



# PROBLEM SOLVING AND SEARCH IN ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE

## Lecture 6 Answer-Set Programming Motivation and Introduction

\* slides adapted from Torsten Schaub [Gebser et al.(2012)]

Sarah Gaggl

Dresden, 19th May 2017

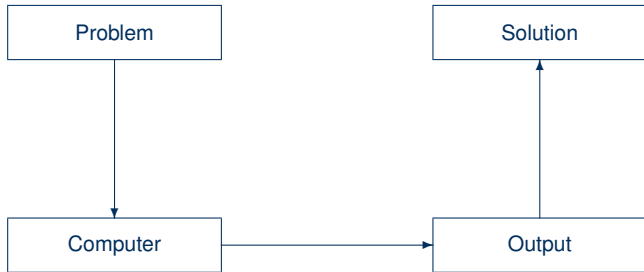
# Agenda

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Constraint Satisfaction (CSP)
- 3 Uninformed Search versus Informed Search (Best First Search, A\* Search, Heuristics)
- 4 Local Search, Stochastic Hill Climbing, Simulated Annealing
- 5 Tabu Search
- 6 Answer-set Programming (ASP)
- 7 Evolutionary Algorithms/ Genetic Algorithms
- 8 Structural Decomposition Techniques (Tree/Hypertree Decompositions)

# Outline

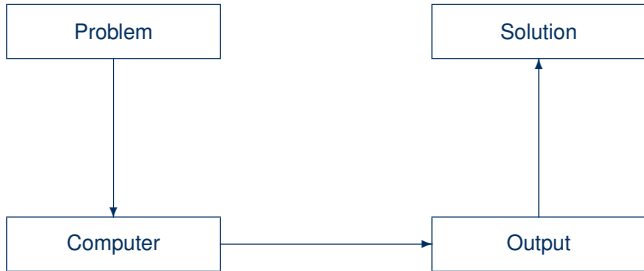
- 1 Motivation
  - Declarative Problem Solving
  - ASP in a Nutshell
  - ASP Paradigm
- 2 Introduction
  - Syntax
  - Semantics
  - Examples
  - Language Constructs
  - Modeling

# Informatics



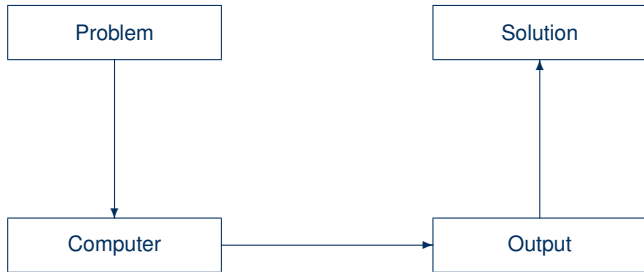
# Informatics

“What is the problem?” versus “How to solve the problem?”



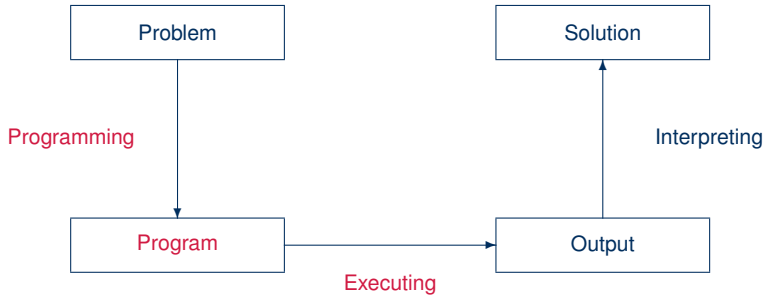
# Traditional programming

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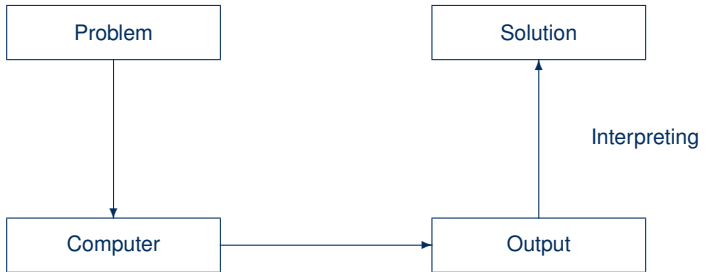
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# Declarative problem solving

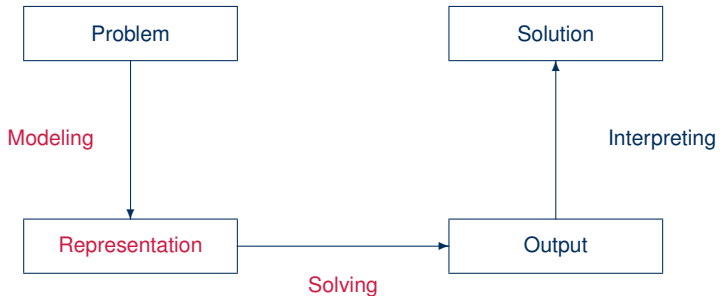
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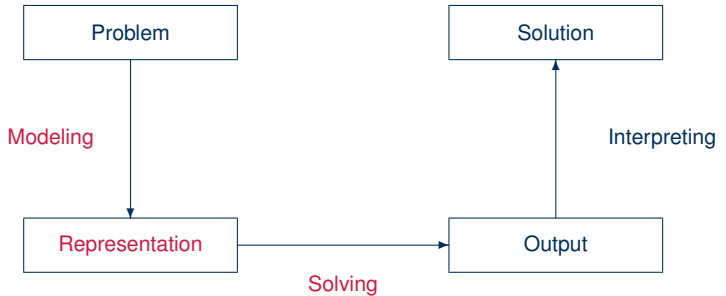


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# Declarative problem solving



# Answer Set Programming

## in a Nutshell

- ASP is an approach to **declarative problem solving**, combining
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  - (deductive) databases
  - logic programming (with negation)
  - (logic-based) knowledge representation and (nonmonotonic) reasoning
  - constraint solving (in particular, SATisfiability testing)

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- ASP is versatile as reflected by the ASP solver **clasp**, winning first places at ASP, CASC, MISC, PB, and SAT competitions
- ASP embraces many emerging application areas

# Answer Set Programming

in a Hazelnutshell

- ASP is an approach to **declarative problem solving**, combining
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**ASP = DB+LP+KR+SAT**

# KR's shift of paradigm

Theorem Proving based approach (eg. Prolog)

- 1 Provide a representation of the problem
- 2 A solution is given by a **derivation** of a query

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- 1 Provide a representation of the problem
- 2 A solution is given by a **model** of the representation

# Model Generation based Problem Solving

Representation	Solution
constraint satisfaction problem	assignment
propositional horn theories	smallest model
propositional theories	models
propositional theories	minimal models
propositional theories	stable models
propositional programs	minimal models
propositional programs	supported models
propositional programs	stable models
first-order theories	models
first-order theories	minimal models
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first-order theories	Herbrand models
auto-epistemic theories	expansions
default theories	extensions
⋮	⋮

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**SAT**

# LP-style playing with blocks

## Prolog program

```
on(a,b).
```

```
on(b,c).
```

```
above(X,Y) :- on(X,Y).
```

```
above(X,Y) :- on(X,Z), above(Z,Y).
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## Prolog queries

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?- above(a,c).  
true.
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## Prolog queries (testing entailment)

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?- above(c,a).  
no.
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# LP-style playing with blocks

## Shuffled Prolog program

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above(X,Y) :- above(X,Z), on(Z,Y).
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above(X,Y) :- on(X,Y).
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## Prolog queries

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## Prolog queries (answered via fixed execution)

```
?- above(a,c).  
  
Fatal Error: local stack overflow.
```

# SAT-style playing with blocks

## Formula

$on(a, b)$   
 $\wedge on(b, c)$   
 $\wedge (on(X, Y) \rightarrow above(X, Y))$   
 $\wedge (on(X, Z) \wedge above(Z, Y) \rightarrow above(X, Y))$

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## Herbrand model

$\left\{ \begin{array}{ccccc} on(a, b), & on(b, c), & on(a, c), & on(b, b), & \\ above(a, b), & above(b, c), & above(a, c), & above(b, b), & above(c, b) \end{array} \right\}$

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➡ **Answer Set Programming (ASP)**

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# Answer Set Programming at large

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# Answer Set Programming commonly

Representation	Solution
propositional theories	stable models
propositional programs	stable models
first-order theories	stable models
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# Answer Set Programming in practice

Representation	Solution
propositional programs	stable models
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# Answer Set Programming in practice

Representation	Solution
propositional programs	stable models
first-order programs	stable Herbrand models

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## Stable Herbrand model

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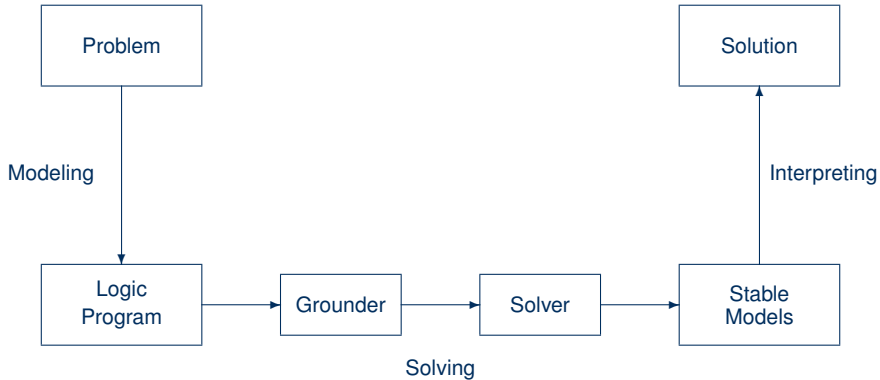
# ASP versus LP

ASP	Prolog
Model generation	Query orientation
Bottom-up	Top-down
Modeling language	Programming language
Rule-based format	
Instantiation Flat terms	Unification Nested terms
(Turing +) $NP^{(NP)}$	Turing

# ASP versus SAT

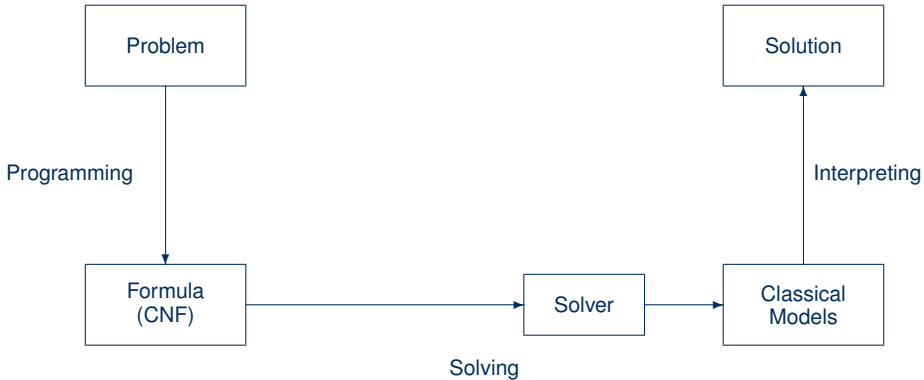
ASP	SAT
Model generation	
Bottom-up	
Constructive Logic	Classical Logic
Closed (and open) world reasoning	Open world reasoning
Modeling language	—
Complex reasoning modes	Satisfiability testing
Satisfiability	Satisfiability
Enumeration/Projection	—
Optimization	—
Intersection/Union	—
(Turing +) $NP^{(NP)}$	$NP$

# ASP solving

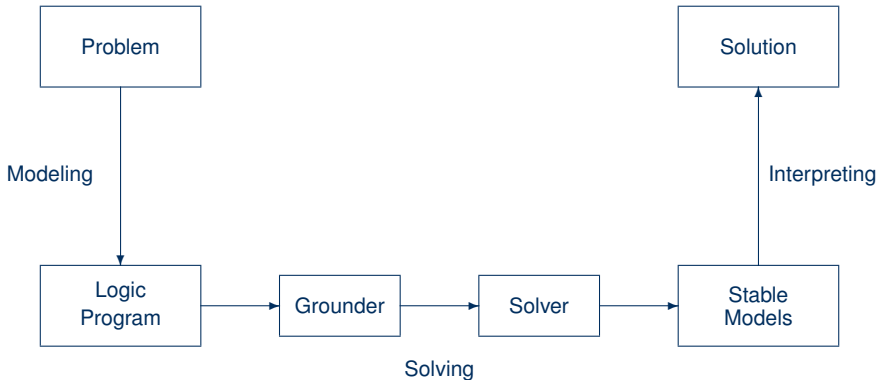




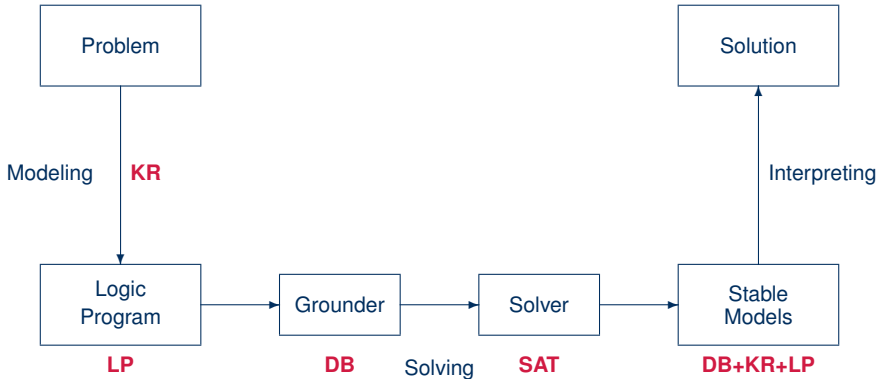
# SAT solving



# Rooting ASP solving



# Rooting ASP solving



# Two sides of a coin

- ASP as High-level Language
  - Express problem instance(s) as sets of facts
  - Encode problem (class) as a set of rules
  - Read off solutions from stable models of facts and rules
  
- ASP as Low-level Language
  - Compile a problem into a logic program
  - Solve the original problem by solving its compilation

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- Combinatorial search problems in the realm of *P*, *NP*, and *NP<sup>NP</sup>* (some with substantial amount of data), like
  - Automated Planning
  - Code Optimization
  - Composition of Renaissance Music
  - Database Integration
  - Decision Support for NASA shuttle controllers
  - Model Checking
  - Product Configuration
  - Robotics
  - System Biology
  - System Synthesis
  - (industrial) Team-building
  - and many many more

# What does ASP offer?

- Integration of DB, KR, and SAT techniques
- Succinct, elaboration-tolerant problem representations
  - Rapid application development tool
- Easy handling of dynamic, knowledge intensive applications
  - including: data, frame axioms, exceptions, defaults, closures, etc

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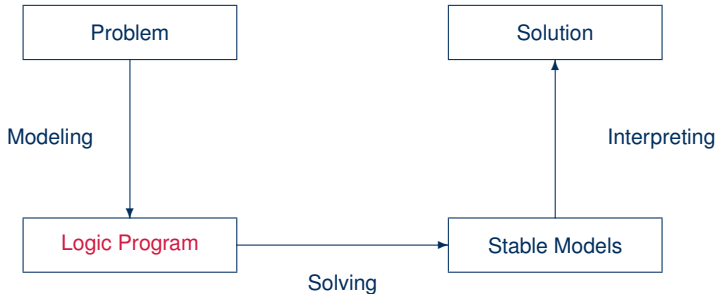
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# Problem solving in ASP: Syntax



# Normal logic programs

- A (normal) **logic program** over a set  $\mathcal{A}$  of atoms is a finite **set** of rules
- A (normal) **rule**,  $r$ , is of the form

$$a_0 \leftarrow a_1, \dots, a_m, \text{not } a_{m+1}, \dots, \text{not } a_n$$

where  $0 \leq m \leq n$  and each  $a_i \in \mathcal{A}$  is an atom for  $0 \leq i \leq n$

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- Notation

$$\begin{aligned} \text{head}(r) &= a_0 \\ \text{body}(r) &= \{a_1, \dots, a_m, \text{not } a_{m+1}, \dots, \text{not } a_n\} \\ \text{body}(r)^+ &= \{a_1, \dots, a_m\} \\ \text{body}(r)^- &= \{a_{m+1}, \dots, a_n\} \end{aligned}$$

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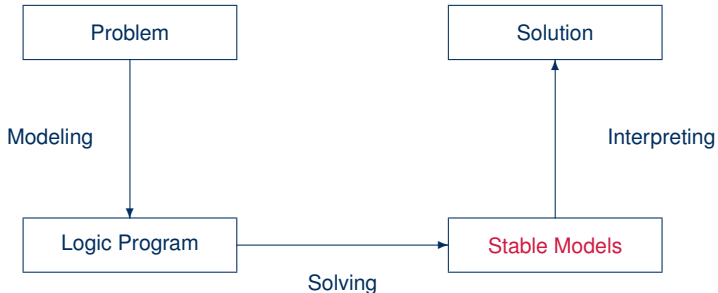
- A program is called **positive** if  $\text{body}(r)^- = \emptyset$  for all its rules

# Rough notational convention

We sometimes use the following notation interchangeably in order to stress the respective view:

	true, false	if	and	or	iff	default negation	classical negation
source code		<code>:-</code>	<code>,</code>	<code> </code>		<code>not</code>	<code>-</code>
logic program		<code>←</code>	<code>,</code>	<code>;</code>		<i>not</i>	$\neg$
formula	$\perp, \top$	$\rightarrow$	$\wedge$	$\vee$	$\leftrightarrow$	$\sim$	$\neg$

# Problem solving in ASP: Semantics



# Formal Definition

## Stable models of positive programs

- A set of atoms  $X$  is **closed under** a positive program  $P$  iff for any  $r \in P$ ,  $head(r) \in X$  whenever  $body(r)^+ \subseteq X$ 
  - $X$  corresponds to a model of  $P$  (seen as a formula)



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- The **smallest** set of atoms which is closed under a positive program  $P$  is denoted by  $Cn(P)$ 
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- The **smallest** set of atoms which is closed under a positive program  $P$  is denoted by  $Cn(P)$ 
  - $Cn(P)$  corresponds to the  $\subseteq$ -smallest model of  $P$  (ditto)
- The set  $Cn(P)$  of atoms is the **stable model** of a positive program  $P$

# Some “logical” remarks

- Positive rules are also referred to as **definite clauses**
  - Definite clauses are disjunctions with **exactly one** positive atom:

$$a_0 \vee \neg a_1 \vee \dots \vee \neg a_m$$

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- A set of definite clauses has a (unique) smallest model
- **Horn clauses** are clauses with **at most** one positive atom
  - Every definite clause is a Horn clause but not vice versa
  - Non-definite Horn clauses can be regarded as integrity constraints
  - A set of Horn clauses has a smallest model or none

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- Horn clauses are clauses with at most one positive atom
  - Every definite clause is a Horn clause but not vice versa
  - Non-definite Horn clauses can be regarded as integrity constraints
  - A set of Horn clauses has a **smallest model** or none
- This **smallest model** is the intended semantics of such sets of clauses
  - Given a positive program  $P$ ,  $Cn(P)$  corresponds to the smallest model of the set of definite clauses corresponding to  $P$

# Basic idea

Consider the logical formula  $\Phi$  and its three (classical) models:

$\{p, q\}$ ,  $\{q, r\}$ , and  $\{p, q, r\}$

$$\Phi \quad \boxed{q \wedge (q \wedge \neg r \rightarrow p)}$$

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$\{p, q\}$ ,  $\{q, r\}$ , and  $\{p, q, r\}$



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



# Basic idea

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(rooted in intuitionistic logics HT (Heyting, 1930) and G3 (Gödel, 1932))

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# Formal Definition

## Stable model of normal programs

- The **Gelfond-Lifschitz Reduct**[Gelfond and Lifschitz(1991)],  $P^X$ , of a program  $P$  relative to a set  $X$  of atoms is defined by

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- A set  $X$  of atoms is a **stable model** of a program  $P$ , if  $Cn(P^X) = X$
- Note:  $Cn(P^X)$  is the  $\subseteq$ -smallest (classical) model of  $P^X$
- Note: Every atom in  $X$  is justified by an “applying rule from  $P$ ”



# A closer look at $P^X$

- In other words, given a set  $X$  of atoms from  $P$ ,

$P^X$  is obtained from  $P$  by **deleting**

- 1 each **rule** having *not*  $a$  in its body with  $a \in X$   
and then
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$\{p\}$		
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- A logic program may have zero, one, or multiple stable models!
- If  $X$  is a stable model of a logic program  $P$ , then  $X$  is a model of  $P$  (seen as a formula)
- If  $X$  and  $Y$  are stable models of a normal program  $P$ , then  $X \not\subseteq Y$

# Programs with Variables

Let  $P$  be a logic program

- Let  $\mathcal{T}$  be a set of (variable-free) **terms**
- Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a set of (variable-free) **atoms** constructable from  $\mathcal{T}$

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- **Ground Instances** of  $r \in P$ : Set of variable-free rules obtained by replacing all variables in  $r$  by elements from  $\mathcal{T}$ :

$$\text{ground}(r) = \{r\theta \mid \theta : \text{var}(r) \rightarrow \mathcal{T}, \text{var}(r\theta) = \emptyset\}$$

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- **Ground Instantiation** of  $P$ :  $\text{ground}(P) = \bigcup_{r \in P} \text{ground}(r)$

# An example

$$P = \{ r(a, b) \leftarrow, r(b, c) \leftarrow, t(X, Y) \leftarrow r(X, Y) \}$$

$$\mathcal{T} = \{a, b, c\}$$

$$\mathcal{A} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} r(a, a), r(a, b), r(a, c), r(b, a), r(b, b), r(b, c), r(c, a), r(c, b), r(c, c), \\ t(a, a), t(a, b), t(a, c), t(b, a), t(b, b), t(b, c), t(c, a), t(c, b), t(c, c) \end{array} \right\}$$

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$$\text{ground}(P) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} r(a, b) \leftarrow, \\ r(b, c) \leftarrow, \\ t(a, a) \leftarrow r(a, a), t(b, a) \leftarrow r(b, a), t(c, a) \leftarrow r(c, a), \\ t(a, b) \leftarrow r(a, b), t(b, b) \leftarrow r(b, b), t(c, b) \leftarrow r(c, b), \\ t(a, c) \leftarrow r(a, c), t(b, c) \leftarrow r(b, c), t(c, c) \leftarrow r(c, c) \end{array} \right\}$$

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- **Intelligent Grounding** aims at reducing the ground instantiation

# Stable models of programs with Variables

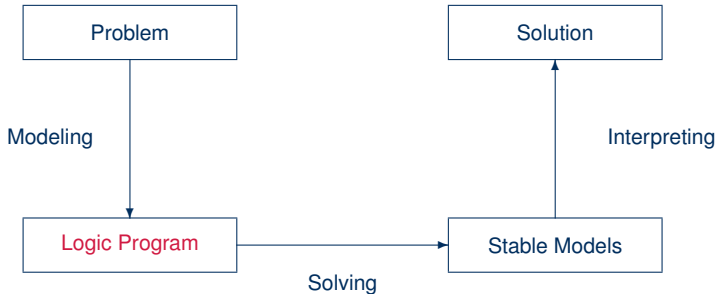
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# Problem solving in ASP: Extended Syntax



# Language Constructs



# Language Constructs

- Variables (over the Herbrand Universe)
  - $p(X) :- q(X)$  over constants  $\{a,b,c\}$  stands for  
 $p(a) :- q(a), p(b) :- q(b), p(c) :- q(c)$

# Language Constructs

- Conditional Literals

- $p :- q(X) : r(X)$  given  $r(a), r(b), r(c)$  stands for  
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# Language Constructs

- Disjunction

–  $p(x) \mid q(x) :- r(x)$

# Language Constructs

- Integrity Constraints

- $\text{:- } q(X), p(X)$

# Language Constructs

- Choice

- `2 { p(X,Y) : q(X) } 7 :- r(Y)`

# Language Constructs

- Aggregates

- `s(Y) :- r(Y), 2 #count { p(X,Y) : q(X) } 7`
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# Modeling

- For solving a problem class **C** for a problem instance **I**, encode
  - 1 the problem instance **I** as a set  $P_I$  of facts and
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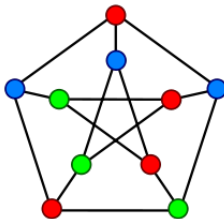
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- $P_{\mathbf{C}}$  is often called the **problem encoding**
- An **encoding**  $P_{\mathbf{C}}$  is **uniform**, if it can be used to solve all its problem instances  
That is,  $P_{\mathbf{C}}$  encodes the solutions to  $\mathbf{C}$  for any set  $P_{\mathbf{I}}$  of facts

# Example 3-Colorability



- Vertices are represented with predicates  $\text{node}(X)$ ;
- Edges are represented with predicates  $\text{edge}(X, Y)$ .

Question: Is there a valid assignment of three colors for an input graph  $G$  such that no two adjacent vertices have the same color?

# Graph coloring

node (1..6) .

# Graph coloring

node (1..6) .

edge (1, 2) .    edge (1, 3) .    edge (1, 4) .

edge (2, 4) .    edge (2, 5) .    edge (2, 6) .

edge (3, 1) .    edge (3, 4) .    edge (3, 5) .

edge (4, 1) .    edge (4, 2) .

edge (5, 3) .    edge (5, 4) .    edge (5, 6) .

edge (6, 2) .    edge (6, 3) .    edge (6, 5) .

# Graph coloring

```
node (1..6) .
```

```
edge (1,2) .   edge (1,3) .   edge (1,4) .
```

```
edge (2,4) .   edge (2,5) .   edge (2,6) .
```

```
edge (3,1) .   edge (3,4) .   edge (3,5) .
```

```
edge (4,1) .   edge (4,2) .
```

```
edge (5,3) .   edge (5,4) .   edge (5,6) .
```

```
edge (6,2) .   edge (6,3) .   edge (6,5) .
```

```
col(r) .   col(b) .   col(g) .
```

# Graph coloring

```
node (1..6) .
```

```
edge (1,2) .   edge (1,3) .   edge (1,4) .
```

```
edge (2,4) .   edge (2,5) .   edge (2,6) .
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} Problem  
instance

# Graph coloring

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

```
col(r). col(b). col(g).
```

```
1 { color(X,C) : col(C) } 1 :- node(X).
```



# Graph coloring

```
node(1..6).
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col(r). col(b). col(g).
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1 { color(X,C) : col(C) } 1 :- node(X).
```

```
:- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C).
```

# Graph coloring

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```

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} Problem  
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**Problem  
instance**

```
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```
:- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C).
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**Problem  
encoding**

# color.lp

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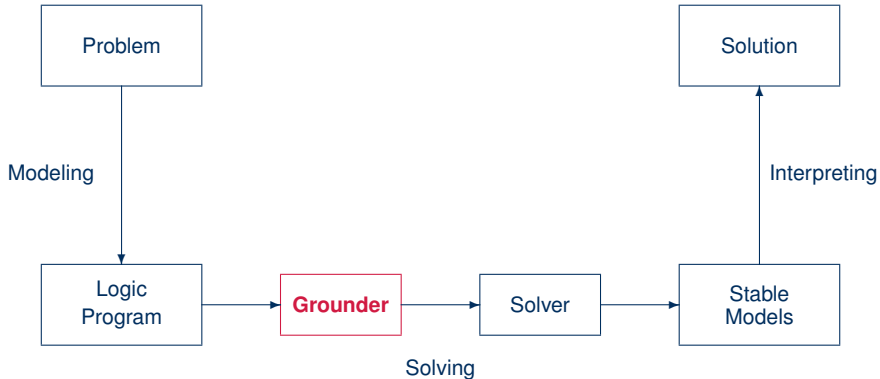
```
edge(6,2). edge(6,3). edge(6,5).
```

```
col(r). col(b). col(g).
```

```
1 { color(X,C) : col(C) } 1 :- node(X).
```

```
:- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C).
```

# ASP solving process



# Graph coloring: Grounding

```
$ gringo --text color.lp
```

# Graph coloring: Grounding

```
$ gringo --text color.lp
```

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

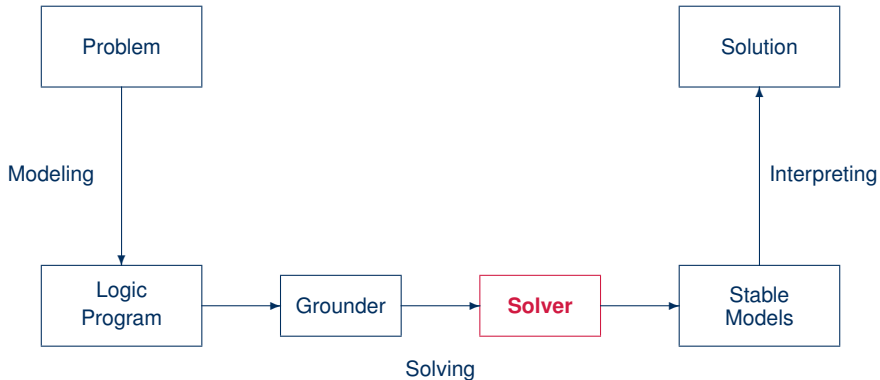
```
edge(1,2). edge(1,3). edge(1,4). edge(2,4). edge(2,5). edge(2,6).  
edge(3,1). edge(3,4). edge(3,5). edge(4,1). edge(4,2). edge(5,3).  
edge(5,4). edge(5,6). edge(6,2). edge(6,3). edge(6,5).
```

```
col(r). col(b). col(g).
```

```
1 {color(1,r), color(1,b), color(1,g)} 1.  
1 {color(2,r), color(2,b), color(2,g)} 1.  
1 {color(3,r), color(3,b), color(3,g)} 1.  
1 {color(4,r), color(4,b), color(4,g)} 1.  
1 {color(5,r), color(5,b), color(5,g)} 1.  
1 {color(6,r), color(6,b), color(6,g)} 1.
```

```
:- color(1,r), color(2,r). :- color(2,g), color(5,g). ... :- color(6,r), color(2,r).  
:- color(1,b), color(2,b). :- color(2,r), color(6,r). :- color(6,b), color(2,b).  
:- color(1,g), color(2,g). :- color(2,b), color(6,b). :- color(6,g), color(2,g).  
:- color(1,r), color(3,r). :- color(2,g), color(6,g). :- color(6,r), color(3,r).  
:- color(1,b), color(3,b). :- color(3,r), color(1,r). :- color(6,b), color(3,b).  
:- color(1,g), color(3,g). :- color(3,b), color(1,b). :- color(6,g), color(3,g).  
:- color(1,r), color(4,r). :- color(3,g), color(1,g). :- color(6,r), color(5,r).  
:- color(1,b), color(4,b). :- color(3,r), color(4,r). :- color(6,b), color(5,b).  
:- color(1,g), color(4,g). :- color(3,b), color(4,b). :- color(6,g), color(5,g).  
:- color(2,r), color(4,r). :- color(3,g), color(4,g).  
:- color(2,b), color(4,b). :- color(3,r), color(5,r).  
:- color(2,g), color(4,g). :- color(3,b), color(5,b).  
:- color(2,r), color(5,r). :- color(3,g), color(5,g).  
:- color(2,b), color(5,b). :- color(4,r), color(1,r).
```

# ASP solving process





# Graph coloring: Solving

```
$ gringo color.lp | clasp 0
```

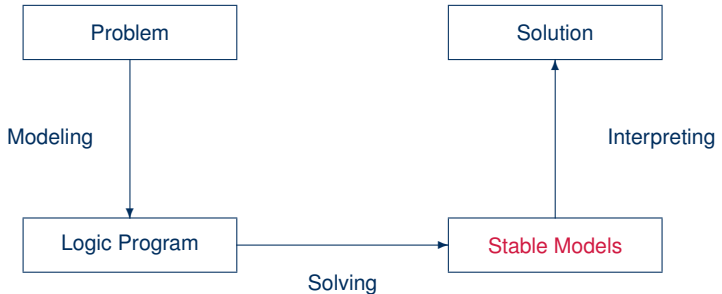
# Graph coloring: Solving

```
$ gringo color.lp | clasp 0
```

```
clasp version 2.1.0
Reading from stdin
Solving...
Answer: 1
edge(1,2) ... col(r) ... node(1) ... color(6,b) color(5,g) color(4,b) color(3,r) color(2,r)
Answer: 2
edge(1,2) ... col(r) ... node(1) ... color(6,r) color(5,g) color(4,r) color(3,b) color(2,b)
Answer: 3
edge(1,2) ... col(r) ... node(1) ... color(6,g) color(5,b) color(4,g) color(3,r) color(2,r)
Answer: 4
edge(1,2) ... col(r) ... node(1) ... color(6,r) color(5,b) color(4,r) color(3,g) color(2,g)
Answer: 5
edge(1,2) ... col(r) ... node(1) ... color(6,g) color(5,r) color(4,g) color(3,b) color(2,b)
Answer: 6
edge(1,2) ... col(r) ... node(1) ... color(6,b) color(5,r) color(4,b) color(3,g) color(2,g)
SATISFIABLE

Models      : 6
Time        : 0.002s (Solving: 0.00s 1st Model: 0.00s Unsat: 0.00s)
CPU Time    : 0.000s
```

# Problem solving in ASP: Reasoning Modes



# Reasoning Modes

- Satisfiability
- Enumeration<sup>†</sup>
- Projection<sup>†</sup>
- Intersection<sup>‡</sup>
- Union<sup>‡</sup>
- Optimization
- and combinations of them

<sup>†</sup> without solution recording

<sup>‡</sup> without solution enumeration

# References



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- See also: <http://potassco.sourceforge.net>