TECHNISCHE UNIVERSITÄT DRESDEN

Artificial Intelligence, Computational Logic

DEDUCTION SYSTEMS

Answer-Set Programming Motivation and Introduction

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

Sarah Gaggl

Dresden, 15 May 2014

DRESDEN concept
Exzellenz aus Wissenschaft und Kultur

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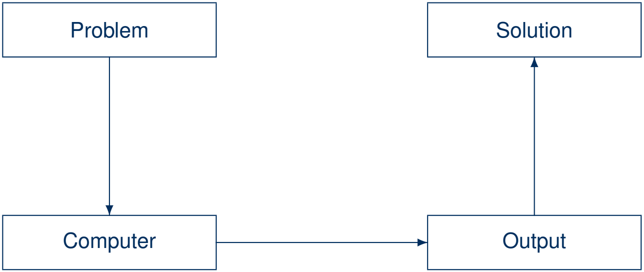
Outline

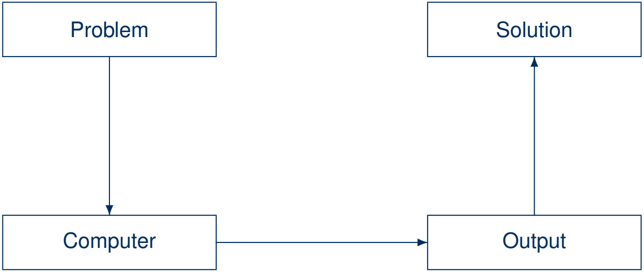
1. Motivation
   - Declarative Problem Solving
   - ASP in a Nutshell
   - ASP Paradigm
2. Introduction
   - Syntax
   - Semantics
   - Examples
   - Language Constructs
   - Modeling

Informatics



Informatics

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



Traditional programming

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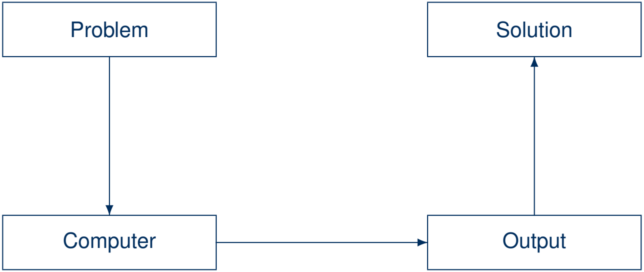

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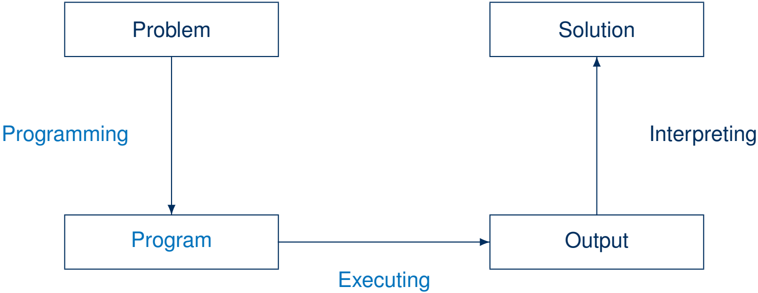

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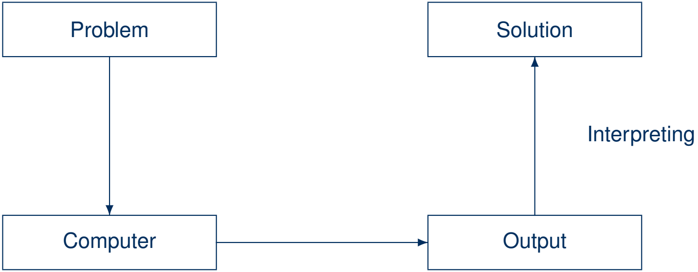

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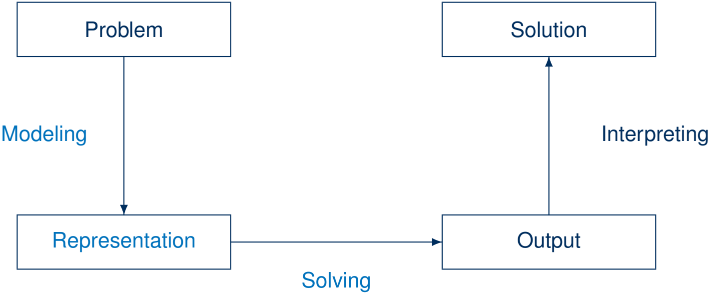

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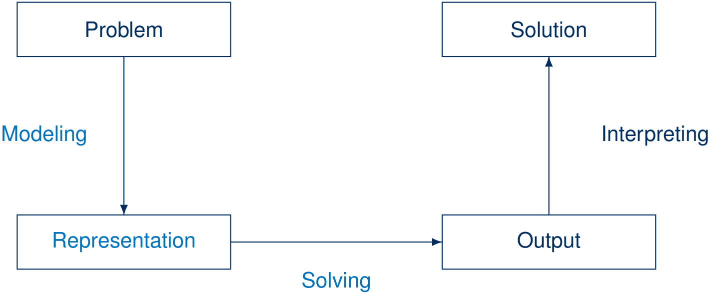

Answer Set Programming

in a Nutshell

- ASP is an approach to declarative problem solving, combining
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- ASP embraces many emerging application areas

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in a Hazelnutshell

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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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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 (testing entailment)

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Shuffled Prolog program

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Prolog queries (answered via fixed execution)

```
?- above(a,c).

Fatal Error: local stack overflow.
```

SAT-style playing with blocks

Formula

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
 & on(a,b) \\
\wedge & on(b,c) \\
\wedge & (on(X,Y) \rightarrow above(X,Y)) \\
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Herbrand model

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

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Herbrand model (among 426!)

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➥ Answer Set Programming (ASP)

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Stable Herbrand model

$\{\ \mathtt{on}(\mathtt{a},\mathtt{b}),\ \mathtt{on}(\mathtt{b},\mathtt{c}),\ \mathtt{above}(\mathtt{b},\mathtt{c}),\ \mathtt{above}(\mathtt{a},\mathtt{b}),\ \mathtt{above}(\mathtt{a},\mathtt{c})\ \}$

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Stable Herbrand model (and no others)

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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

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

What is ASP good for?

- Combinatorial search problems in the realm of P, NP, and NP^{NP} (some with substantial amount of data), like

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- Combinatorial search problems in the realm of P, NP, and NP^{NP} (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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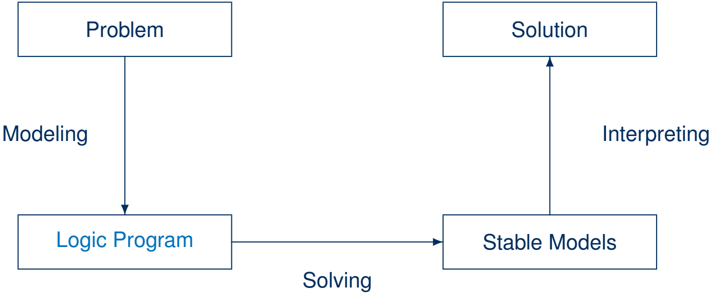
Problem solving in ASP: Syntax



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

$$a_0 \leftarrow a_1, \ldots, a_m, \mathit{not}\ a_{m+1}, \ldots, \mathit{not}\ a_n$$

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

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

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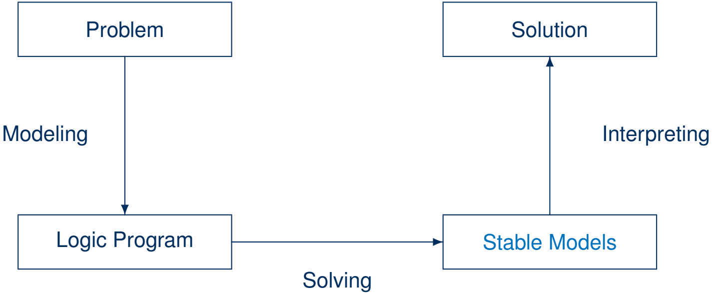
- A program is called positive if $body(r)^- = \emptyset$ for all its rules

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		`:-`	`,`	`|`		`not`	`-`
logic program		$\leftarrow$	$,$	$;$		not	$\neg$
formula	$\bot, \top$	$\rightarrow$	$\wedge$	$\vee$	$\leftrightarrow$	$\sim$	$\neg$

Problem solving in ASP: Semantics



Formal Definition

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- 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:

$$a_0 \vee \neg a_1 \vee \cdots \vee \neg a_m$$

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- 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

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Consider the logical formula Φ and its three (classical) models:

Φ $\boxed{q \;\land\; (q \land \neg r \to p)}$

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

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

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$$\boxed{\begin{array}{ccc} p & \mapsto & 1 \\ q & \mapsto & 1 \\ r & \mapsto & 0 \end{array}}$$

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Informally, a set X of atoms is a stable model of a logic program P

- if X is a (classical) model of P and
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(rooted in intuitionistic logics HT (Heyting, 1930) and G3 (Gödel, 1932))

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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

$$P^X = \{head(r) \leftarrow body(r)^+ \mid r \in P \text{ and } body(r)^- \cap X = \emptyset\}$$

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- 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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- Note: Only negative body literals are evaluated w.r.t. X

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X		$Cn(P^X)$
$\emptyset$		
$\{p\}$		
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$$P = \{p \leftarrow p,\ q \leftarrow not\ p\}$$

X	P^X	$Cn(P^X)$
$\emptyset$	$p \leftarrow p$ $q \leftarrow$	$\{q\}$
$\{p\}$	$p \leftarrow p$	$\emptyset$
$\{q\}$	$p \leftarrow p$ $q \leftarrow$	$\{q\}$
$\{p, q\}$	$p \leftarrow p$	$\emptyset$

A first example

$$P = \{p \leftarrow p,\; q \leftarrow not\ p\}$$

X	P^X	$Cn(P^X)$	
$\emptyset$	$p \leftarrow p$ $q \leftarrow$	$\{q\}$	✘
$\{p\}$	$p \leftarrow p$	$\emptyset$	
$\{q\}$	$p \leftarrow p$ $q \leftarrow$	$\{q\}$	
$\{p, q\}$	$p \leftarrow p$	$\emptyset$	

A first example

$$P = \{p \leftarrow p,\ q \leftarrow not\ p\}$$

X	P^X	$Cn(P^X)$	
$\emptyset$	$p \leftarrow p$ $q \leftarrow$	$\{q\}$	✘
$\{p\}$	$p \leftarrow p$	$\emptyset$	✘
$\{q\}$	$p \leftarrow p$ $q \leftarrow$	$\{q\}$	
$\{p, q\}$	$p \leftarrow p$	$\emptyset$	

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X	P^X	$Cn(P^X)$	
$\emptyset$	$p \leftarrow p$ $q \leftarrow$	$\{q\}$	✘
$\{p\}$	$p \leftarrow p$	$\emptyset$	✘
$\{q\}$	$p \leftarrow p$ $q \leftarrow$	$\{q\}$	✔
$\{p, q\}$	$p \leftarrow p$	$\emptyset$	

A first example

$$P = \{p \leftarrow p,\ q \leftarrow not\ p\}$$

X	P^X	$Cn(P^X)$	
$\emptyset$	$p \leftarrow p$ $q \leftarrow$	$\{q\}$	✘
$\{p\}$	$p \leftarrow p$	$\emptyset$	✘
$\{q\}$	$p \leftarrow p$ $q \leftarrow$	$\{q\}$	✔
$\{p, q\}$	$p \leftarrow p$	$\emptyset$	✘

A second example

$$P = \{p \leftarrow not\ q,\ q \leftarrow not\ p\}$$

A second example

$$P = \{p \leftarrow not\ q,\ q \leftarrow not\ p\}$$

X	P^X	$Cn(P^X)$
$\emptyset$	$p \leftarrow$ $q \leftarrow$	$\{p, q\}$
$\{p\}$	$p \leftarrow$	$\{p\}$
$\{q\}$	$q \leftarrow$	$\{q\}$
$\{p, q\}$		$\emptyset$

A second example

$$P = \{p \leftarrow not\ q,\ q \leftarrow not\ p\}$$

X	P^X	$Cn(P^X)$	
$\emptyset$	$p \leftarrow$ $q \leftarrow$	$\{p, q\}$	✘
$\{p\}$	$p \leftarrow$	$\{p\}$	
$\{q\}$	$q \leftarrow$	$\{q\}$	
$\{p, q\}$		$\emptyset$	

A second example

$$P = \{p \leftarrow \mathit{not}\ q,\ q \leftarrow \mathit{not}\ p\}$$

X	P^X	$Cn(P^X)$	
$\emptyset$	$p \leftarrow$ $q \leftarrow$	$\{p, q\}$	✘
$\{p\}$	$p \leftarrow$	$\{p\}$	✔
$\{q\}$	$q \leftarrow$	$\{q\}$	
$\{p, q\}$		$\emptyset$	

A second example

$$P = \{p \leftarrow not\ q,\ q \leftarrow not\ p\}$$

X	P^X	$Cn(P^X)$	
$\emptyset$	$p \leftarrow$ $q \leftarrow$	$\{p, q\}$	✗
$\{p\}$	$p \leftarrow$	$\{p\}$	✓
$\{q\}$	$q \leftarrow$	$\{q\}$	✓
$\{p, q\}$		$\emptyset$	

A second example

$$P = \{p \leftarrow \textit{not}\ q,\ q \leftarrow \textit{not}\ p\}$$

X	P^X	$Cn(P^X)$	
$\emptyset$	$p \leftarrow$ $q \leftarrow$	$\{p, q\}$	✘
$\{p\}$	$p \leftarrow$	$\{p\}$	✔
$\{q\}$	$q \leftarrow$	$\{q\}$	✔
$\{p, q\}$		$\emptyset$	✘

A third example

$$P = \{p \leftarrow not\ p\}$$

A third example

$$P = \{p \leftarrow not\ p\}$$

X	P^X	$Cn(P^X)$
$\emptyset$	$p \quad \leftarrow$	$\{p\}$
$\{p\}$		$\emptyset$

A third example

$$P = \{p \leftarrow not\ p\}$$

X	P^X	$Cn(P^X)$
$\emptyset$	$p \leftarrow$	$\{p\}$ ✘
$\{p\}$		$\emptyset$

A third example

$$P = \{p \leftarrow not\ p\}$$

X	P^X	$Cn(P^X)$	
$\emptyset$	$p \quad \leftarrow$	$\{p\}$	✘
$\{p\}$		$\emptyset$	✘

Some properties

- A logic program may have zero, one, or multiple stable models!

Some properties

- A logic program may have zero, one, or multiple stable models!
- If X is an 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 $X \not\subset Y$

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 $\mathcal{T}$

Programs with Variables

Let P be a logic program

- Let $\mathcal{T}$ be a set of variable-free terms (also called Herbrand universe)
- Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a set of (variable-free) atoms constructable from $\mathcal{T}$ (also called alphabet or Herbrand base)

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 $\mathcal{T}$

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

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

where $var(r)$ stands for the set of all variables occurring in r;
θ is a (ground) substitution

Programs with Variables

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  where $var(r)$ stands for the set of all variables occurring in r; θ is a (ground) substitution

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

An Example

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

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

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

An Example

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

An Example

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

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

- Intelligent Grounding aims at reducing the ground instantiation

Stable models of programs with Variables

Let P be a normal logic program with variables

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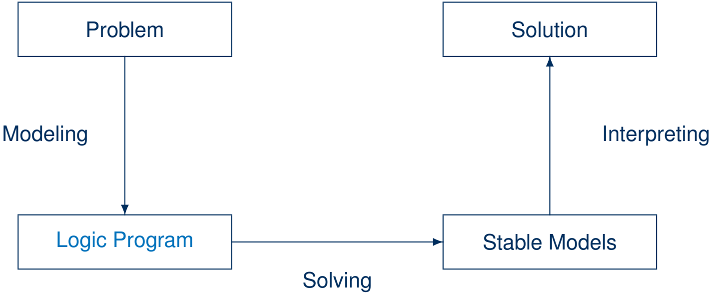
Stable models of programs with Variables

Let P be a normal logic program with variables

- A set X of (ground) atoms is a stable model of P,

  if $Cn(ground(P)^X) = X$

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
    `p :- q(a), q(b), q(c)`

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Language Constructs

- Disjunction
  - `p(X) | q(X) :- r(X)`

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Language Constructs

- Integrity Constraints
  - `:- 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`
  - also: `#sum, #avg, #min, #max, #even, #odd`

Language Constructs

- Variables (over the Herbrand Universe)
  - `p(X) :- q(X)` over constants $\{\mathtt{a}, \mathtt{b}, \mathtt{c}\}$ stands for
    `p(a) :- q(a), p(b) :- q(b), p(c) :- q(c)`
- Conditional Literals
  - `p :- q(X) : r(X)` given `r(a), r(b), r(c)` stands for
    `p :- q(a), q(b), q(c)`
- Integrity Constraints
  - `:- q(X), p(X)`
- Choice
  - `2 { p(X,Y) : q(X) } 7 :- r(Y)`
- Aggregates
  - `s(Y) :- r(Y), 2 #count { p(X,Y) : q(X) } 7`
  - also: `#sum, #avg, #min, #max, #even, #odd`

Modeling

- For solving a problem class **C** for a problem instance **I**, encode
  1. the problem instance **I** as a set $P_{\mathbf{I}}$ of facts and
  2. the problem class **C** as a set $P_{\mathbf{C}}$ of rules

  such that the solutions to **C** for **I** can be (polynomially) extracted from the stable models of $P_{\mathbf{I}} \cup P_{\mathbf{C}}$

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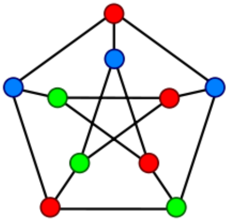
- $P_{\mathbf{I}}$ is (still) called problem instance
- $P_{\mathbf{C}}$ is often called the problem encoding

- 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 **C** for any set $P_{\mathbf{I}}$ of facts

Example 3-Colorability



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

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).
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

```
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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).
```

Problem instance

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).


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

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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).


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

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

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).
```

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

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

Problem encoding

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).
```

Problem instance

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

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

Problem encoding

color.lp

```
node(1..6).

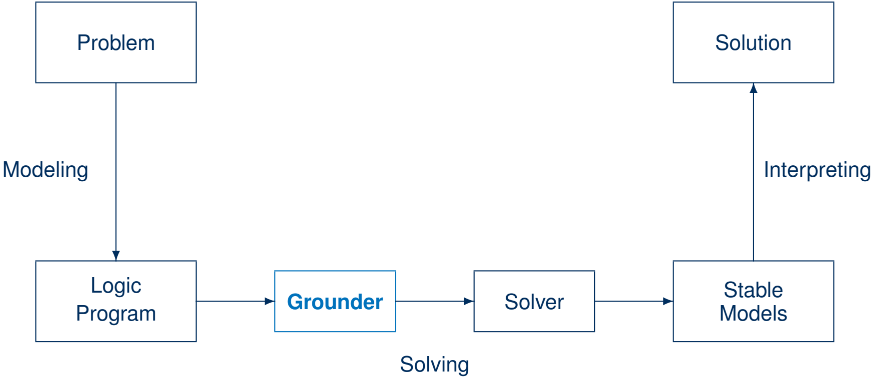
edge(1,2).  edge(1,3).  edge(1,4).
edge(2,4).  edge(2,5).  edge(2,6).
edge(3,1).  edge(3,4).  edge(3,5).
edge(4,1).  edge(4,2).
edge(5,3).  edge(5,4).  edge(5,6).
edge(6,2).  edge(6,3).  edge(6,5).

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


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).

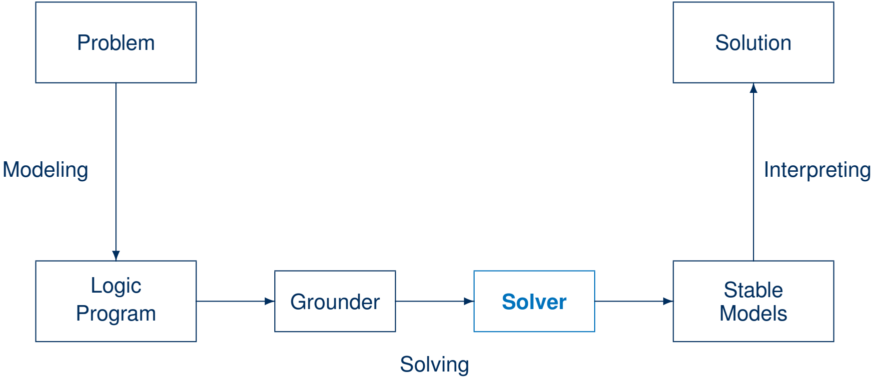
edge(1,2).  edge(1,3).  edge(1,4).  edge(2,4).  edge(2,5).  edge(2,6).
edge(3,1).  edge(3,4).  edge(3,5).  edge(4,1).  edge(4,2).  edge(5,3).
edge(5,4).  edge(5,6).  edge(6,2).  edge(6,3).  edge(6,5).

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).
```

ASP solving process



Graph coloring: Solving

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

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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
```

Reasoning Modes

- Satisfiability
- Enumeration†
- Projection†
- Intersection‡
- Union‡
- Optimization

- and combinations of them

† without solution recording

‡ without solution enumeration

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- See also: `http://potassco.sourceforge.net`