

Principles of Knowledge Representation and Reasoning

Answer Set Programming

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ASP: Background

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- **Answer set semantics**: a formalization of **negation as failure** in logic programming (**Prolog**)
- Several formal semantics: **well-founded semantics**, **perfect-model semantics**, **inflationary semantics**, ...
- Can be viewed as a simpler variant of **default logic**

ASP: Negation as failure

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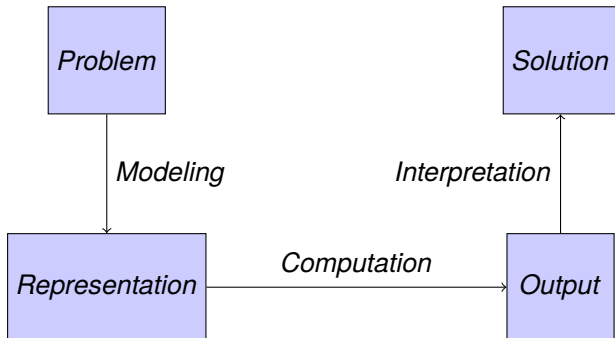
- Another interpretation for negation: $\text{not } x \equiv$ "It cannot be shown that x is true"
- For example, you are innocent until proven guilty

Example

innocent \leftarrow not *guilty*.

ASP: Declarative problem solving

- **What is the problem?** instead of: **How to solve the problem?**
- Outsourcing the computation part to an external solver



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Normal logic programs I

Let \mathcal{A} be a set of first-order atoms.

Rules:

$$a \leftarrow b_1, \dots, b_m, \text{not } c_1, \dots, \text{not } c_k$$

where $\{a, b_1, \dots, b_m, c_1, \dots, c_k\} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$

- Meaning similar to default logic:

If

1 we have derived b_1, \dots, b_m and

2 cannot derive any of c_1, \dots, c_k ,

then derive a .

- Rules without right-hand side (**facts**): $a \leftarrow$
- Rules without left-hand side (**constraints**):

$$\leftarrow b_1, \dots, b_m, \text{not } c_1, \dots, \text{not } c_k$$

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Normal logic programs II

Let \mathcal{A} be a set of first-order atoms.

Rules:

$$a \leftarrow b_1, \dots, b_m, \text{not}c_1, \dots, \text{not}c_k$$

where $\{a, b_1, \dots, b_m, c_1, \dots, c_k\} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$

- a is called the **head** of the rule, denoted by $\text{head}(r)$.
- The literals b_1, \dots, b_m form the **positive body** of r , denoted by $\text{body}^+(r)$.
- The literals $\text{not}c_1, \dots, \text{not}c_k$ form the **negative body** of r , denoted by $\text{body}^-(r)$.
- The **body** of r is the union of positive and negative body:
 $\text{body}(r) = \text{body}^+(r) \cup \text{body}^-(r)$.

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Normal logic programs: Example

Example

```
bird(X) ← eagle(X)  
bird(X) ← penguin(X)  
fly(X) ← bird(X), not nonfly(X)  
nonfly(X) ← penguin(X)  
eagle(eddy) ←  
penguin(tweety) ←
```

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Herbrand base and grounded rules

Let P be a normal logic program, i.e., a finite set of rules as described above.

- The **Herbrand universe** (symb. U_P) of P is the set of ground terms constructed from the function symbols and constants in P .
- The **Herbrand base** of P (symb. B_P) is the set of ground atoms constructed from predicate symbols and ground terms from the Herbrand universe.
- From now on, a program will refer to the set of its grounded rules.
- The set of atoms in P is denoted by $atoms(P)$.

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Herbrand base and grounded rules

Example

$bird(eddy) \leftarrow eagle(eddy)$

$bird(tweety) \leftarrow eagle(tweety)$

$bird(eddy) \leftarrow penguin(eddy)$

$bird(tweety) \leftarrow penguin(tweety)$

$fly(eddy) \leftarrow bird(eddy), \text{not } nonfly(eddy)$

$fly(tweety) \leftarrow bird(tweety), \text{not } nonfly(tweety)$

$nonfly(eddy) \leftarrow penguin(eddy)$

$nonfly(tweety) \leftarrow penguin(tweety)$

$eagle(eddy) \leftarrow$

$penguin(tweety) \leftarrow$

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Satisfaction

A **Herbrand interpretation** is a subset X of the Herbrand base.

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Satisfaction

A **Herbrand interpretation** is a subset X of the Herbrand base.

Satisfaction relation:

- $X \models a$ if $a \in X$.
- $X \models r$ if $\{b_1, \dots, b_m\} \not\subseteq X$ or $\{a, c_1, \dots, c_n\} \cap X \neq \emptyset$,
where $r = a \leftarrow b_1, \dots, b_m, \text{not } c_1, \dots, \text{not } c_n$.
- $X \models P$ if $X \models r$ for each $r \in P$.

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- $X \models P$ if $X \models r$ for each $r \in P$.

Idea

Idea: “models” as interpretations that are satisfying, stable, and supported.

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Positive (*not-free*) logic programs

Definition (Answer set)

Let P be a logic program **without not**, $X \subseteq \text{atoms}(P)$.

X is the (unique) **answer set** of P if it is the least fixpoint of the operator:

$$\Gamma_P(X) = \{a : \exists r = a \leftarrow b_1, \dots, b_m \in P \text{ with } \{b_1, \dots, b_m\} \subseteq X\}.$$

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Example

$$P = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a \leftarrow b, \quad d \leftarrow f, \quad b \leftarrow, \\ d \leftarrow b, \quad c \leftarrow d, \quad e \leftarrow f \end{array} \right\}$$

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$$P = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a \leftarrow b, \quad d \leftarrow f, \quad b \leftarrow, \\ d \leftarrow b, \quad c \leftarrow d, \quad e \leftarrow f \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\Gamma^0 = \emptyset,$$

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$$\Gamma^0 = \emptyset, \quad \Gamma^1 = \Gamma(\emptyset) = \{b\},$$

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Example

$$P = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a \leftarrow b, \quad d \leftarrow f, \quad b \leftarrow, \\ d \leftarrow b, \quad c \leftarrow d, \quad e \leftarrow f \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\Gamma^0 = \emptyset, \quad \Gamma^1 = \Gamma(\emptyset) = \{b\}, \quad \Gamma^2 = \Gamma(\Gamma^1) = \{b, d, a\},$$

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Example

$$P = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a \leftarrow b, \quad d \leftarrow f, \quad b \leftarrow, \\ d \leftarrow b, \quad c \leftarrow d, \quad e \leftarrow f \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\Gamma^0 = \emptyset, \quad \Gamma^1 = \Gamma(\emptyset) = \{b\}, \quad \Gamma^2 = \Gamma(\Gamma^1) = \{b, d, a\}, \quad \Gamma^3 = \Gamma(\Gamma^2) = \{b, d, a, c\},$$

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Example

$$P = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a \leftarrow b, \quad d \leftarrow f, \quad b \leftarrow, \\ d \leftarrow b, \quad c \leftarrow d, \quad e \leftarrow f \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\Gamma^0 = \emptyset, \quad \Gamma^1 = \Gamma(\emptyset) = \{b\}, \quad \Gamma^2 = \Gamma(\Gamma^1) = \{b, d, a\}, \quad \Gamma^3 = \Gamma(\Gamma^2) = \{b, d, a, c\}, \quad \Gamma^4 = \Gamma(\Gamma^3) = \{b, d, a, c\} = \Gamma^3$$

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Gelfond-Lifschitz reduct

Definition (Reduct)

The **reduct** of a program P with respect to a set of atoms $X \subseteq \text{atoms}(P)$ is defined as:

$$P^X := \{ \text{head}(r) \leftarrow \text{body}^+(r) : r \in P, \\ c \notin X \text{ for each } \text{not } c \in \text{body}^-(r) \}$$

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That is, given X ,

- ... delete all rules whose negative part contradicts X
- ... remove all negated atoms from the remaining rules

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That is, given X ,

- ... delete all rules whose negative part contradicts X
- ... remove all negated atoms from the remaining rules

Definition (Answer set)

$X \subseteq \text{atoms}(P)$ is an **answer set of P** if X is an answer set of P^X .

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Answer sets: Examples

Example

$$\begin{aligned} a &\leftarrow \text{not}b, & b &\leftarrow \text{not}a, \\ c &\leftarrow a, & d &\leftarrow b. \end{aligned}$$

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Example

$$\begin{array}{ll} a \leftarrow \text{not} b, & b \leftarrow \text{not} a, \\ c \leftarrow a, & d \leftarrow b. \end{array}$$

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Example

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Example

$$\begin{array}{ll} a \leftarrow \text{not} b, & b \leftarrow \text{not} a, \\ b \leftarrow a, & c \leftarrow b \end{array}$$

Example

$$a \leftarrow b, \quad b \leftarrow a$$

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Answer sets: Examples

Example

$$\begin{aligned} a &\leftarrow \text{not} b, & b &\leftarrow \text{not} a, \\ c &\leftarrow a, & d &\leftarrow b. \end{aligned}$$

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Example

$$a \leftarrow b, \quad b \leftarrow a$$

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Some properties I

Proposition

If an atom a belongs to an answer set of a logic program P , then a is the head of one of the rules of P .

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Some properties I

Proposition

If an atom a belongs to an answer set of a logic program P , then a is the head of one of the rules of P .

Proposition

Each answer set of a normal logic program P is a minimal model of P , i.e., it satisfies all rules in P and there is no proper subset of P satisfying all rules in P .

Notice: The converse is not true: not each minimal model is an answer set.

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Some properties II

Proposition

Let F be a set of (non-constraint) rules and G be a set of constraints. A set of atoms X is an answer set of $F \cup G$ iff it is an answer set of F that satisfies G .

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Some properties II

Proposition

Let F be a set of (non-constraint) rules and G be a set of constraints. A set of atoms X is an answer set of $F \cup G$ iff it is an answer set of F that satisfies G .

Proof.

$F \subseteq F \cup G$ implies $F^X \subseteq (F \cup G)^X$ and hence $\text{lfp}_\Gamma(F^X) \subseteq \text{lfp}_\Gamma((F \cup G)^X)$.

\Rightarrow : Assume X is an answer set of $F \cup G$, hence $X = \text{lfp}_\Gamma((F \cup G)^X)$ and $X \models G$. Since G contains constraints only, it follows that each $a \in X$ is the head of some rule in F . Hence, $X \subseteq \text{lfp}_\Gamma(F^X)$, and thus X is an answer set of F that satisfies G .

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\Rightarrow : Assume X is an answer set of $F \cup G$, hence $X = \text{lfp}_F((F \cup G)^X)$ and $X \models G$. Since G contains constraints only, it follows that each $a \in X$ is the head of some rule in F . Hence, $X \subseteq \text{lfp}_F(F^X)$, and thus X is an answer set of F that satisfies G .

\Leftarrow : Similar.



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Complexity: Existence of answer sets is NP-complete

- 1 **Membership in NP:** Guess $X \subseteq \text{atoms}(P)$ (**nondet. polytime**), compute P^X , compute its closure, compare to X (**everything det. polytime**).

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Complexity: Existence of answer sets is NP-complete

- 1 **Membership in NP:** Guess $X \subseteq \text{atoms}(P)$ (**nondet. polytime**), compute P^X , compute its closure, compare to X (**everything det. polytime**).
- 2 **NP-hardness:** Reduction from 3SAT: an answer set exists iff the following clauses are satisfiable:

$$p \leftarrow \text{not} \hat{p}. \quad \hat{p} \leftarrow \text{not} p.$$

for every propositional variable p occurring in the clauses

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$$p \leftarrow \text{not} \hat{p}. \quad \hat{p} \leftarrow \text{not} p.$$

for every propositional variable p occurring in the clauses,
and

$$\leftarrow \text{not} l'_1, \text{not} l'_2, \text{not} l'_3$$

for every clause $l_1 \vee l_2 \vee l_3$, where $l'_i = p$ if $l_i = p$ and $l'_i = \hat{p}$ if $l_i = \neg p$.

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Difference to Propositional Logic

- The **ancestor** relation is **the transitive closure** of the **parent** relation.
- Transitive closure **cannot be** (concisely) represented in propositional/predicate logic.

$$par(X, Y) \rightarrow anc(X, Y)$$

$$par(X, Z) \wedge anc(Z, Y) \rightarrow anc(X, Y)$$

The above formulae only guarantee that **anc** is a **superset** of the transitive closure of **par**.

- For transitive closure one needs the **minimality condition** in some form: nonmonotonic logics, fixpoint logics, ...

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Stratification

The reason for multiple answer sets is the fact that a may depend on b and simultaneously b may depend on a . The lack of this kind of circular dependencies makes reasoning easier.

Definition

A logic program P is **stratified** if P can be partitioned to $P = P_1 \cup \dots \cup P_n$ so that for all $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ and $(a \leftarrow b_1, \dots, b_m, \text{not } c_1, \dots, \text{not } c_k) \in P_i$,

- 1 there is no **not** a in P_i and
- 2 there are no occurrences of a anywhere in $P_1 \cup \dots \cup P_{i-1}$.

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Theorem

A stratified program P has exactly one answer set. The unique answer set can be computed in polynomial time.

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Theorem

A stratified program P has exactly one answer set. The unique answer set can be computed in polynomial time.

Example

Our earlier examples with more than one or no answer sets:

$$P_3 = \{p \leftarrow \text{not} p\}$$

$$P_4 = \{p \leftarrow \text{not} q, \quad q \leftarrow \text{not} p\}$$

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Programs for Reasoning with Answer Sets

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- smodels (Niemelä & Simons), dlv (Eiter et al.), clasp (Schaub et al.), ...
- Schematic input:

```
p(X) :- not q(X).      anc(X,Y) :- par(X,Y).
q(X) :- not p(X).      anc(X,Y) :- par(X,Z), anc(Z,Y).
r(a).                  par(a,b). par(a,c). par(b,d).
r(b).                  female(a).
r(c).                  male(X) :- not(female(X)).
                       forefather(X,Y) :-
                           anc(X,Y), male(X).
```

- Propositions are any combination of lowercase letters.
- Variables are any combination of letters starting with an uppercase letter.
- Write ":-" instead of \leftarrow .
- Integers can be used and so can ne arithmetic operations (+, -, *, /, %).
- **Negation as failure** is denoted by not.
- **Strong negation** is denoted by -- .
- `#const n = ...` statements can be used to define constants.
- The `#hide/#show` statements can be used to influence which iterals are shown in the solution.

AnsProlog: Choice functions

- The literal $\{b_1; \dots ; b_m\}$ is true iff any subset of the set $\{b_1, \dots, b_m\}$ is true.

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AnsProlog: Choice functions

- The literal $\{b_1; \dots ; b_m\}$ is true iff any subset of the set $\{b_1, \dots, b_m\}$ is true.

Example

Generate all interpretations over the atoms $a(1), a(2), a(3)$:

$\{ a(1); a(2); a(3) \}$.

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AnsProlog: Choice functions

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Example

Generate all interpretations over the atoms $a(1), a(2), a(3)$:

$\{ a(1); a(2); a(3) \}$.

With **strong negation**:

$\neg a(X) :- \text{not } a(X), X=1..3.$

$\{ a(1..3) \}$.

AnsProlog: Choice with cardinality

- The literal $l \{b_1; \dots; b_m\} u$ is true iff at least l and at most u atoms (included) are true within the set $\{b_1, \dots, b_m\}$.

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AnsProlog: Choice with cardinality

- The literal $l \{b_1; \dots; b_m\} u$ is true iff at least l and at most u atoms (included) are true within the set $\{b_1, \dots, b_m\}$.

Example

Generate all interpretations over the atoms $a(1), a(2), a(3), b(1), b(2)$ that contain exactly 2 true atoms:

$2 \{ a(1..3); b(1..2) \} 2.$

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AnsProlog: Choice with cardinality

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Generate all interpretations over the atoms $a(1), a(2), a(3), b(1), b(2)$ that contain exactly 2 true atoms:

```
2 { a(1..3); b(1..2) } 2.
```

Generate all interpretations over the atoms $a(1), a(2), a(3), b(1), b(2), b(3)$ that do not contain exactly 2 or more true atoms for the same predicate:

```
{ a(1..3); b(1..3) }.  
:- 2 { a(1..3) } 3.  
:- 2 { b(1..3) } 3.
```

AnsProlog: Domains of variables

- The domain of a variable must be known in order to avoid “unsafe”-error while the program is grounded.
- The domain can be set literal-wise, rule-wise, or program wise.
- For limiting the scope within a literal use the syntax:
`a(X) : dom(X) or a(X) : X=1..3`

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AnsProlog: Domains of variables

- The domain of a variable must be known in order to avoid “unsafe”-error while the program is grounded.
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`a(X) : dom(X) or a(X) : X=1..3`

Example

```
num(0..10).  
even(2*X) :- num(X), 2*X <=10.  
1 { a(X) : even(X) } 1.  
  
#show a/1.
```

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Example: Graph coloring

Example

```
#const n = 2.  
c(1..n).  
1 {color(X,I) : c(I)} 1 :- v(X).  
:- color(X,I), color(Y,I), e(X,Y), c(I).  
  
% Instance  
v(1..4).  
e(1,2).  
e(1,3).  
e(2,4).  
e(3,4).  
% e(2,3).  
  
#show color/2.
```

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Generate and test

ASP programs are often organized in a “generate-and-test” style: first describe candidate solutions, then rule out possible solutions by stating constraints.

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Generate and test

ASP programs are often organized in a “generate-and-test” style: first describe candidate solutions, then rule out possible solutions by stating constraints.

Example

```
% n-Queens encoding %  
#const n = 4.  
  
% Generate possible positions %  
1 { q(I,1..n) } 1 :- I = 1..n.  
  
% Rule out attacking positions %  
:- q(I1,J), q(I2,J), I1 != I2.  
:- q(I,J), q(I+D,J+D), D = 1..n.  
:- q(I,J), q(I+D,J-D), D = 1..n.
```

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Generate and test: Further example

Problem: In a graph find cliques of size $\geq n$

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Generate and test: Further example

Problem: In a graph find cliques of size $\geq n$

Example

```
#const n = 3.

edge(X,Y) :- edge(Y,X).
n {clique(X) : node(X)}.
:- clique(X), clique(Y), node(X), node(Y), X!=Y, not edge(X,Y).

% Instance %
node(1..5).
edge(1,2;4).
edge(2,3;4).
edge(3,4).
edge(4,2;5).

#show clique/1.
```

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AnsProlog: Miscellaneous

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The language is even bigger than that! It includes

- Disjunction in the head
- Other operators: `#sum`, `#min`, `#max`, `#even`, `#odd`, `#avg`, ...
- Multi-criteria optimizations
- Heuristic optimizations
- ...

(More on that in the exercises!)

Literature

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