AN INTRODUCTION TO ANSWER SET PROGRAMMING

Paul Vicol October 14, 2015 (Based on slides by Torsten Schaub)

- 0. My Research
- 1. Declarative Problem Solving
- 2. ASP Syntax and Semantics
- 3. Modeling Problems in ASP

MY RESEARCH

- We have a network of agents
- Each agent has some initial beliefs about the state of the world
- Agents communicate and share information
- **Goal:** Determine what each agent believes after learning as much as possible from other agents
- My research deals with ways to do this



DECLARATIVE PROBLEM SOLVING

TRADITIONAL IMPERATIVE PROGRAMMING

- Convert a problem specification into imperative code that solves instances of the problem
- Deal with algorithms and data structures
- The focus is on how to solve the problem



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DECLARATIVE PROBLEM SOLVING

- Directly encode the problem specification using a *modeling language*
- How do we solve the problem? vs What is the problem?
- Focus on how to describe the problem



- Write your problem in a formal representation (i.e. using logic)
- The representation defines an *implicit* search space, and gives a description of a solution
- An off-the-shelf *solver* takes the representation and finds its logical models
 - The problem representation should be such that these models represent solutions

WHAT IS ANSWER SET PROGRAMMING?

- ASP is a declarative problem-solving paradigm that combines an *expressive modeling language* with a *high-performance solver*
- It is geared towards solving NP-hard combinatorial search problems
- Originally developed for AI applications dealing with Knowledge Representation and Reasoning (KRR)
 - Led to a rich modeling language, compared to SAT
- Useful for solving combinatorial problems in P, NP, and NP^{NP}, in areas like
 - Bioinformatics
 - Robotics
 - Music Composition
 - Decision Support Systems used by NASA
 - Product Configuration

- The best ASP tools are developed by the University of Potsdam, Germany
- Download their ASP solver clingo from http://potassco.sourceforge.net/index.html

- Theorem-Proving-Based Approach (Prolog)
 - Solution given by the derivation of a query
- Model-Generation-Based Approach (ASP)
 - Solution given by a *model* of the representation

COMPARISON TO PROLOG

Is Prolog Declarative?

- Not really... shuffling rules in a program can break it
- Prolog program:

```
edge(1,2).
edge(2,3).
```

```
reachable(X,Y) :- edge(X,Y).
reachable(X,Y) :- edge(X,Z), reachable(Z,Y).
```

• A query:

```
?- reachable(1,3).
true.
```

COMPARISON TO PROLOG (CONTD.)

If we shuffle the program as follows:

```
edge(1,2).
edge(2,3).
```

```
reachable(X,Y) :- reachable(Z,Y), edge(X,Z).
reachable(X,Y) :- edge(X,Y).
```

• Then we get:

```
?- reachable(1,3).
```

Fatal Error: local stack overflow.

- This is not a bug in Prolog; it is intrinstic in the fixed execution of its inference algorithm
- Prolog provides constructs to alter program execution
 - The *cut* operator allows you to prune the search space, at the risk of losing solutions

COMPARISON TO PROLOG (CONTD.)

- Prolog is a *programming language*; it allows the user to exercise control
 - For a programming language, control is good
- ASP provides a representation language
 - Completely decouples problem specification from problem solving

Prolog	ASP
Query Derivation	Model Generation
Top-down	Bottom-up
Fixed execution order	No fixed execution order
Programming Language	Modeling Language

ASP SYNTAX AND SEMANTICS

• A *logic program* over a set of atoms \mathcal{A} is a set of rules of the form:

$$a_0 \leftarrow a_1, \ldots, a_m, \sim a_{m+1}, \ldots, \sim a_n$$

where each $a_i \in A$.

- Rules are a way of expressing constraints on a set of atoms
- "~" represents *default negation*
 - An atom is assumed to be false until it is proven to be true
- Let X be the set of atoms representing a solution
- This rule says: "If a₁,..., a_m are all in X, and none of a_{m+1},..., a_n are in X, then a₀ should be in X"

STABLE MODELS / ANSWER SETS

$$\varphi = q \land (q \land \neg r \rightarrow p)$$

- φ has three classical models: $\{p,q\}$, $\{q,r\}$, and $\{p,q,r\}$
 - {*p*, *q*} represents the model where:

 $p\mapsto 1,\;q\mapsto 1,\;r\mapsto 0$

The logic program representation of φ is P_φ:

 $q \leftarrow$

$$p \leftarrow q, \sim r$$

- This logic program has one *stable model* (a.k.a *answer set*): {*p*, *q*}
- A set X of atoms is a stable model of a logic program P if X is a (classical) model of P and all atoms in X are justified by some rule in P

MODELING PROBLEMS IN ASP

- Model your problem as a logic program
- The ASP solver only deals with *propositional* logic programs
- But it's more convenient (and much more flexible) to write first-order programs with variables
- Thus, the ASP solving process consists of two steps:
 - 1. A **grounder** converts a first-order program into a propositional program, by systematically replacing variables with concrete values from some domain
 - 2. A **solver** takes the *ground program* and assigns truth values to atoms to obtain the stable models of the program



ASP MODELING LANGUAGE

- Facts
 - ∎ a.
 - person(bill).
 - person(alice;bob;james).
 - Is shorthand for person(alice). person(bob). person(james).
 - num(1..10).
 - Is shorthand for num(1). num(2). num(3). num(4). etc.
- Rules
 - a :- b.
 - reachable(X,Z) :- edge(X,Y), reachable(Y,Z).

GROUNDING EXAMPLE

If we have a logic program
 r(a,b).

```
r(b,c).
t(X,Y) :- r(X,Y).
```

• Then the full ground instantiation is:

r(a,b). r(b,c). t(a,a) :- r(a,a). t(b,a) :- r(b,a). t(c,a) :- r(c,a).

- Which is trivially reduced to:
 r(a,b).
 r(b,c).
 t(a,b) :- r(a,b).
 - t(b,c) :- r(b,c).

- General methodology: generate and test (or "guess and check")
- 1. **Generate** candidate solutions through non-deterministic constructs (like choice rules)
- 2. Test them to eliminate invalid candidate solutions

ASP MODELING CONSTRUCTS

- Choice Rules
 - 1 { has_property(X,C) : property(C) } 1 :- item(X).
- Integrity Constraints
 - :- in_clique(2), in_clique(3), not edge(2,3).
 - "It cannot be the case that nodes 2 and 3 are in a clique, and there is no edge between 2 and 3."
- Aggregates
 - within_budget :- 10 #sum { Amount : paid(Amount) } 100.
- Optimization Statements
 - #maximize { 1,X:in_clique(X),node(X) }.

N-QUEENS PROBLEM

• **Goal:** Place *n* queens on an *n* × *n* chess board such that no queens attack each other



• Define the board:

```
row(1..n).
col(1..n).
$ clingo queens.lp --const n=4
Answer: 1
row(1) row(2) row(3) row(4) \
col(1) col(2) col(3) col(4)
SATISFIABLE
```

N-QUEENS - PLACING QUEENS

• Generate: Place any number of queens on the board:

```
{ queen(I,J) : row(I), col(J) }.
$ clingo queens.lp --const n=4 3
Answer: 1
row(1) row(2) row(3) row(4) \setminus
col(1) col(2) col(3) col(4)
Answer: 2
row(1) row(2) row(3) row(4) \setminus
col(1) col(2) col(3) col(4) queen(2,1)
Answer: 3
row(1) row(2) row(3) row(4) \setminus
col(1) col(2) col(3) col(4) queen(3,1)
SATISFIABLE
```

N-QUEENS - PLACING QUEENS



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- We need to say that there should only be *n* queens
- Expressed by an integrity constraint using *double negation*
 - "It should *not* be the case that there are *not n* queens."

```
:- not n { queen(I,J) } n.
$ clingo queens.lp --const n=4
Solving...
Answer: 1
queen(1,1) queen(2,1) queen(3,1) queen(4,1)
```

N-QUEENS - RESTRICTING THE NUMBER OF QUEENS

• The last solution looks like this:



- Prevent attacks by adding *integrity constraints*
- Forbid horizontal attacks (two queens in the same row):

:- queen(I,J1), queen(I,J2), J1 != J2.

• Forbid vertical attacks (two queens in the same column):

:- queen(I1,J), queen(I2,J), I1 != I2.

- And forbid diagonal attacks:
- :- queen(I,J), queen(II,JJ), (I,J) != (II,JJ), I+J == II+JJ.
- :- queen(I,J), queen(II,JJ), (I,J) != (II,JJ), I-J == II-JJ.

N-QUEENS - FULL PROGRAM

```
queens.lp
row(1..n).
col(1..n).
% Generate
n \{ queen(I,J) : row(I), col(J) \} n.
% Test
:- queen(I,J1), queen(I,J2), J1 != J2.
:- queen(I1,J), queen(I2,J), I1 != I2.
:- queen(I,J), queen(II,JJ), (I,J) = (II,JJ), I+J == II+JJ.
:- queen(I,J), queen(II,JJ), (I,J) != (II,JJ), I-J == II-JJ.
```

```
#show queen/2.
```

N-QUEENS - SOLUTION

```
$ clingo queens.lp --const n=4
Solving...
Answer: 1
queen(3,1) queen(1,2) queen(4,3) queen(2,4)
```



- ASP is very tolerant to elaboration in the problem specification
- Start with a large search space, and keep adding constraints to whittle down results
- Helps you to understand your problem, and is useful for prototyping

GRAPH 3-COLOURING PROBLEM

- **Problem instance:** A graph $G = \langle V, E \rangle$.
- **Goal:** Assign one colour to each node, such that no two nodes connected by an edge have the same colour.



GRAPH 3-COLOURING - INSTANCE



Represent the graph using node/1 and edge/2 predicates:

```
node(1..6).
edge(1,2). edge(1,3). edge(1,5).
edge(2,3). edge(2,4). edge(2,6).
edge(3,4). edge(3,5). edge(4,5). edge(5,6).
```

```
col(red;green;blue).
```

FOR REFERENCE: ASP MODELING CONSTRUCTS

- Choice Rules
 - 1 { has_property(X,C) : property(C) } 1 :- item(X).
- Integrity Constraints
 - :- in_clique(2), in_clique(3), not edge(2,3).
 - "It cannot be the case that nodes 2 and 3 are in a clique, and there is no edge between 2 and 3."
- Aggregates
 - within_budget :- 10 #sum { Amount : paid(Amount) } 100.
- Optimization Statements
 - #maximize { 1,X:in_clique(X),node(X) }.

- Generate: Assign one colour to each node using a *choice rule*
- 1 { node_col(X,C) : col(C) } 1 :- node(X).
 - **Test:** Eliminate candidate solutions where two nodes connected by an edge get the same colour, using an *integrity constraint*
- :- edge(X,Y), node_col(X,C), node_col(Y,C).

GRAPH 3-COLOURING - FULL PROGRAM

col.lp

```
node(1..6).
edge(1,2). edge(1,3). edge(1,5).
edge(2,3). edge(2,4). edge(2,6).
edge(3,4). edge(3,5).
edge(4,5).
edge(5,6).
```

```
col(red;green;blue).
1 { node_col(X,C) : col(C) } 1 :- node(X).
:- edge(X,Y), node_col(X,C), node_col(Y,C).
```

```
#show node_col/2.
```

```
$ clingo col.lp
Answer: 1
node_col(2,green) node_col(1,blue) node_col(3,red) \
node_col(5,green) node_col(4,blue) node_col(6,red)
SATISFIABLE
```

 Models
 : 1+

 Calls
 : 1

 Time
 : 0.003s (Solving: 0.00s 1st Model: 0.00s Unsat: 0.00s)

 CPU Time
 : 0.000s

GRAPH 3-COLOURING - INTERPRETING



GRAPH 3-COLOURING - ALL ANSWER SETS

• We also can enumerate all possible solutions:

```
$ clingo col_encoding.lp col_instance.lp 0
Answer: 1
node col(2,green) node col(1,blue) node col(3,red) \
node_col(5,green) node_col(4,blue) node_col(6,red)
Answer: 2
node col(2,green) node col(1,blue) node col(3,red) \
node_col(5,green) node_col(4,blue) node_col(6,blue)
Answer: 3
node_col(1,red) node_col(2,green) node_col(3,blue) \
node_col(5,green) node_col(4,red) node_col(6,red)
Answer: 4
node_col(1,red) node_col(2,green) node_col(3,blue) \
node_col(5,green) node_col(4,red) node_col(6,blue)
Answer: 5
node_col(1,red) node_col(2,blue) node_col(3,green) \
```

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XKCD KNAPSACK PROBLEM STATEMENT

MY HOBBY: EMBEDDING NP-COMPLETE PROBLEMS IN RESTAURANT ORDERS



XKCD KNAPSACK PROBLEM PART 1



- Order some amount (possibly 0) of each food
- Such that the sum of the costs of the foods times the number ordered is *exactly* some desired amount

• We can encode the foods and costs as follows:

food(fruit;fries;salad;wings;mozz_sticks;sampler).

cost(fruit,215). cost(fries,275). cost(salad,335). cost(wings,355). cost(mozz_sticks,420). cost(sampler,580).

```
#const total = 1505.
#const max_order = 10.
```

food(fruit;fries;salad;wings;mozz_sticks;sampler).

cost(fruit,215). cost(fries,275). cost(salad,335). cost(wings,355). cost(mozz_sticks,420). cost(sampler,580).

% Have to set an upper bound on the orders for a specific food num(0..max_order).

% Order some amount (possibly 0) of each type of food
1 { order(Food, Number) : num(Number) } 1 :- food(Food).

% We want the prices to sum to the desired total
#sum{(Cost*N),F : order(F,N) : cost(F,Cost), num(N)} == total.

- clingo --const total=1505 xkcd.lp order(fruit,7) order(fries,0) order(salad,0) order(wings,0) order(mozz_sticks,0) order(sampler,0)
- clingo --const total=19000 xkcd.lp 0

Is ASP Declarative?

- In many ways, yes:
 - You provide a specification of the problem, and a problem instance, and you get a result
 - The order of rules doesn't matter
 - You don't have to think about *how* your problem is solved (algorithm, data structures), just *what* your problem is
- However...
 - Different problem encodings can yield different solving times
 - Efficiency still depends on how you specify your problem

- Performance generally depends on the size of the ground instantiation
 - This is what the solver has to look at
- Intelligent grounding techniques attempt to automatically reduce the size of the ground program by eliminating unnecessary rules
- But still, you can never recover from a bad encoding

- The previous encoding of n-Queens becomes slow at $n \approx 15$
- The encoding below is much better (gets to n ≈ 250 in the same amount of time):
- 1 { queen(I,1..n) } 1 :- I = 1..n.
- 1 { queen(1...,J) } 1 :- J = 1...
- :- 2 { queen(D-J,J) }, D = 2..2*n.
- :- 2 { queen(D+J,J) }, D = 1-n..n-1.
 - A version of this encoding was used to go to n = 5000
 - Solving took about 1 hour