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Cmodels for Tight Disjunctive Logic Programs*

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1 Introduction

Disjunctive logic programming under the stable model semantics [GL91] is a new answer set programming (ASP) methodology for solving combinatorial search problems. It is a form of declarative programming related to logic programming languages, such as Prolog, where the solutions to a problem are represented by answer sets, and not by answer substitutions produced in response to a query as in conventional logic programming. Instead of Prolog systems, this programming method uses answer set solvers, such as smodels1, smodelscc2, cmodels3, dlv4, and gnt1. These systems made it possible for ASP to be successfully applied in such areas as planning, bounded model checking, and space shuttle control. dlv and gnt are more general as they work with the class of disjunctive logic programs, while other systems cover nondisjunctive programs. System cmodels uses SAT solvers as search engines, which allows it to take advantage of rapid progress in the area of SAT. cmodels proved to be an efficient system in providing the solution to the wire-routing problem [EW04], and to the problem of reconstructing probable phylogenies in the area of historical linguistics [BEMR05]. In this work we extend cmodels [GLM04] to tight disjunctive programs. Complexity of finding a solution for such programs is NP, as in the case of nondisjunctive programs. Extending the syntax of the input language of cmodels to tight disjunctive programs permits the knowledge engineer to be more flexible with the encoding of the problems in the NP complexity class. Experimental analyses demonstrate that the approach is computationally promising and may advance applications of disjunctive logic programming.

2 Theory, Implementation, Usage, Experiments

We base our work on the relationship between the completion [Cla78] and answer set semantics for logic programs. For the large class of tight programs the answer

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1 http://www.tcs.hut.fi/Software/.
2 http://www.ececs.uc.edu/~schlipf/.
4 http://www.dbai.tuwien.ac.at/proj/dlv/.
% Sample graph encoding, i.e. graph contains 3 nodes, and 3 edges:
% edges between nodes 1 and 2, 2 and 3, 3 and 1.
node(1..3). edge(1,2). edge(2,3). edge(3,1).
% Declaration of three colors
% Disjunctive rule: stating that node has some color
colored(X, red) | colored(X, green) | colored(X, blue) :- node(X).
% Neighboring nodes should not have the same color
:- edge(X, Y), colored(X, C), colored(Y, C), col(C).

Fig. 1. Encoding of tight 3-colorability problem for grounder lparse: 3-col.lp

sets of the program are the same as the models of its completion, and hence SAT solvers can play the role of answer set enumerators. [LL03] introduced the notion of completion and tightness for disjunctive programs. A disjunctive program $\Pi$ is a set of disjunctive rules of the form $A \leftarrow B, F$ where $A$ is the head of the rule, and is either a disjunction of atoms or symbol $\bot$, $B$ is a conjunction of atoms, and $F$ is a formula of the form $\neg a_1, \ldots, \neg a_m$. We identify the disjunction of atoms $A$ with the set of the atoms occurring in $A$. The completion of $\Pi$ [LL03] is the set of propositional formulas that consists of the implication $B \land F \supset A$ for every rule in $\Pi$, and the implication $a \supset \bigvee_{A \leftarrow B, F \in R, a \in A} (B \land F \land \bigwedge_{p \in A \setminus \{a\}} \neg p)$ for each atom $a \in \Pi$. The positive dependency graph of $\Pi$ is directed graph $G$ such that the vertices of $G$ are the atoms occurring in $\Pi$, and for every rule in $\Pi$, $G$ has an edge from each atom in $A$ to each atom in $B$. Program $\Pi$ is tight if its positive dependency graph is acyclic.

**Theorem.** [LL03] For any tight disjunctive program $\Pi$ and any set $X$ of atoms, $X$ is an answer set for $\Pi$ iff $X$ satisfies the completion of $\Pi$.

Figure 1 presents the tight disjunctive program 3-col.lp based on the encoding of 3-colorability problem provided at the DLV web page.

We based our implementation on systems lparse --dlp and cmodels. lparse --dlp takes a disjunctive logic program with variables as an input and grounds the program. In order to use cmodels for solving disjunctive programs flag -dlp should be used. In the process of its operation, cmodels -dlp first verifies that the program is tight, by building the positive dependency graph and using a depth first search algorithm to detect a cycle in it. This step may be omitted from the execution sequence using flag -t. Second, cmodels -dlp forms the program’s completion, and last it calls a SAT solver to find the models of the completion. Flags number, -si, -rs, -mc are available, where number is an integer that stands for a number of solutions to find (0 stands for all solutions, 1 is a default), and -mc (default), -si, -rs specify that SAT solver CHAFF, SIMO, RELSAT, respectively, is invoked during the search. For example, command line

```
lparsl --dlp 3-col.lp | cmodels -dlp
```

produces one answer set for the program in Figure 1:

**Answer set:** colored(1, red) colored(2, green) colored(3, blue)
It is worth noticing that 3-col.lp program is syntactically identical to the 3-colorability program with choice rules supported by systems smodels, smodelscc and cmodels. The disjunctive rule of program 3-col.lp is interpreted as the choice rule by these systems. Semantically, the rules are nevertheless different. The choice rule encodes the exclusive disjunction in the head of this rule. In case of 3-colorability problem this is acceptable interpretation of a rule and this allows us to find answer sets of the program also by means of nondisjunctive answer set programming.

For experimental analyses we used the encoding of the 3-colorability problem as in Figure 1. We compared the performance of cmodels -dlp with systems dlv, gnt on disjunctive program and also smodels, smodelscc and cmodels on choice rule encoding of a problem. All experiments were run on Pentium 4, CPU 3.00GHz and presented in Figures 2 and 3.

In Figure 2 we show the results of running cmodels with simo and dlv on the disjunctive programs, and smodels on the corresponding program with choice rules. The instances of Ladder graphs presented in the table were taken from the dlv web page. Columns lparse –dlp, cmodels, dlv and smodels present the running times of the systems in seconds. DLV running time also includes the time spent by the system on grounding the program. We can see that cmodels outperforms two other systems by more than an order of magnitude.

In Figure 3 we present the experiments with harder instances of the graphs. Letters L, S in the names of the graph instances stand for ladder and simplex, while the number stands for the number of nodes divided by 1000 in the ladder graphs, and the number of levels in the simplex graphs. SMODELS, DLV and GNT were not able to terminate on our test programs within the 30 minutes cutoff time. Columns lparse, cmodels simo, cmodels chaff, and smodelscc present the running times of the systems in seconds. The numbers before and after ”\” stand for invocation of lparse –dlp, cmodels -dlp on disjunctive programs, and lparse, cmodels on corresponding programs with choice rules, respectively. The second and the third columns demonstrate that the ground disjunctive program is smaller than the corresponding ground program with choice rules: lparse encodes disjunctive rules more economically than choice rules. Cmodels -dlp, in its turn, takes an advantage of a smaller ground program and produces fewer clauses. For example, the performance of cmodels -dlp simo on the disjunctive program saves 18 to 29% of running time in comparison with cmodels simo performance on the program with choice rules. Cmodels -dlp simo also outperforms smodelscc on ladder graphs by an order of magnitude. In case of simplex graph instances cmodels -dlp chaff also outperforms smodelscc. Capability of using different search engines may prove to be useful in practical applications.

3 Conclusions and Future Work

The evaluation of cmodels -dlp shows that it is a promising approach that might advance the use of the disjunctive answer set programming paradigm in
practice. [LZ02] provided the theoretical base for using SAT solvers for computing answer sets for nontight nondisjunctive programs. Systems assat [LZ02] and cmodels [GLM04] are the implementations that demonstrated promising experimental results. [LL03] extended the theory used by the approach to the case of nontight disjunctive programs. Future work is to add the capability to cmodels to find answer sets for nontight disjunctive programs.

References


