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Rewriting Optimization Statements in Answer-Set Programs

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Abstract

Constraints on Pseudo-Boolean (PB) expressions can be translated into Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF) using several known translations. In Answer-Set Programming (ASP), analogous expressions appear in weight rules and optimization statements. Previously, we have translated weight rules into normal rules, using normalizations designed in accord with existing CNF encodings. In this work, we rededicate such designs to rewrite optimization statements in ASP. In this context, a rewrite of an optimization statement is a replacement accompanied by a set of normal rules that together replicate the original meaning. The goal is partially the same as in translating PB constraints or weight rules: to introduce new meaningful auxiliary atoms that may help a solver in the search for (optimal) solutions. In addition to adapting previous translations, we present selective rewriting techniques in order to meet the above goal while using only a limited amount of new rules and atoms. We experimentally evaluate these methods in preprocessing ASP optimization statements and then searching for optimal answer sets. The results exhibit significant advances in terms of numbers of optimally solved instances, reductions in search conflicts, and shortened computation times. By appropriate choices of rewriting techniques, improvements are made on instances involving both small and large weights. In particular, we show that selective rewriting is paramount on benchmarks involving large weights.

1 Introduction

Answer-Set Programming (ASP) is a declarative programming paradigm suited to solving computationally challenging search problems [13] by encoding them as answer-set programs, commonly consisting of normal, cardinality, and weight rules, as well as optimization statements [31]. The latter three relate to linear Pseudo-Boolean (PB) constraints [21, 30] and PB optimization statements. Rules restrict the acceptable combinations of truth values for the atoms they contain. The role of a weight rule, or a PB constraint, is to check a bound on a weighted sum of literals, whereas an optimization statement aims at minimizing such a

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sum. Solutions to search problems can be cast to models, called **answer sets**, and computed by employing ASP **grounders** and **solvers** [4, 17, 22, 27, 31].

In both ASP and PB solving, support for non-standard rules or constraints can be implemented by translating them into simpler logical primitives prior to solving. The performance implications of such **translation-based approaches** in comparison to **native solving** techniques are mixed: both improvements and deteriorations have been observed [2, 10]. A promising direction in recent research [3, 2] is to translate only important constraints or parts of constraints during search. In previous work, we have evaluated the feasibility of translating cardinality rules [11] and weight rules [10] into normal rules, in a process that we call **normalization**. The explored techniques build on methods successfully applied in PB solving [21, 6, 5, 1]. The main observation with relevance to this work is that normalization commonly reduces the number of search conflicts at the cost of increased instance sizes and more time spent between conflicts.

In this paper, we introduce ways in which the primitives developed for cardinality and weight rule normalization can be used to rewrite optimization statements. Indeed, typical normalization or translation methods encode sums of input weights in some number system, such as unary or mixed-radix numbers, for which the comparison to a bound is straightforward. When dealing with optimization statements, the encodings of sums can be applied to the statements while forgoing comparisons. For illustration, suppose we intend to minimize the sum \( a + b \) of two atoms. Then, we may equally well minimize the sum \( c + d \) of two new atoms defined by sorting \( a \) and \( b \) via the rules “\( c :- a \), \( c :- b \), \( d :- a, b \).” This modification preserves the answer sets of a program regarding the original atoms and the respective optimization values. As in weight rule normalization, the purpose is to enhance solving performance by supplementing problem instances with structure in the form of auxiliary atoms. The atoms are defined in intuitively meaningful ways and provide new opportunities for ASP solvers to learn **no-goods** [22]. In addition, we develop selective rewriting techniques that partition input optimization statements and then rewrite some or all of the parts in separation. As a consequence, the size increase due to rewriting is mitigated, concerning the introduced auxiliary atoms and normal rules, and we study the tradeoff between the costs and benefits of rewriting in terms of solving performance.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces basic notations, answer-set programs, and simple optimization rewriting techniques. More elaborate techniques to rewrite optimization statements are presented in Section 3. In Section 4, we experimentally study the performance implications of applying these techniques. Related work is discussed in Section 5, and Section 6 concludes the paper.

## 2 Preliminaries and Basic Techniques

The following subsections introduce matrix-based expressions used to represent optimization statements and simple techniques for rewriting them.

### 2.1 Pseudo-Boolean Expressions

A **positive literal** is a propositional atom \( a \), and not \( a \) is a **negative literal**. We write \((n \times 1)\)-matrices, or (column) vectors, as \( \mathbf{v} = [v_1; \ldots; v_n] \) and refer to them by symbols like \( \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{d}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{\pi} \) when the elements \( v_i \) are nonnegative integers, by \( \mathbf{1} \) when \( v_1 = \cdots = v_n = 1 \), and by \( \mathbf{h}, \mathbf{l}, \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{t} \) when \( v_1, \ldots, v_n \) are literals. The **concatenation** of vectors \( \mathbf{v}_1 \) and \( \mathbf{v}_2 \) is \( [\mathbf{v}_1; \mathbf{v}_2] \). We also use \((m \times n)\)-matrices \( \mathbf{W} \) of nonnegative integers \( w_{ij} \), where \( i \) is the row and \( j \) the column. For the result \( \mathbf{W} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{B} \) of multiplying \((m \times k)\)- and \((k \times n)\)-matrices...
with elements $a_{ij}$ and $b_{ij}$, respectively, we have $w_{ij} = \sum_{l=1}^k a_{il} b_{lj}$. In the transpose $W^T$, each $w_{ij}$ is swapped with $w_{ji}$. We define a Pseudo-Boolean (PB) expression $e$ to be a linear combination of nonnegative weights $w = [w_1; \ldots; w_n]$ and literals $l = [l_1; \ldots; l_n]$:

$$e = w^T l = [w_1 \cdots w_n] [l_1 \cdots l_n] = w_1 l_1 + \cdots + w_n l_n.$$  

Let $A(e) = A(I) = \{ a \mid 1 \leq i \leq n, l_i = a \text{ or } l_i = \text{not } a \}$ denote the set of atoms in $e$ and $I$. An interpretation $I$ is a set of atoms distinguishing true atoms $a \in I$ and false atoms $a \notin I$. A vector like $l$ evaluates to $l(I) = [b_1; \ldots; b_n]$ at $I$, where for $1 \leq i \leq n$, we have $b_i = 1$ iff $l_i = a$ and $a \in I$, or $l_i = \text{not } a$ and $a \notin I$, and $b_i = 0$ otherwise. An expression like $e$ evaluates to $e(I) = (w^T l)(I) = w^T (l(I))$ at $I$. We extend this notation to sums of expressions by letting $(e_1 + \cdots + e_m)(I) = e_1(I) + \cdots + e_m(I)$. Two expressions $e_1$ and $e_2$ are equivalent, denoted by $e_1 \equiv e_2$, iff $e_1(I) = e_2(I)$ for each $I \subseteq A(e_1) \cup A(e_2)$.

### 2.2 Answer-Set Programs

We consider (ground) answer-set programs $P$, defined as sets of (normal) rules, which are triples $r = (a, B, C)$ of a head atom $a$ and sets of positive body atoms $B$ and negative body atoms $C$. An optimization program $O$ is a program-expression pair $(P, e)$, written in the ASP-Core-2 input format [14] using the forms

$$a :- b_1, \ldots, b_k, \text{not } c_1, \ldots, \text{not } c_m.$$  

(1)  

$$r \leftarrow l_1. \ [w_1, l] \ \cdots \ \leftarrow l_n. \ [w_n, n]$$  

(2)  

#minimize $\{w_1 : l_1; \ldots; w_n : n\}$.  

(3)

for rules $(a, b_1, \ldots, b_k, \{c_1, \ldots, c_m\})$ in (1), and weak constraints in (2) or optimization statements in (3) for the expression $e = w_1 l_1 + \cdots + w_n l_n$.

Let $A(P) = \bigcup_{(a, B, C) \in P} \{ a \} \cup B \cup C$, $H(O) = H(P) = \{ a \mid (a, B, C) \in P \}$, and $A(O) = A(P) \cup A(e)$ denote the sets of atoms occurring in $P$, as heads in $P$, or in $O = (P, e)$, respectively. An interpretation $I$ satisfies a rule $r = (a, B, C)$ iff $B \subseteq I$ and $C \cap I = \emptyset$ imply $a \in I$. The reduce of $P$ with respect to $I$ is $P^I = \{(a, B, \emptyset) \mid (a, B, C) \in P, C \cap I = \emptyset\}$. The set $\text{SM}(P)$ of stable models of $P$ is the set of all interpretations $M \subseteq A(P)$ that are subset-minimal among the interpretations satisfying every rule $r \in P^M$. A stable model $M$ of $P$ is optimal iff $e(M) = \min \{e(N) \mid N \in \text{SM}(P)\}$.

Our goal is to rewrite optimization statements while preserving the stable models of a program and associated optimization values. To this end, we utilize notions for comparing the joint parts of optimization programs [26]. Two sets $S_1$ and $S_2$ of interpretations are visibly equal with respect to a set $V$ of visible atoms if there is a bijection $f : S_1 \rightarrow S_2$ such that, for each $I \in S_1$, we have $I \cap V = f(I) \cap V$.

For two sets $V_1$ and $V_2$ of atoms, a program $P$ realizes a function $f : 2^{V_1} \rightarrow 2^{V_2}$ iff for each $I \subseteq V_1$, there is exactly one $M \in \text{SM}(P \cup \{ a \mid a \in I \})$ and $f(I) = M \cap V_2$. An optimization program $O = (P, e')$ is an optimization rewrite of an expression $e$ with respect to a set $V$ of visible atoms iff $P$ realizes a function $f : 2^V \rightarrow 2^{A(e')}$ such that, for each $I \subseteq V$, we have $e(I) = e'(f(I))$. In this case, we also say that $e$ is rewritable as $(P, e')$ with respect to $V$.

To decompose optimization rewrites, we say that a set $V$ of atoms and a sequence $P_1, \ldots, P_m$ of programs fit iff $(V \cup \bigcup_{j=1}^m A(P_j)) \cap H(P_j) = \emptyset$ for each $1 \leq i \leq m$. Programs that fit preserve the definitions of atoms in $V$ and the programs preceding them.
Rewriting Optimization Statements in Answer-Set Programs

Proposition 1. Let \( O = \langle P, e \rangle \) be an optimization program, and \( e \) be rewritable as \( \langle P', e' \rangle \) with respect to \( \Lambda(O) \) such that \( \Lambda(O) \) and \( P' \) fit. Then, there is a bijection \( f : \text{SM}(P) \rightarrow \text{SM}(P \cup P') \) such that

1. \( \text{SM}(P) \) and \( \text{SM}(P \cup P') \) are visibly equal with respect to \( \Lambda(O) \) via \( f \), and
2. \( e(M) = e'(f(M)) \) for each \( M \in \text{SM}(P) \).

2.3 Optimization Rewrites for Small Weights

In this subsection, we examine simple, yet effective rewriting techniques applicable to optimization statements with small weights. To begin with, we define building blocks for sorting operations on vectors of literals. Intuitively, a vector \( s \) of literals encodes the value \( (1^Ts)(I) \) at an interpretation \( I \). When \( s \) is sorted, it represents this value as a unary number. To obtain such numbers, vectors of literals can be recursively sorted and added up via merging. These operations permute truth values, and hence preserve the encoded values.

Definition 2. A vector \( s \) of literals is sorted at an interpretation \( I \) iff the weights in \( s(I) \) are monotonically decreasing, and sorted under a set \( S \) of interpretations iff \( s \) is sorted at each \( I \in S \).

Definition 3. Let \( t = [h_1; h_2] \) and \( s \) be vectors of literals having the same length, and \( P \) be a program realizing a function \( f : 2^{\Lambda(t)} \rightarrow 2^{\Lambda(s)} \). Then, \( P \) is

1. a sorting program with input \( t \) and output \( s \) iff for each \( I \subseteq \Lambda(t) \), \( s \) is sorted at \( f(I) \) and \( (1^Tf)(I) = (1^Ts)(f(I)) \);
2. a merging program with inputs \( h_1, h_2 \) and output \( s \) iff for each \( I \subseteq \Lambda(t) \) at which \( h_1 \) and \( h_2 \) are sorted, \( s \) is sorted at \( f(I) \) and \( (1^Th_1; h_2)(I) = (1^Ts)(f(I)) \).

Moreover, for any program \( P' \supseteq P \), we assume that \( (\Lambda(P) \cup \Lambda(s)) \cap H(P' \setminus P) \subseteq \Lambda(t) \).

Example 4. A sorting program \( P \) with input \( t = [t_1; t_2] \) and output \( s = [s_1; s_2] \) such that \( \Lambda(t) \cap \Lambda(s) = \{t_1, t_2\} \cap \{s_1, s_2\} = \emptyset \), which yields an optimization rewrite \( (P, 1^Ts) \) of \( 1^Tt \) with respect to \( \Lambda(t) = \{t_1, t_2\} \), is given by

\[
\begin{align*}
& s_1 \succ t_1, \quad s_1 \succ t_2, \quad s_2 \succ t_1, \quad t_2.
\end{align*}
\]

This program can serve as a base case in recursive constructions of larger sorting programs, such as the following. Given vectors \( h_1, h_2, s_1, s_2 \) and \( s \) of literals having appropriate lengths, a sorting program with input \( t = [h_1; h_2] \) and output \( s \) recursively obtained as the union of (i) a sorting program \( P_1 \) with input \( h_1 \) and output \( s_1 \), (ii) a sorting program \( P_2 \) with input \( h_2 \) and output \( s_2 \), and (iii) a merging program \( P_3 \) with inputs \( s_1, s_2 \) and output \( s \), assuming that \( \Lambda(t) \) and \( P_1, P_2, P_3 \) fit.

Note that, by definition, sorting programs are merging programs, and both lend themselves to rewriting expressions with unit weights. Moreover, such optimization rewriting can be applied to an arbitrary expression \( w^Tt \) after flattening it into the form \( 1^Tt \), where \( t \) is any vector such that \( 1^Tt \equiv w^Tt \). For example, \( e = 2a + 4b + 3c + 3d + e + 4f \) is reproduced by picking \( t = [a; a; b; b; b; b; c; c; d; d; d; f; f; f] \). Rewrites based on flattening can, however, become impractically large when there are literals with large non-unit weights. To alleviate this problem, we consider selective rewriting techniques in Section 3.3, and alternative ways to handle non-unit weights in Section 3.4.
3 More Elaborate Rewriting Techniques

In this section, we present techniques for rewriting optimization statements that build on those presented in Section 2.3. They are based on a process in which we rewrite optimization statements in parts using simple techniques and then form new substitute optimization statements from the outputs. Before going into the details, let us illustrate the basic idea.

Example 5. Consider the minimization statement

\[
\text{#minimize } \{5, 1 : a; 10, 2 : b; 15, 3 : c\}.
\]

The statement encodes the expression \(5a + 10b + 15c\). To deal with the non-unit weights, we can flatten it into \(5a + 5b + 5c + 5c + 5c\) and rewrite it using a single sorting program with input \([a; b; c; c; c]\). On the other hand, we obtain a more concise rewrite by modifying the expression into \(5a + 5c + 10b + 10c\), sorting the parts \([a; c]\) and \([b; c]\) into vectors of auxiliary atoms \([d; c]\) and \([f; g]\), and minimizing the expression \(5d + 5c + 10f + 10g\):

- \(d :- a\).
- \(d :- c\).
- \(c :- a, c\).
- \(f :- b\).
- \(f :- c\).
- \(g :- b, c\).

\[
\text{#minimize } \{5, 1 : d; 5, 2 : c; 10, 3 : f; 10, 4 : g\}.
\]

3.1 Mixed-radix Bases and Decomposition

We define a mixed-radix base to be any pair \((b, \pi)\) of radices \(b = [b_1, \ldots ; b_k]\) and place values \(\pi = [\pi_1; \ldots ; \pi_k]\) such that \(b_k = \infty\) and, for each \(1 \leq i \leq k\), we have \(\pi_i = \prod_{j=1}^{i-1} b_j\). Examples of mixed-radix bases include the usual base for counting seconds, minutes, hours, and days, \([(60; 60; 24; \infty), [1; 60; 3600; 86400]\)], and the finite-length binary base \([(2; \ldots ; 2; \infty), [1; 2; 4; \ldots ; 2^{k-1}]\)] for any \(k \geq 1\). In a given base \((b, \pi)\), every nonnegative integer \(d\) has a mixed-radix decomposition with digits \(d = [d_1; \ldots ; d_k]\) such that \(d^T \pi = d\), and exactly one decomposition \(d\) of \(d\) satisfies \(d_i < b_i\) for all \(1 \leq i < k\). We say that \(d_i\) is the \(i\)th least or the \((k + 1 - i)\)th most significant digit of \(d\) in base \((b, \pi)\). More generally, the mixed-radix decomposition of an \((n \times 1)\)-vector \(w\) of weights is a \((k \times n)\)-matrix \(W\) such that \(W^T \pi = w\). By these definitions, the \(i\)th row gives the \(i\)th least significant digits of all weights, and the \(j\)th column gives the digits of the \(j\)th weight.

Example 6. In base \((b, \pi) = ([3; 2; 2; \infty], [1; 3; 6; 12])\), we may decompose weights \(w = \begin{bmatrix} 21 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}\) into a matrix \(W = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}\) such that \(W^T \pi = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 6 \\ 12 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 21 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} = w\).

3.2 Selecting Mixed-radix Bases

Given a vector \(w = [w_1, \ldots; w_n]\) of weights, our goal is to pick a base \((b, \pi)\) with some number \(k\) of radices that yields a decomposition matrix \(W\) with small digits \(w_{ij}\) such that \(W^T \pi = w\). In view of sorting programs, introduced in Section 2.3, whose sizes are of order \(c_{\text{sort}}(n) = n(\log n)^2\), the aim is to minimize the size needed for sorting every row:

\[
c(b, w) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} c_{\text{sort}} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{n} w_{ij} \right).
\]

To this end, we use a greedy heuristic algorithm: for each \(i = 1, 2, \ldots\), let \(\pi_i = \prod_{j=1}^{i-1} b_j\) and pick radix \(b_i\) as the product of the least prime \(p\) that minimizes \(c([p; 2; \ldots; 2]),\)
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\[ \left\lfloor \frac{w_i}{\pi_i} \right\rfloor : \ldots : \left\lfloor \frac{w_n}{\pi_n} \right\rfloor \] and the greatest common divisor of \( \{ \left\lfloor \frac{w_j}{\pi_j} \right\rfloor \mid 1 \leq j \leq n \} \), defined here to be infinite for \{0\}, and stop at \( b_i = \infty \). We note that complete optimization procedures were proposed for finding optimal bases in translating PB constraints [18].

### 3.3 Selective Optimization Rewriting

In the following, we define ways to carry out partial optimization rewriting. The goal is to reduce the needed size while retaining as much of the benefits of rewriting as possible.

By additivity, sums of expressions can be rewritten term-by-term. Recall that, given an expression \( e = w^T l \), we may decompose \( w \) in any mixed-radix base to obtain a matrix \( W \). Then, \( w^T = (W^T \pi)^T = \pi^T W \) yields \( e = \pi^T W l \), and any sum such that \( W_1 + \cdots + W_m = W \) carries over to a sum reproducing the expression \( e = \pi^T (\sum_{i=1}^m W_i) l = \sum_{i=1}^m \pi^T W_i l \).

- **Lemma 7.** Let \( W = W_1 + \cdots + W_m \) be a mixed-radix decomposition such that \( W^T \pi = w \) for an expression \( e = w^T l \). For \( 1 \leq i \leq m \), let \( \pi^T W_i l \) be rewritable as \( O_i = (P_i, e_i) \) with respect to \( \Lambda(e) \) such that \( \Lambda(e) \) and \( O_1, \ldots, O_{i-1}, O_{i+1}, \ldots, O_m, O_i \) fit. Then, \( e \) is rewritable as \( (\sum_{i=1}^m P_i, \sum_{i=1}^m e_i) \) with respect to \( \Lambda(e) \).

This opens up selective rewriting strategies. To this end, suppose there are \( k \) radices in a base \( (b, \pi) \), and let \( w = [w_1; \ldots; w_n] \), so that \( W \) is a \((k \times n)\)-matrix. For any \( m \in \{k, n\} \) and \( S \subseteq \{1, \ldots, m\} \), let \( I_S \) denote the symmetric \((m \times m)\)-selection matrix having the value 1 in row \( i \) and column \( i \) iff \( i \in S \), and 0 otherwise. Intuitively, when fixing some \( S \subseteq \{1, \ldots, n\} \), the \((k \times n)\)-matrix \( W I_S \) selects weights \( w_i \) for all \( i \in S \), while columns \( j \notin S \) are set to zero. Similarly, when we fix some \( S \subseteq \{1, \ldots, k\} \), the \((k \times n)\)-matrix \( I_S W \) captures the \( i \)th significant digits for all \( i \in S \), and rows \( j \notin S \) are set to zero.

- **Example 8.** Given \( W = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 6 & 7 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \) and \( S = \{1, 2\} \), we have \( I_S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \), \( W I_S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \), and \( I_S W = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \).

By means of selection matrices, we can conveniently partition \( W \) in either dimension, along its columns or rows, respectively. Namely, given a partition \( S_1, \ldots, S_t \) of \( \{1, \ldots, m\} \) for \( m \in \{k, n\} \), we have that \( \sum_{i=1}^t I_{S_i} \) is the identity matrix. In view of Lemma 7, \( \sum_{i=1}^t W I_{S_i} = W \), if \( m = n \), and \( \sum_{i=1}^t I_{S_i} W = W \), if \( m = k \), thus yield literal-wise or significance-wise optimization rewrites, respectively. For example, lines (a) in Figure 1 draw the partition \( \{1, 2, 3\}, \{4, 5, 6\}, \{7, 8, 9\} \) applied to \( m = n = 9 \) literals, limiting the size of parts to \( t = 3 \). We below focus on particular cases of such matrix partition rewrites.

To begin with, we may rewrite some bounded number \( t \) of weighted literals in *equal-weight chunks* by forming a partition \( S_1, \ldots, S_t \) based on (maximal) sets \( S_i \) such that \( |S_i| \leq t \) and \( \{w_i \mid i \in S_i\} = 1 \), so that each chunk consists of up to \( t \) literals of the same weight. Second, we may let \( t = k \) and pick \( S_i = \{i\} \) for each \( 1 \leq i \leq k \) to rewrite an expression in *digit-wise layers* of the form \( \pi^T (I_{S_i} W) l \). Third, we may drop a number \( t \) of least significant digits from each weight, such as those above line (b) in Figure 1, and rewrite the *globally* most significant digits only. This amounts to using quotients due to division by \( \pi_{t+1} \), and can be formalized by applying the previous technique to a base \( (\pi_{t+1}; \infty], [1; \pi_{t+1}] \) where only the quotient weights \( [w_i/\pi_{t+1}] \) are rewritten for \( 1 \leq i \leq n \).

Matrix partition rewrites not a priori referring to particular digits include the *literal-wise* approach indicated by lines (a) in Figure 1. Another strategy is to pick, for each weight, a number \( t \) of its *locally* most significant digits starting from the most significant nonzero digit. To express this as a matrix partition rewrite, let \( W \) be a \((k \times n)\)-matrix as before. Then, define an equally-sized matrix \( W_2 \) by mapping the elements \( w_1, \ldots, w_k \)
of each column in $W$ to elements $v_1, \ldots, v_k$ of a respective column in $W_2$ such that $v_i = \max \{0, \min \{w_i, t - \sum_{j=i+1}^t u_j\}\}$ for each $1 \leq i \leq k$, where $[u_1; \ldots; u_t] = [b_1; \ldots; b_{t-1}; w_t]$, $w_1 \neq 0$, and $w_{t+1} = \cdots = w_k = 0$. This yields $W = W_1 + W_2$ for $W_1 = W - W_2$, so that, by Lemma 7, $\pi^TW_1l$ and $\pi^TW_2l$ can be rewritten separately. Similar to rewriting the globally most significant digits only, we may rewrite the locally more significant part $W_2$, as located below line (c) in Figure 1 for $t = 2$, but not the rest.

### 3.4 Optimization Rewrites for Large Weights

We build on sorting and merging programs to devise optimization rewrites applicable to expressions containing large non-unit weights. To this end, we begin by defining an abstract class of rewrites that encode unary numbers as sorted vectors of literals. This allows us to compose rewrites from building blocks that rely on sorted inputs to produce sorted outputs.

- **Definition 9.** Let $O = (P, d + \alpha_1 l^T s_1 + \cdots + \alpha_m l^T s_m)$ be an optimization rewrite of an expression $e$ such that $P$ realizes $f : 2^{\Lambda(e)} \rightarrow 2^{\Lambda(d + \alpha_1 l^T s_1 + \cdots + \alpha_m l^T s_m)}$. Then, $O$ is a multi-unary rewrite of $e$ with the set $\{s_1, \ldots, s_m\}$ of vectors as its output iff $s_i$ is sorted under the image of $f$ for all $1 \leq i \leq m$.

Recall the strategy from Section 3.3 to rewrite an expression in digit-wise layers based on a mixed-radix decomposition. Such a digit-wise rewrite can be realized by flattening along with sorting programs applied to the layers in parallel. In this process, the radix $b_i$ for a layer $i$ limits the number of (flattened) inputs to a corresponding sorting program.

- **Proposition 10.** Let $W$ be a mixed-radix decomposition in a base $(b, \pi)$ with place values $\pi = [\pi_1; \ldots; \pi_k]$ such that $W^T \pi = w$ for an expression $e = w^T l$. For $1 \leq i \leq k$, let $w_i$ be the $i$th row of $W$, $t_i$ be some vector such that $t_i^T l_i \equiv w_i^T l_i$, and $P_i$ be a sorting program with input $t_i$ and output $s_i$ such that $\Lambda(e)$ and

$$P_1, \ldots, P_{i-1}, P_{i+1}, \ldots, P_k, P_i \cup \{(a, 0, 0) \mid a \in (\Lambda(P_i) \cup \Lambda(s_i)) \cap (\Lambda(e) \setminus \Lambda(t_i))\}$$

fit. Then, $(\bigcup_{i=1}^k P_i, \sum_{i=1}^k \pi_i l^T s_i)$ is a multi-unary rewrite of $e$ with output $\{s_1, \ldots, s_k\}$.

The above conditions that $\Lambda(e)$ and sorting programs fit (in any order) as well as that atoms from $\Lambda(e)$ are used as inputs in $t_i$ only make sure that the sorting programs define disjoint atoms and otherwise evaluate nothing but their inputs. While such conditions are
easy to establish, in practice, different sorting programs may share common substructures based on the same inputs. In fact, a scheme for optimizing the layout of sorting programs towards structure sharing is given in [10].

Digit-wise rewrites based on sorting programs yield non-unique mixed-radix decompositions of the sum of input weights. For example, given \( b = [6; \infty], \pi = [1; 6] \), and \( e = 5a + 5b + 10c + d \), the sorting programs from Proposition 10 realize a function \( f : 2^{(a,b,c,d)} \to 2^{(s_1,1,\ldots,s_{15},s_{2,1})} \) leading to an output expression \( e' \) of the form \( s_{1,1} + \cdots + s_{1,15} + 6s_{2,1} \). Then, the sum 10, associated with both \( I_1 = \{a,b\} \) and \( I_2 = \{c\} \), is mapped to \( f(I_1) = \{s_{1,1},\ldots,s_{1,10}\} \) or \( f(I_2) = \{s_{1,1},\ldots,s_{1,4},s_{2,1}\} \), respectively, where \( e'(f(I_1)) = e'(f(I_2)) = 10 \). In terms of ASP solving, this means that a bound on the optimization value is not captured by a single no-good. Instead, several representations of the same value may be produced during search. An encoding of a unique mixed-radix decomposition can be built by combining sorting programs with deferred carry propagation, utilizing merging programs, as introduced in Section 2.3, to express addition along with division of unary numbers by constants. To begin with, we formalize the role of a merging program in this context.

\[ \text{Lemma 11.} \quad \text{Let } O = (P; d + \alpha 1^T h_1 + \alpha 1^T h_2) \text{ be a multi-unary rewrite of an expression } e \text{ with output } \{h_1, h_2\}, \text{ and } P' \text{ be a merging program with inputs } h_1, h_2 \text{ and output } s \text{ such that } A(O) \text{ and } P' \cup \{a, \emptyset, 0\} | a \in (A(P') \cup A(s)) \cap (A(e) \setminus A([h_1; h_2])) \text{ fit. Then, } (P \cup P', d + \alpha 1^T s) \text{ is a multi-unary rewrite of } e \text{ with output } \{s\}. \]

The purpose of merging programs is to map the sum of digits in one layer and a corresponding carry from less significant layers to a unary number, which can in turn provide a carry to the next layer. To obtain such carries, we make use of division. Namely, given a vector \( s = [s_1; \ldots; s_n] \) and a positive integer \( m \), we define the quotient of \( s \) divided by \( m \) as \([s_m; s_{2m}; \ldots; s_{[n/m]m}]\), which contains every \( m \)th literal of \( s \). A respective residue, also represented as a unary number, is produced by a program as follows.

\[ \text{Definition 12.} \quad \text{Let } s = [s_1; \ldots; s_n] \text{ and } r = [r_1; \ldots; r_k] \text{ be vectors of literals such that } k = \min \{n, m - 1\} \text{ for some positive integer } m. \text{ A program } P \text{ is a residue program modulo } m \text{ with input } s \text{ and output } r \text{ iff } P \text{ realizes a function } f : 2^A(s) \to 2^A(r) \text{ such that, for each } I \subseteq A(s) \text{ at which } s \text{ is sorted, } r \text{ is sorted at } f(I) \text{ and } (1^T r)(f(I)) = (1^T s)(I) \text{ mod } m. \text{ Moreover, for any program } P' \supseteq P, \text{ we assume that } (A(P) \cup A(r)) \cap H(P' \setminus P) \subseteq A(s). \]

\[ \text{Example 13.} \quad \text{A residue program modulo } m \text{ with input } s = [s_1; \ldots; s_n] \text{ and output } r = [r_1; \ldots; r_k] \text{ for } k = \min \{n, m - 1\}, \text{ generalizing the design displayed on the left of Figure 2, is given by} \]

\[
\begin{align*}
  r_j &\simeq s_{qm+j}, \text{ not } s_{(q+1)m}, & \text{for } 0 \leq q < [n/m] \text{ and } 1 \leq j < m, \\
  r_j &\simeq s_{qm+j}, & \text{for } q = [n/m] \text{ and } 1 \leq j < n - qm.
\end{align*}
\]

\[ \text{Lemma 14.} \quad \text{Let } O = (P; d + \alpha 1^T s) \text{ be a multi-unary rewrite of an expression } e \text{ with output } \{s\}, \text{ and } P' \text{ be a residue program modulo } m \text{ with input } s \text{ and output } r \text{ such that } A(O) \text{ and } P' \cup \{a, \emptyset, 0\} | a \in (A(P') \cup A(r)) \cap (A(e) \setminus A(s)) \text{ fit. Then, } (P \cup P', d + \alpha 1^T q + \alpha 1^T r) \text{ is a multi-unary rewrite of } e \text{ with output } \{q, r\}, \text{ where } q \text{ is the quotient of } s \text{ divided by } m. \]

We are now ready to augment digit-wise rewrites according to Proposition 10 with carry propagation, and call the resulting scheme (unique) mixed-radix rewrite. Such a rewrite resembles (parts of) the CNF encoding of PB expressions given in [21], when built from Batcher’s odd-even sorting and merging networks [8].
Proposition 15. Let W be a mixed-radix decomposition in a base (b, π) with radices b = [b₁; ...; bₖ] and place values π = [π₁; ...; πₖ] such that Wᵀπ = w for an expression e = wᵀl. For 1 ≤ i ≤ k, let wᵢ be the ith row of W, tᵢ be some vector such that 1ᵀtᵢ = wᵢᵀl, and

1. Sᵢ be a sorting program with input tᵢ and output hᵢ,
2. Mᵢ be a merging program with inputs hᵢ, qᵢ and output sᵢ, where qᵢ is the quotient of sᵢ₋₁ divided by bᵢ₋₁, provided that 1 < i,
3. Rᵢ be a residue program modulo bᵢ with input sᵢ and output rᵢ, provided that i < k, such that A(e) and S₁, S₂, S₃, ..., Sₖ, S₁', S₂', S₃', M₁, R₁, ..., Mₖ, Rₖ fit, where M₁ = Rₖ = ∅, s₁ = h₁, rₖ = sₖ, and P' = P ∪ {α | α ∈ (A(P) ∪ V₂) ∩ (A(e) \ V₁)} for any program P with atoms V₁ and V₂ in its input(s) or output, respectively. Then, (∪ₖ i=1(Sᵢ ∪ Mᵢ ∪ Rᵢ), \sumₖ i=1πᵢ1ᵀrᵢ) is a multi-ary rewrite of e with output {r₁, ..., rₖ}.

The principal design of such a mixed-radix rewrite is visualized on the right of Figure 2. Using sorting and merging programs according to [8], c_sort(n) = n(log n)² and c_merge(n) = n log n limit the size of each sorting or merging program, respectively, needed to rewrite a mixed-radix decomposition of w = [w₁; ...; wₖ] in a binary base, while each residue program (modulo 2) requires linear size. As k = \lceil \log \max\{w₁, ..., wₖ\} \rceil bounds the number of programs, the resulting size is of the order kn(log n)², which matches the CNF encoding of PB expressions given in [21].

4 Experiments

For evaluating the effect of optimization rewriting, we implemented the rewriting strategies described above in the tool lp2normal (2.27),¹ and ran the ASP solver clasp (3.1.4) [22], using its “trendy” configuration for a single thread per run, on a cluster of Linux machines equipped with Intel Xeon E5-4650 2.70GHz processors. All of the applied optimization rewritings are primarily based on sorting programs, built from (normal) ASP encodings of Batcher’s odd-even merging networks [8, 11], or alternatively from merging programs that do not introduce auxiliary atoms whenever the sum of required atoms and rules is reduced in this way. Moreover, each merging program is enhanced by (redundant) integrity constraints asserting the implication from a consecutive output atom to its predecessor, groups of sorting programs are compressed by means of structure sharing [10], and rewritings are pruned by

Table 1 Impact of optimization rewriting on solving performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benchmark</th>
<th>Connected Still-Life</th>
<th>Crossing Minimization</th>
<th>Maximal Clique</th>
<th>Timetabling</th>
<th>Bayes Alarm</th>
<th>Timetabling</th>
<th>Bayes Water</th>
<th>Markov Network</th>
<th>Bayes Hailfinder</th>
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<td></td>
<td>cons</td>
<td>time</td>
<td>conf</td>
<td>22 28 55 15</td>
<td>cons</td>
<td>time</td>
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<td>50 21 1 5 8</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>O S S S S</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>O S S S S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>O O S S</td>
<td>so</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>O O O S</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

dropping rules not needed to represent optimization values below or near the value of the first stable model found by clasp in a (short) trial run skipping optimization.

Table 1 provides experimental results for six benchmark classes. Columns headed by numbers partition the instances of a class based on solving performance: an entry “O” expresses that optima were found and proven for the respective number of instances within 10,800s time and 16GB memory limit per run; “S” means that some solutions have been obtained, yet not proven optimal; “T” marks that no solution was reported in time; and “M” indicates aborts due to memory excess. For each class, columns “cons”, “time”, and “conf” give the decimal logarithms of the averages of numbers of constraints, seconds of CPU time, and conflicts reported by clasp with respect to rewriting strategies indicated in rows. The constraints are averaged over instances on which no rewriting strategy under consideration aborted due to memory excess, and the time and conflicts are averaged over instances solved optimally with respect to all strategies. That is, accumulated runtimes and conflicts refer to
the instances in a corresponding column consisting of “O” entries only, while runs without proven optima are not included. Smallest CPU times and numbers of conflicts are highlighted in boldface, and likewise the “O” entries of rewriting strategies leading to most optimally solved instances for a class.

The four benchmark classes in the upper part of Table 1, Connected Still-Life, Crossing Minimization, and Maximal Clique from the ASP Competition [15, 23] along with Curriculum-based Course Timetabling [7, 12], involve optimization statements with unit weights $w_i = 1$ or few groups of non-unit weights, respectively, in case of Timetabling. Hence, these classes lend themselves to sorting inputs in digit-wise layers, as described in Sections 2.3 and 3.3, where unit weights yield a single layer, so that sorting programs produce a unique representation of their sum as a unary number. This strategy is denoted by “so”, its bounded application to equal-weight chunks of up to $t = 64$ literals by “64”, and no rewriting at all by “–”.

Comparing these three approaches, we observe that the bounded strategy dominates in terms of optimally solved instances as well as runtimes and conflicts over the subsets of instances solved optimally with respect to all three strategies. The edge over plain CLASP without rewriting is particularly remarkable and amounts to 83 more optimally solved instances for Connected Still-Life, 26 for Crossing Minimization, 102 for Maximal Clique, and still 11 for Timetabling, considering that mixed-radix decompositions obtained via digit-wise sorting (without carry propagation) are not necessarily unique for the latter class. While the unbounded strategy also yields substantial improvements relative to plain CLASP, it incurs a significantly larger size increase that does not pay off by reducing search conflicts any further than the bounded approach, and thus does not lead to more optimally solved instances either. That is, the introduction of sorting programs and atoms for bounded unary numbers, capturing parts of optimization statements in separation, already suffices to counteract combinatorial explosion due to optimization statements to the extent feasible.

The five benchmark suites in the lower part of Table 1 stem from three classes, Bayesian Network Learning [20, 24] with samples from three data sets, Markov Network Learning [19, 25], and Curriculum-based Course Timetabling again. The corresponding instances feature non-unit weights amenable to mixed-radix rewrites, as presented in Section 3.4, which yield a unique mixed-radix decomposition of the sum of input weights. We denote this approach by “mr”, and in addition consider selective strategies based on matrix partitioning according to Section 3.3: limiting mixed-radix rewrites to a number $t$ of locally most significant digits per weight, indicated by “l1” for $t = 1$, “l2” for $t = 2$, and “l3” for $t = 3$, as well as “g7” dropping the $t = 7$ least significant digits to rewrite the globally most significant digits of each weight only. The baseline of plain CLASP without rewriting is again marked by “–”.

Regarding these approaches, we observe that the strategies denoted by “l2” and “l3”, focusing on locally most significant digits, constitute a good tradeoff between size increase and reduction of conflicts, which in turn leads to more optimally instances solved than other rewriting strategies and plain CLASP. In fact, full rewriting “mr” blows up size more than (additionally) facilitating search, the global strategy “g7” is not flexible enough to encompass all diverging non-unit weights in an optimization statement, and plain CLASP cannot draw on rewrites to learn more effective no-goods. This becomes particularly apparent on the Bayes Hailfinder instances, where “l2” and “l3" yield 13 more optimally solved instances than plain CLASP, 16 more than “mr”, and 17 more than “g7”. For the other classes, Markov Network and Timetabling, the distinction is less clear and amounts to singular instances separating the local strategies “l2" and “l3" from each other as well as plain CLASP or full mixed-radix rewriting “mr", respectively.

In comparison to the bounded digit-wise sorting approach denoted by “64”, also applied to Timetabling in the upper part of Table 1, the best-performing strategy “l2” based on
mixed-radix rewrites leads to the same number of optimally solved instances, yet incurring two timeouts more. The latter observation indicates that the search of CLASP does not truly benefit from the unique representation of a sum of weights in relation to just producing unary numbers capturing sums of digits. We conjecture that this is due to the non-monotonic character of residue programs, while sorting and merging programs map inputs to outputs in a monotonic fashion. This suggests trying alternative rewriting approaches that avoid residue programs while dealing with diverging non-unit weights, and such methods are future work.

5 Related Work

In previous work, we have addressed the normalization of cardinality rules [11] and weight rules [10], and this paper extends the investigation of rewriting techniques to optimization statements. While normalization allows for completely eliminating cardinality and weight rules, optimization rewriting maps one expression to another, where the introduced atoms and rules add structure that provides new opportunities for ASP solvers to learn no-goods, which may benefit solving performance.

Mixed-radix rewrites, as presented in Section 3.4, resemble the CNF encoding of PB expressions given in [21]. More recent translation methods [6, 10, 29] use so-called tares to simplify bound checking for mixed-radix decompositions of PB constraints, while tares are not meaningful for optimization statements that lack fixed bounds. The hybrid CNF encoding of cardinality constraints in [9] compensates weak propagation by (small) partial building blocks, which is comparable to the selective rewriting techniques in Section 3.3. Dynamic approaches to limit the size of CNF encodings of PB expressions, complementing selective rewriting strategies, include conflict-directed lazy decomposition [3], where digit-wise rewriting is performed selectively during search. A related strategy [2] consists of fully rewriting expressions deemed relevant in PB solving. Moreover, CNF encodings of PB optimization statements can be simplified when creating them incrementally during search [28]. In contrast to such dynamic approaches, we aim at preprocessing ASP optimization statements prior to solving. As a consequence, our rewriting techniques can be flexibly combined with different optimization strategies [22, 4].

6 Conclusions

Our work extends the scope of normalization methods, as originally devised for cardinality and weight rules, by developing rewriting techniques for optimization statements as well. In this context, sorting programs serve as basic building blocks for representing sums of unit weights or digits as unary numbers. When dealing with non-unit weights, merging unary numbers amounts to carry propagation, so that residues yield a unique mixed-radix decomposition of the sum of input weights. Our rewriting strategies can be applied selectively based on partitioning a vector of weights or a corresponding matrix, respectively. Such partial optimization rewrites allow for reducing the size needed to augment answer-set programs with additional structure in order to enhance the performance of ASP solvers.

Experiments with the ASP solver CLASP showed substantially improved robustness of its model-guided optimization strategy, used by default, due to optimization rewriting. This particularly applies to benchmarks involving unit weights or moderately many groups of non-unit weights, respectively. Sorting here effectively counteracts the combinatorial explosion faced without rewriting, as no-goods over unary numbers capture much larger classes of interpretations than those stemming from optimization statements over comparably
specific atoms. Mixed-radix decompositions and carry propagation helped to improve solving performance for benchmarks with non-unit weights as well, yet not by the same amount as sorting equal weights, provided equal weights exist. We conjecture that this observation is related to the non-monotonic character of residue programs, and investigating alternative approaches avoiding them is part of future work. The latter also includes in-depth experiments with core-guided optimization strategies, which in preliminary tests seemed unimpaired by rewriting, neither positively nor negatively. Finally, our experiments indicated that selective rewriting techniques require significantly less size than full rewriting to reduce search conflicts equally well, so that predefining effective adaptive selection strategies is of interest.

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