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

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by

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Danksagung

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Abstract

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2.1 Answer Set Programming

When speaking of Answer Set Programming (ASP), we nowadays mostly refer to the language specfied by the ASP-Core2 standard [CFG+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.

abbreviations!

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* $t_1 \ldots t_2$ 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* $t_1 \ldots t_2$, $st(t) = st(t_1) \cup st(t_2)$.
- 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*. Syntacticaly, 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.

define positive and negative rule body as sets with distinct notation!

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 snytactic sugar for

$$q \leftarrow b_1, \ldots, b_n, \mathit{not}\ q.$$

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 definition 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 σ. 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

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

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 this 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,
- $A_\infty = \cup_{i=0}^{\infty} A_i = T_P(A_\infty)$, i.e. S converges toward a fixpoint and
- $\forall i \geq 1 : \forall a \ \in A_i \setminus A_{i-1}, \exists r \in P : h(r) = a \wedge \forall j \geq i-1 : A_j \models a$, i.e. applicability of rules is persistent.

A_∞ 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.

Example of mutually blocking rules!

Since we're talking about non-ground 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

Structural Dependency Analysis and Stratified Evaluation

Definition 2.2.2 (Unification)**.** Let l_1, l_2 be literals. Then a substitution σ is a *unifier* of l_1 and $l2$ 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.

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

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

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

- $\cup_{i=0}^{n} P_i = P$, i.e. S is total,
- $\forall i \geq 0 : \forall r \in P_i : \forall l \in b^+(r) : def(l) \subseteq \cup_{j=0}^{i} P_j$, 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
- $\forall i \geq 0 : \forall r \in P_i : \forall l \in b^-(r) : def(l) \subseteq \cup_{j=0}^{i-1} P_j$, 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 $0 \leq i \leq n$ 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 $\langle M_{P_i} \rangle$, $0 \leq i \leq n$ with $M_{P_0} = lfp(T_{P_0})$ and $M_{P_i} = lfp(T_{P_i \cup M_{S_{i-1}}})$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$ 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 literalof r, or
- $\exists d_1 \in P : r \succ_d^+ d_1 \wedge d_1 \succ_d^+ d$, 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 literalof r, or
- $\exists d_1 \in P : r \succ_d^- d_1 \wedge d_1 \succ_d^- d$, 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

$$\begin{aligned} D = &\{(r_1, r_2, +) \mid r_1,\ r_2 \in P \wedge r_2 \textit{ is direct positive dependency of } r_1\} \\ &\cup \{(r_1, r_2, -) \mid r_1,\ r_2 \in P \wedge r_2 \textit{ is direct negative dependency of } r_1\} \end{aligned}$$

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 douuble 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 $T_U(P)$.

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 a simplified bottom-up algorithm and then only using the - computationally more complex - CDNL-based algorithm for the top part.

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.

CHAPTER 3

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.

cite something here!

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

3.1.1 Syntax

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

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

where

- 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*.

define (classic ASP) grounding and substitutions in preliminaries

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

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

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

$input(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$. 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 $I \in H_U(P)^*$, $F(f_{act}) : H_U(P)^* \times H_U(P)^* \mapsto H_U(P)$.

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:

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

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_{grnd} after action rule expansion is

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

according to which semantics? reference LFP here

The sole model of P with respect to frame F is

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

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Acronyms

ASP Answer Set Programming. 3

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