l_1, \dots, l_n.$$

where S and I and function terms called *state*- and *input*-terms, respectively. An action rule's state term has the function symbol *state* and terms  $fn(l_1), \ldots, fn(l_m)$ , with the expression fn(l) for a literal l denoting a function term representing l. The (function-)term representation of a literal  $p(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$  with predicate symbol p and terms  $t_1, \ldots, t_n$  uses p as function symbol. For a negated literal  $not \ p(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ , the representing function term is  $not(p(t_1, \ldots, p_n))$ . The action input term is a "wrapped" version of all arguments of the action term, i.e. for action term  $f_{act}(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ , the corresponding input term is

define (classic ASP) grounding and substitutions in preliminaries  $input(t_1, ..., t_n)$ . The term  $f_{act}(S, I)$  is called action application term. The projection rule  $R_{proj}$  is defined as

$$a_H \leftarrow a_{res}(f_{act}, S, I, v_{res}).$$

where  $a_H$  is the head atom of the initial action rule R and the (sole) body atom is the action witness derived by  $R_{app}$ , with the application term  $f_{act}(S, I)$  replaced by a variable  $v_{res}$  called action result variable.

Looking at the head of an action application rule of format  $a_{res}(f_{act}, S, I, t_{app})$  with action  $f_{act}$ , state term S, input term I and application term  $t_{app}$ , the intuitive reading of this atom is "The result of action function  $f_{act}$  applied to state S and input I is  $t_{app}$ ", i.e. the action application term  $t_{app}$  is not a regular (uninterpreted) function term as in regular ASP, but an actual function call which is resolved using an interpretation function provided by a frame during grounding.

#### Grounding of Action Rules

Grounding, in the context of answer set programming, generally refers to the conversion of a program with variables into a semantically equivalent, variable-free, version. Action application terms as introduced in Definition 3.1.2 can be intuitively read as variables, in the sense that they represent the result of applying the respective action function. Consequently, all action application terms are replaced with the respective (ground) result terms defined in the *frame* with respect to which the program is grounded.

**Definition 3.1.3** (Frame). Given an action program P containing action application terms  $A = \{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$ , a frame F is an interpretation function such that, for each application term  $f_{act}(S, I) \in A$  where  $S \in H_U(P)^*$  and  $I \in H_U(P)^*$ ,  $F(f_{act}) : H_U(P)^* \times H_U(P)^* \mapsto H_U(P)$ .

**Definition 3.1.4** (Grounding of action rules). Grounding of Evolog rules (and programs) always happens with respect to a frame. Given a frame F, an expanded action rule  $r_a$  and a (grounding) substitution  $\sigma$  over all body variables of application rule  $r_{a_{app}}$ , during grounding, every ground action application term  $t_{app}\sigma$  resulting from applying substitution  $\sigma$  is replaced with its interpretation according to F.

Example 3.1.1 demonstrates the expansion of an action rule as well as a compatible example frame for the respective action.

**Example 3.1.1** (Expansion and Frame). Consider following Evolog Program P which contains an action rule with action a:

$$p(a). \ q(b). \ r(c).$$
  
 $h(X,R): @a(X,Z) = R \leftarrow p(X), q(Y), r(Z).$ 

The expansion of R is:

$$\begin{aligned} a_{res}(a, state(p(X), q(Y), r(Z)), input(X, Z), a(state(p(X), q(Y), r(Z)), input(X, Z))) \leftarrow \\ p(X), q(Y), r(Z). \\ h(X, R) \leftarrow a_{res}(a, state(p(X), q(Y), r(Z)), input(X, Z), R). \end{aligned}$$

Furthermore, consider following frame F:

$$F(a) = \{a(state(p(a), q(b), r(c)), input(a, c))\} \mapsto success(a, c)\}$$

which assigns the result success(a, c) to the action application term (i.e. function call a(state(p(a), q(b), r(c)), input(a, c))).

Then, the ground program  $P_{qrnd}$  after action rule expansion is

$$p(a). \ q(b). \ r(c).$$

$$a_{res}(a, state(p(a), q(b), r(c)), input(a, c), success(a, c)) \leftarrow p(a). \ q(b). \ r(c).$$

$$h(a, success(a, c)) \leftarrow a_{res}(a, state(p(a), q(b), r(c)), input(a, c), success(a, c)).$$

The sole model of P with respect to frame F is

$$M = \{p(a), q(b), r(c), a_{res}(a, state(p(a), q(b), r(c)), input(a, c), success(a, c)) \\ h(a, success(a, c))\}$$

#### **Evolog Models**

Having introduced action rule expansions as well as frames, we now use these to extend the stable model semantics to Evolog programs.

**Definition 3.1.5** (Supportedness of Actions). Let  $r_{app}$  be a non-ground anction application rule with head  $H = a_{res}(f_{act}, S, I, f_{act}(S, I))$ , F a frame, and  $H_{grnd} = a_{res}(f_{act}, S_{grnd}, I_{grnd}, r)$  a ground instance of H with r being an arbitrary ground term. Then,  $H_{grnd}$  is supported by F, if and only if F contains a mapping of form  $f_{act}(S_{grnd}, I_{grnd}) \mapsto r$ , i.e. r is a valid result of action function  $f_{act}$  with arguments  $S_{grnd}$  and  $I_{grnd}$  according to frame F. We call a ground instance of an action rule supported by a frame if the head of the corresponding application rule in the rule's expansion is supported by that frame.

**Definition 3.1.6** (Evolog-Reduct). Given a ground Evolog program P, a frame F and a set of ground atoms A, the *Evolog Reduct* of P with respect to F and A  $P_F^A$  is obtained from P as follows:

1. Remove all rules r from P that are "blocked", i.e.  $A \not\models l$  for some negative body literal  $l \in b^-(r)$ .

- 2. Remove all action application rules from P which are not supported by F.
- 3. Remove the negative body from all other rules.

Note that the reduct outlined in Definition 3.1.6 extends the classic GL-reduct (see Definition 2.1.22) just by adding a check on action supportedness.

**Definition 3.1.7** (Evolog Model). A herbrand interpretation I of an Evolog Program is an *Evolog Model* ("answer set") of an Evolog program P with respect to a frame F if and only if it is a minimal classical model of its Evolog-Reduct  $P_F^A$ .

### 3.2 Program Modularization in Evolog

TODO

# 3.3 Relationship between Evolog- and Stable Model Semantics

TODO: Find good (source for and) definition of (model-theoretic) conservative extension and add here!

**Theorem 3.3.1.** Every ASP program is a valid and semantically equivalent Evolog program.

*Proof.* Directly from the definitions of an Evolog program and the Evolog Reduct (see Definition 3.1.6):

• Since an Evolog program is an ASP program that may additionally use action rules and module literals, it follows that every ASP program is an Evolog program which does not use actions or modules, and therefore a valid Evolog program.

• Equivalence between Evolog- and Stable Model Semantics for programs without actions and modules similarly follows from Definition 3.1.6: Since a regular ASP program does not contain any action rules, its Evolog Reduct coincides with its GL-Reduct.

put somewhere "an Evolog program is an ASP program with actions and modules"

also reference module semantics here!

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# Acronyms

 $\mathbf{ASP}$  Answer Set Programming. 3, 5, 7–10

 $\mathbf{CDNL}$  Conflict-driven Nogood Learning. 8, 10

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