Verifying the Equivalence of Logic Programs in the Disjunctive Case

#### **Motivation**

- Solving a problem in answer set programming (ASP) typically results in several versions of the logic program formalizing the problem.
- Problem: how to ensure that different encodings yield the same output i.e. have the same answer sets?
- We consider the following two notions of equivalence
  - Logic programs P and Q are (weakly) equivalent (P ≡ Q)
    ⇒ P and Q have exactly the same answer sets.
  - Logic programs P and Q are strongly equivalent (P ≡<sub>s</sub> Q)
    ⇔ P ∪ R ≡ Q ∪ R for all logic programs R.

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#### Outline

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- Motivation: Equivalence of Logic Programs
- Disjunctive Logic Programs: Syntax and Semantics
- Translation-based Verification Method
- Experiments

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Conclusions

### **Motivation Cont'd**

- We consider (weak) equivalence of disjunctive logic programs.
- We have previously developed an automated translation-based method for verifying the equivalence of programs supported by the SMODELS system.
- $P \equiv_{s} Q \Longrightarrow P \equiv Q$  (by setting  $R = \emptyset$ ), but  $P \equiv Q \not\Longrightarrow P \equiv_{s} Q$ .
- Whether P ≡ Q holds, remains open whenever P ≢<sub>s</sub> Q holds
  ⇒ Verifying P ≡ Q remains as a problem of its own.
- Complexity results support this view: deciding P ≡ Q for finite propositional disjunctive programs is Π<sup>P</sup><sub>2</sub>-hard whereas deciding P ≡<sub>s</sub> Q is only coNP-complete.



# **Disjunctive Logic Programs**

• A (propositional) *disjunctive logic program* (DLP) *P* is a set of *rules* of the form

 $a_1 \mid \ldots \mid a_n \leftarrow b_1, \ldots, b_m, \sim c_1, \ldots, \sim c_k,$ 

where  $a_1, \ldots, a_n, b_1, \ldots, b_m, c_1, \ldots, c_k$  are propositional atoms and n, k, m are natural numbers.

- A shorthand:  $A \leftarrow B, \sim C$ .
- Program P is *normal* if n = 1 for each rule of P.
- Program P is *positive* if k = 0 for each rule of P.



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# Satisfaction Relation and Minimal Models

- The *Herbrand base* Hb(P) is the set of atoms appearing in P.
- An *interpretation*  $I \subseteq Hb(P)$  of P defines which atoms  $a \in Hb(P)$  are true  $(a \in I)$  and which are false  $(a \notin I)$ .
- An interpretation I is a (classical) *model* of  $P(I \models P) \iff$ for each  $A \leftarrow B, \sim C \in P$ ,  $B \subseteq I$  and  $C \cap I = \emptyset$  imply  $A \cap I \neq \emptyset$ .
- M is a *minimal model* of P, if there is no  $M' \subset M$  such that  $M' \models P$ . The set of minimal models of P is denoted by  $\mathbf{MM}(P)$ .

## **Stable Model Semantics**

• Given a DLP P and  $M \subseteq \operatorname{Hb}(P)$ , the *Gelfond-Lifschitz reduct* of P is a positive program

 $P_M = \{ A \leftarrow B \mid A \leftarrow B, \sim C \in P \text{ and } M \cap C = \emptyset \}.$ 

- M is a stable model of  $P \iff M \in \mathbf{MM}(P_M)$ .
- We denote the set of stable models of P by  $\mathbf{SM}(P)$ .

**Example.** Consider  $P = \{a \mid b \leftarrow \neg b. \ b \leftarrow \neg a\}$  and  $M = \{a\}$ . Now,  $P_M = \{a \mid b \leftarrow \}$  and  $\mathbf{MM}(P_M) = \{\{a\}, \{b\}\}$ . Thus  $M \in \mathbf{SM}(P)$ .



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## **Verifying Equivalence**

- We assume that Hb(P) = Hb(Q) without loss of generality, since  $\{a \leftarrow a\} \equiv_s \emptyset$ .
- We consider a translation  $\operatorname{TR}(P,Q)$  such that  $\operatorname{TR}(P,Q)$  has a stable model  $\iff \exists M \in \mathbf{SM}(P)$  s.t.  $M \notin \mathbf{SM}(Q)$ . Thus,

 $P \equiv Q \iff \mathbf{SM}(\mathrm{TR}(P,Q)) = \emptyset \text{ and } \mathbf{SM}(\mathrm{TR}(Q,P)) = \emptyset.$ 

- We can distinguish two types of counter-examples for equivalence.
  - T1:  $\langle M, M \rangle$  s.t.  $M \in \mathbf{SM}(P)$  and  $M \not\models Q_M$ .
  - T2:  $\langle M, M' \rangle$  s.t.  $M \in \mathbf{SM}(P)$ ,  $M \models Q_M$ ,  $M' \subset M$  and  $M' \models Q_M$ .

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# The translation TR(P,Q) contains

- all the rules of *P* without modifications,
- a rule  $unsat \leftarrow B, \sim (A \cup C)$  for each rule  $A \leftarrow B, \sim C \in Q$ ,
- rules  $a^{\bullet} \leftarrow a, \sim a^{\circ}, \sim unsat$  and  $a^{\circ} \leftarrow a, \sim a^{\bullet}, \sim unsat$  for each atom  $a \in Hb(P)$ ,
- a rule  $unsat^{\bullet} \leftarrow B^{\bullet}, \sim (A^{\bullet} \cup C), \sim unsat$  for each rule  $A \leftarrow B, \sim C \in Q$ ,
- a rule  $diff \leftarrow a, \sim a^{\bullet}, \sim unsat$  for each atom  $a \in Hb(P)$  and
- rules  $ok \leftarrow unsat$ ;  $ok \leftarrow diff, \sim unsat, \sim unsat^{\bullet}$  and  $\perp \leftarrow \sim ok$ .



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## Example

- Programs P = {a | b} and Q = {a ← ~b}. The translation TR(P,Q) = {a | b. unsat ← ~a, ~b. unsat<sup>●</sup> ← ~a<sup>●</sup>, ~b, ~unsat a<sup>●</sup> ← a, ~a<sup>◦</sup>, ~unsat. a<sup>◦</sup> ← a, ~a<sup>●</sup>, ~unsat b<sup>●</sup> ← b, ~b<sup>◦</sup>, ~unsat. b<sup>◦</sup> ← b, ~b<sup>●</sup>, ~unsat diff ← a, ~a<sup>●</sup>, ~unsat. diff ← b, ~b<sup>●</sup>, ~unsat ok ← unsat. ok ← diff, ~unsat, ~unsat<sup>●</sup>. ⊥ ← ~ok}.
- Consider interpretation N = {b, b°, diff, ok}: TR(P,Q)<sub>N</sub> = {a | b. a<sup>•</sup> ← a. a° ← a. b° ← b. diff ← a. diff ← b ok ← unsat. ok ← diff}.
- $\mathbf{MM}(\mathrm{TR}(P,Q)_N) = \{\{a, a^{\bullet}, a^{\circ}, diff, ok\}, \{b, b^{\circ}, diff, ok\}\}, \text{ thus } N \in \mathbf{SM}(\mathrm{TR}(P,Q)), \mathbf{SM}(\mathrm{TR}(P,Q)) \neq \emptyset \text{ and therefore } P \neq Q.$

## **Two-Phased Translation**

- Since there are two types of counter-examples for equivalence, testing can be performed in two phases.
  - Phase 1: SM(TR<sub>1</sub>(P,Q)) ≠ Ø
    ⇒ ∃M ∈ SM(P) s.t. M ⊭ Q<sub>M</sub>,
    i.e. there exists a counter-example of type T1.
  - Phase 2 (if SM(TR<sub>1</sub>(P,Q)) = Ø): SM(TR<sub>2</sub>(P,Q)) ≠ Ø
    ⇒ ∃M ∈ SM(P) s.t. M ∉ MM(Q<sub>M</sub>),
    i.e. there exists a counter-example of type T2.
- $\operatorname{TR}_1(P,Q)$  and  $\operatorname{TR}_2(P,Q)$  can easily be obtained from  $\operatorname{TR}(P,Q)$ .



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# **Experiments**

- The translation functions have been implemented in C under Linux and a *naive cross-checking approach* as a shell script.
- The current implementation DLPEQ is available in the web: http://www.tcs.hut.fi/Software/lpeq/
- The performance of the naive and the two translation-based approaches was compared in several experiments.
- A two-way search of counter-examples was performed in any case.
- $\bullet~{\rm GNT}$  was used for the computation of stable models.



## **Disjunctive Random 3-SAT**

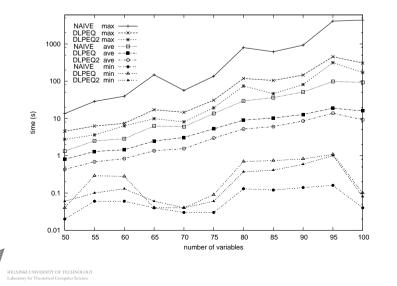
- We use problem of finding a minimal model of a random 3-SAT instance containing specified atoms as our first test problem.
- Encoding as DLPs that solve an instance of a random 3-SAT problem and additional rules for random atoms c<sub>i</sub>, for i = 1,..., |2v/100|, where v is the number of atoms.
- A fixed clauses to variables ratio c/v = 3.5.
- We test the equivalence of each program P against a variant P' obtained by dropping a random rule from P.

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## Results: Disjunctive Random 3-SAT



#### Random 2-QBF

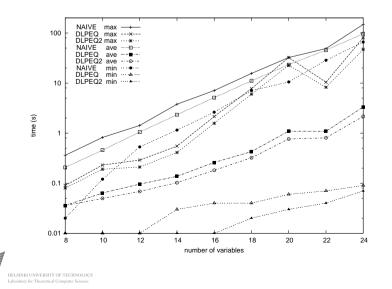
- Similarly to the previous experiment, but using DLP encodings of random 2-QBF instances Φ = ∃X∀Yφ, where φ is a 3-SAT instance in DNF over X ∪ Y.
- |X| = |Y|, v = |X| + |Y| and c/v = 3.5 = constant.



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### **Results: Random 2-**QBF



#### Conclusions

- Two translation-based methods and an implementation for verifying the equivalence of DLPs have been presented.
- In many cases, the time needed for computations is less than in a naive approach of cross-checking the stable models.
- If programs have no/few stable models, then the naive approach can become superior to the translation-based ones.
- Two-phased translation is faster than the one-phased one.
- Future work: experiments using real-life problems, extension to other classes of logic programs, other notions of equivalence.

