Computing large and small stable models*

MIROSŁAW TRUSZCZYŃSKI

Department of Computer Science, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY 40506-0046, USA

(e-mail: mirek@cs.ukv.edu)

Abstract

In this paper, we focus on the problem of existence and computing of small and large stable models. We show that for every fixed integer k, there is a linear-time algorithm to decide the problem LSM (large stable models problem): does a logic program P have a stable model of size at least |P|-k? In contrast, we show that the problem SSM (small stable models problem) to decide whether a logic program P has a stable model of size at most k is much harder. We present two algorithms for this problem but their running time is given by polynomials of order depending on k. We show that the problem SSM is fixed-parameter intractable by demonstrating that it is W[2]-hard. This result implies that it is unlikely an algorithm exists to compute stable models of size at most k that would run in time $O(m^c)$, where k is the size of the program and k is a constant independent of k. We also provide an upper bound on the fixed-parameter complexity of the problem SSM by showing that it belongs to the class k [3].

KEYWORDS: stable models, fixed-parameter complexity

1 Introduction

The stable model semantics by Gelfond and Lifschitz (1988) is one of the two most widely studied semantics for normal logic programs, the other one being the well-founded semantics by Van Gelder, Ross and Schlipf (1991). Among 2-valued semantics, the stable model semantics is commonly regarded as the one providing the correct meaning to the negation operator in logic programming. It coincides with the least model semantics on the class of Horn programs, and with the well-founded semantics and the perfect model semantics on the class of stratified programs (Apt *et al.*, 1988). In addition, the stable model semantics is closely related to the notion of a default extension by Reiter (Marek and Truszczyński, 1989; Bidoit and Froidevaux, 1991). Logic programming with stable model semantics has applications in knowledge representation, planning and reasoning about action. It was also recently proposed as a computational paradigm well suited for solving combinatorial optimization and constraint satisfaction problems (Marek and Truszczyński, 1999; Niemelä, 1999).

Before we proceed, we will recall the definition of a stable model of a logic

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program, and some related terminology and properties. The reader is referred to Marek and Truszczyński (1993) for a more detailed treatment of the subject. In the paper, we deal only with the propositional case. A logic program rule is an expression r of the form

$$r = a \leftarrow b_1, \dots, b_s, \mathbf{not}(c_1), \dots, \mathbf{not}(c_t),$$

where a, b_i s and c_i s are propositional atoms. The atom a is called the *head* of r and is denoted by h(r). Atoms b_i and c_i form the *body* of r. The set $\{b_1, \ldots, b_s\}$ is called the *positive* body of r (denoted by $b^+(r)$) and the set $\{c_1, \ldots, c_t\}$ is called the *negative* body of r (denoted by $b^-(r)$). A *logic program* is a collection of rules. For a logic program P, by At(P) we denote the set of atoms occurring in its rules and by h(P) — the set of atoms appearing as the heads of rules in P. We will also denote the *size* of P, that is, the total number of occurrences of atoms in P, by size(P). Throughout the paper we use P to denote the number of atoms in a logic program P, and P0 to denote the size of P1.

A set of atoms $M \subseteq At(P)$ satisfies a rule r if $h(r) \in M$, or if $b^+(r) \setminus M \neq \emptyset$, or if $b^-(r) \cap M \neq \emptyset$. A set of atoms $M \subseteq At(P)$ is a model of a program P if M satisfies all rules of P.

A logic program rule r is called Horn if $b^-(r) = \emptyset$. A Horn program is a program whose every rule is a Horn rule. The intersection of two models of a Horn program P is a model of P. Since the set of all atoms is a model of P, it follows that every Horn program P has a unique least model. We will denote this model by LM(P). The least model of a Horn program P can be constructed by means of the van Emden-Kowalski operator T_P (van Emden and Kowalski, 1976). Given a Horn program P and a set of atoms $M \subseteq P$, we define

$$T_P(M) = \{a: a \leftarrow b_1, \dots, b_s \in P, \text{ and } \{b_1, \dots, b_s\} \subseteq M\}.$$

We also define

$$T_P^0(M) = \emptyset$$
, and $T_P^{i+1}(M) = T_P(T_P^i(M))$.

Since the operator T_P is monotone, the sequence $T_P^i(\emptyset)$ is monotone and its union yields the least model of a Horn program P. That is,

$$LM(P) = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} T_P^i(\emptyset).$$

If P is finite, the sequence stabilizes after finitely many steps.

For a logic program rule r, by horn(r) we denote the rule obtained from r by eliminating all negated atoms from the body of r. If P is a logic program, we define $horn(P) = \{horn(r) : r \in P\}$.

Let P be a logic program (possibly with rules containing negated atoms). For a set of atoms $M \subseteq At(P)$ we define the *reduct* of P with respect to M to be the program obtained by eliminating from P each rule r such that $b^-(r) \cap M \neq \emptyset$ (we call such rules *blocked* by M), and by removing negated atoms from all other rules in P. The resulting program is a Horn program. We will denote it by P^M . As a Horn program, P^M has the least model $LM(P^M)$. If $M = LM(P^M)$, M is a *stable*

model of P. Clearly, if M is a stable model of P, $M \subseteq h(P)$. Both the notion of the reduct and of a stable model are due to Gelfond and Lifschitz (1988).

In the paper we restrict our attention to programs whose rules do not contain multiple positive occurrences of the same atom nor multiple negative occurrences of the same atom in the body. It is clear that adopting this assumption does not limit the generality of our considerations. Repetitive occurrences can be eliminated in linear time (in the size of the program) and doing so does not affect stable models of the program.

If M is a stable model of P, each rule r such that $b^+(r) \subseteq M$ and $b^-(r) \cap M = \emptyset$ (that is, such that M satisfies its body), is called a *generating* rule for M. Clearly, if M is a stable model of P, it is also a stable model of the program consisting of all rules in P that are generating for M.

There are several ways to look at the search space of possible stable models of a program P. The most direct way is to look for stable models by considering all candidate subsets of h(P). For each candidate subset $M \subseteq h(P)$, one can compute the corresponding reduct P^M , its least model $LM(P^M)$, and check the equality $M = LM(P^M)$ to decide whether M is stable. An alternative way is to observe that stable models are determined by subsets of the set of atoms appearing negated in P. Indeed, let us denote this set by Neg(P) and let us consider sets $M \subseteq At(P)$ and $B \subseteq Neg(P)$. Let $B' = Neg(P) \setminus B$. Then, M is a stable model of P if and only if $M = LM(P^{B'})$, $B \cap M = \emptyset$ and $B' \subseteq M$. Thus, the existence of stable models can be decided by considering subsets of Neg(P). Finally, one can consider the search space of all subsets of P itself, and regard each such subset as a candidate for the set of generating rules of a stable model. Indeed, if $M \subseteq At(P)$ and $P' \subseteq P$, then M is a stable model of P if and only if M = h(P'), P' is the set of all generating rules for M in P and M = LM(horn(P')).

The problem with the stable model semantics is that, even in the propositional case, reasoning with logic programs under the stable model semantics is computationally hard. It is well-known that deciding whether a finite propositional logic program has a stable model is NP-complete (Marek and Truszczyński, 1991). Consequently, it is not at all clear that logic programming with the stable model semantics can serve as a practical computational tool.

This issue can be resolved by implementing systems computing stable models and by experimentally studying the performance of these systems. Several such projects are now under way. Niemelä and Simons (1996) developed a system, smodels, for computing stable models of finite function symbol-free logic programs and reported very promising performance results. For some classes of programs, smodels decides the existence of a stable model in a matter of seconds even if an input program consists of tens of thousands of clauses. Encouraging results on using smodels to solve planning problems are reported in Niemelä (1999). Another well-advanced system is DeReS (Cholewiński et al., 1996), designed to compute extensions of arbitrary propositional default theories but being especially effective for default theories encoding propositional logic programs. Finally, systems capable of reasoning with disjunctive logic programs were described in Eiter et al. (1997) and Aravind et al. (1997).

However, faster implementations will ultimately depend on better understanding of the algorithmic aspects of reasoning with logic programs under the stable model semantics. In this paper, we investigate the complexity of deciding whether a finite propositional logic program has stable models of some restricted sizes. Specifically, we study the following two problems (|P| stands for the number of rules in a logic program P):

LSM (Large stable models) Given a finite propositional logic program P and an integer k, decide whether there is a stable model of P of size at least |P| - k.

SSM (Small stable models) Given a finite propositional logic program P and an integer k, decide whether there is a stable model of P of size no more than k.

Inputs to the problems LSM and SSM are pairs (P,k), where P is a finite propositional logic program and k is a non-negative integer. Problems of this type are referred to as parametrized decision problems. By fixing a parameter, a parameterized decision problem gives rise to its fixed-parameter version. In the case of problems LSM and SSM, by fixing k we obtain the following two fixed-parameter problems (k) is now no longer a part of input):

LSM(k) Given a finite propositional logic program P, decide whether P has a stable model of size at least |P| - k.

SSM(k) Given a finite propositional logic program P, decide whether P has a stable model of size at most k.

The problems LSM and SSM are NP-complete. It follows directly from the NP-completeness of the problem of existence of stable models (Marek and Truszczyński, 1991). But fixing k makes a difference! Clearly, the fixed-parameter problems SSM(k) and LSM(k) can be solved in polynomial time (unlike the problems SSM and LSM which, most likely, cannot). Indeed, consider a finite propositional logic program P. Then, there are $O(n^k)$ subsets of At(P) (in fact, as pointed out earlier, it is enough to consider subsets of h(P) or Neg(P)) of cardinality at most k (we recall that in the paper n stands for the number of atoms in P). For each such subset M, it can be checked in time linear in m – the size of P – whether M is a stable model of P. Thus, one can decide whether P has a stable model of size at most k in time $O(mn^k)$.

Similarly, there are only $O(|P|^k)$ subsets of P of size at least |P| - k. Each such subset is a candidate for the set of generating rules of a stable model of size at least |P| - k (and smaller subsets, clearly, are not). Given such a subset R, one can check in time O(m) whether R generates a stable model for P. Thus, it follows that there is an algorithm that decides in time $O(m|P|^k)$ whether a logic program P has a stable model of size at least |P| - k.

While both algorithms are polynomial in the size of the program, their asymptotic complexity is expressed by the product of the size of a program and a polynomial of order k in the number of atoms of the program or in the number of rules of the program. Even for small values of k, say for $k \ge 4$, the functions mn^k and $m|P|^k$ grow very fast with m = size(P), n = |At(P)| and |P|, and render the corresponding algorithms infeasible.

An important question is whether algorithms for problems SSM(k) and LSM(k)

exist whose order is significantly lower than k, preferably, a constant independent of k. The study of this question is the main goal of our paper. A general framework for such investigations was proposed by Downey and Fellows (1997). They introduced the concepts of *fixed-parameter tractability* and *fixed-parameter intractability* that are defined in terms of a certain hierarchy of complexity classes known as the W hierarchy.

In the paper, we show that the problem LSM is fixed-parameter tractable and demonstrate an algorithm that for every fixed k decides the problem LSM(k) in linear time – a significant improvement over the straightforward algorithm presented earlier.

On the other hand, we demonstrate that the problem SSM is much harder. We present an algorithm to decide the problems SSM(k), for $k \ge 1$, that is asymptotically faster than the simple algorithm described above but the improvement is rather insignificant. Our algorithm runs in time $O(mn^{k-1})$, an improvement only by the factor of n. The difficulty in finding a substantially better algorithm is not coincidental. We provide evidence that the problem SSM is fixed-parameter intractable. This result implies it is unlikely that there is an algorithm to decide the problems SSM(k) whose running time would be given by a polynomial of order independent of k.

The study of fixed-parameter tractability of problems occurring in the area of nonmonotonic reasoning is a relatively new research topic. Another paper that pursues this direction is that by Gottlob *et al.* (1999). The authors focus there on parameters describing structural properties of programs and show that in some cases, fixing these parameters leads to polynomial algorithms.

Our paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we recall basic concepts of the theory of fixed-parameter intractability by Downey and Fellows (1997). The following two sections present the algorithms to decide the problems *LSM* and *SSM*, respectively. The next section focuses on the issue of fixed-parameter intractability of the problem *SSM* and contains the two main results of the paper. The last section contains conclusions and open problems.

2 Fixed-parameter intractability

This section recalls basic ideas of the work of Downey and Fellows (1997) on fixed-parameter intractability. The reader is referred to Downey and Fellows (1997) for a detailed treatment of this subject.

Informally, a parametrized decision problem is a decision problem whose inputs are pairs of items, one of which is referred to as a parameter. The graph colorability problem is an example of a parametrized problem. The inputs are pairs (G, k), where G is an undirected graph and k is a non-negative integer. The problem is to decide whether G can be colored with at most k colors. Another example is the vertex cover problem in a graph. Again, the inputs are graph-integer pairs (G, k) and the question is whether G has a vertex cover of cardinality k or less. The problems SSM and LSM are also examples of parametrized decision problems. Formally, a parametrized decision problem is a set $L \subseteq \Sigma^* \times \Sigma^*$, where Σ is a fixed alphabet.

By selecting a concrete value $\alpha \in \Sigma^*$ of the parameter, a parametrized decision

problem L gives rise to an associated fixed-parameter problem $L_{\alpha} = \{x : (x, \alpha) \in L\}$. For instance, by fixing the value of k to 3, we get a fixed-parameter version of the colorability problem, known as 3-colorability. Inputs to the 3-colorability problem are graphs and the question is to decide whether an input graph can be colored with 3 colors. Clearly, the problems SSM(k) (LSM(k), respectively) are fixed-parameter versions of the problem SSM (LSM, respectively).

The interest in the fixed-parameter problems stems from the fact that they are often computationally easier than the corresponding parametrized problems. For instance, the problems SSM and LSM are NP-complete yet, as we saw earlier, their parametrized versions SSM(k) and LSM(k) can be solved in polynomial time. Similarly, the vertex cover problem is NP-complete but its fixed-parameter versions are in the class P. To see this, observe that to decide whether a graph has a vertex cover of size at most k, where k is a fixed value and not a part of an input, it is enough to generate all subsets with at most k elements of the vertex set of a graph, and then check if any of them is a vertex cover. A word of caution is in order here. It is not always the case that fixed-parameter problems are easier. For instance, the 3-colorability problem is still NP-complete.

As we already pointed out, the fact that a problem admits a polynomial-time solution does not necessarily mean that practical algorithms to solve it exist. An algorithm that runs in time $O(N^{15})$, where N is the size of the input, is hardly more practical than an algorithm with an exponential running time (and may even be a worse choice in practice). The algorithms we presented so far to argue that the problems SSM(k), LSM(k) and the fixed-parameter versions of the vertex cover problem are in P rely on searching through the space of N^k possible solutions (where N is the number of atoms of a program, the number of rules of a program, or the number of vertices in a graph, respectively). Thus, these algorithms are not practical, except for the very smallest values of k. The key question is how fast those polynomial-time solvable fixed-parameter problems can really be solved. Or, in other words, can one significantly improve over the brute-force approach?

A technique to deal with such questions is provided by the fixed-parameter intractability theory of Downey and Fellows (1997). A parametrized problem $L \subseteq \Sigma^* \times \Sigma^*$ is fixed-parameter tractable if there exist a constant p, an integer function f and an algorithm A such that A determines whether $(x, y) \in L$ in time $f(|y|)|x|^p$ (|z| stands for the length of a string $z \in \Sigma^*$). The class of fixed-parameter tractable problems will be denoted by FPT. Clearly, if a parametrized problem L is in FPT, each of the associated fixed-parameter problems L_y is solvable in polynomial time by an algorithm whose exponent does not depend on the value of the parameter y. It is known (see Downey and Fellows, 1997) that the vertex cover problem is in FPT.

There is substantial evidence to support a conjecture that some parametrized problems whose fixed-parameter versions are in P are not fixed-parameter tractable. To study and compare complexity of parametrized problems Downey and Fellows proposed the following notion of reducibility¹. A parametrized problem L can be

¹ The definition given here is sufficient for the needs of this paper. To obtain structural theorems a subtler definition is needed. This topic goes beyond the scope of the present paper. The reader is referred to Downey and Fellows (1997) for more details.

reduced to a parametrized problem L' if there exist a constant p, an integer function q and an algorithm A that to each instance (x, y) of L assigns an instance (x', y') of L' such that

- 1. x' depends upon x and y and y' depends upon y only,
- 2. A runs in time $O(q(|y|)|x|^p)$,
- 3. $(x, y) \in L$ if and only if $(x', y') \in L'$.

Downey and Fellows also defined a hierarchy of complexity classes called the *W* hierarchy:

$$FPT \subseteq W[1] \subseteq W[2] \subseteq W[3] \dots \tag{1}$$

The classes W[t] can be described in terms of problems that are complete for them (a problem D is *complete* for a complexity class $\mathscr E$ if $D \in \mathscr E$ and every problem in this class can be reduced to D). Let us call a boolean formula t-normalized if it is of the form of product-of-sums-of-products ... of literals, with t being the number of products-of, sums-of expressions in this definition. For example, 2-normalized formulas are products of sums of literals. Thus, the class of 2-normalized formulas is precisely the class of CNF formulas. We define the weighted t-normalized satisfiability problem as:

WS(t) Given a t-normalized formula φ , decide whether there is a model of φ with exactly k atoms (or, alternatively, decide whether there is a satisfying valuation for φ which assigns the logical value **true** to exactly k atoms)

Downey and Fellows show that for $t \ge 2$, the problems WS(t) are complete for the class W[t]. They also show that a restricted version of the problem WS(2):

 $WS_3(2)$ Given a 3CNF formula φ and an integer k (parameter), decide whether there is a model of φ with exactly k atoms

is complete for the class W[1]. Downey and Fellows conjecture that all the implications in (1) are proper². In particular, they conjecture that problems in the classes W[t], with $t \ge 1$, are not fixed-parameter tractable.

In the paper, we relate the problem SSM to the problems WS(2) and WS(3) to place the problem SSM in the W hierarchy, to obtain estimates of its complexity and to argue for its fixed-parameter intractability.

3 Large stable models

In this section we will show an algorithm for the parametrized problem LSM that runs in time $O(2^{k+k^2}m)$, where (P,k) is an input instance and, as in all other places in the paper, m = size(P). This result implies that the problem LSM is fixed-parameter tractable and that there is an algorithm that for every fixed k solves the problem LSM(k) in linear-time.

Given a logic program P, denote by P^* the logic program obtained from P by

² If true, this conjecture would imply that in the context of fixed-parameter tractability there is a difference between the complexity of weighted satisfiability for 3CNF and CNF formulas.

eliminating from the bodies of the rules in P all literals not(a), where a is not the head of any rule from P. The following well-known result states the key property of the program P^* .

Lemma 3.1

A set of atoms M is a stable model of a logic program P if and only if M is a stable model of P^* .

Lemma 3.1 implies that the problem LSM has a positive answer for (P,k) if and only if it has a positive answer for (P^*,k) . Moreover, it is easy to see that P^* can be constructed from P in time linear in the size of P. Thus, when looking for algorithms to decide the problem LSM we may restrict our attention to programs P in which every atom appearing negated in the body of a rule appears also as the head of a rule (that is, to such programs P for which we have $Neg(P) \subseteq h(P)$).

By P^k let us denote the program consisting of those rules r in P for which $|b^-(r)| \le k$. We have the following lemma.

Lemma 3.2

Let P be a logic program such that $Neg(P) \subseteq h(P)$. Let $M \subseteq At(P)$ be a set of atoms such that $|M| \ge |P| - k$. Then:

- 1. M is a stable model of P if and only if M is a stable model of P^k
- 2. if M is a stable model of P^k , then P^k has no more than $k+k^2$ different negated literals appearing in the bodies of its rules.

Proof

- 1. Consider a rule $r \in P \setminus P^k$. Then $|b^-(r)| \ge k+1$ and, consequently, $b^-(r) \cap M \ne \emptyset$. Indeed, if $b^-(r) \cap M = \emptyset$, then $|M \cup b^-(r)| = |M| + |b^-(r)| > |P|$. Since $Neg(P) \subseteq h(P)$, $b^-(r) \subseteq h(P)$. In addition, (both if we assume that M is a stable model of P and if we assume that M is a stable model of P^k), we have $M \subseteq h(P)$. Thus, $b^-(r) \cup M \subseteq h(P)$. Now observe that $|P| \ge |h(P)|$. Thus, $|M \cup b^-(r)| \le |h(P)| \le |P|$, a contradiction. Since for every rule $P^k \cap P^k$ we have $P^k \cap P^k$ it follows that $P^k \cap P^k$. Hence, $P^k \cap P^k$ we have $P^k \cap P^k$. Consequently, $P^k \cap P^k$ is a stable model of P^k .
- 2. Let P' be the set of rules from P^k such that $r \in P'$ if and only if $b^-(r) \cap M = \emptyset$ (the rules in P' contribute to the reduct $(P^k)^M$) and let P'' be the set of the remaining rules in P^k (these are the rules that are eliminated when the reduct $(P^k)^M$ is computed). Since $Neg(P) \subseteq h(P)$, for every rule $r \in P$, $b^-(r) \subseteq h(P)$. Thus, $\bigcup \{b^-(r): r \in P'\} \subseteq h(P) \setminus M$. Since $M \subseteq h(P)$ (as M is a stable model of P^k) and $|P| \geqslant |h(P)|$, we have $|\bigcup \{b^-(r): r \in P'\}| \leqslant k$. Further, since $|P'| \geqslant |M| \geqslant |P| k \geqslant |P^k| k$, it follows that $|P''| \leqslant k$. Consequently, $|\bigcup \{b^-(r): r \in P''\}| \leqslant k^2$. Hence, the second part of the assertion follows. \square

Let us now consider the following algorithm for the problem LSM(k) (the input to this algorithm is a logic program P).

- 1. Eliminate from the input logic program P all literals not(a), where a is not the head of any rule from P. Denote the resulting program by Q.
- 2. Compute the set of rules Q^k consisting of those rules r in Q for which $|b^-(r)| \le k$.
- 3. Decide whether Q^k has a stable model M such that $|M| \ge |Q| k$.

This algorithm reports YES if and only if the program Q^k has a stable model M such that $|M| \ge |Q| - k$. By Lemma 3.2, that happens precisely if and only if Q has a stable model M such that $|M| \ge |Q| - k$. This last statement, by Lemma 3.1, is equivalent to the statement that P has a stable model M such that $|M| \ge |P| - k$. In other words, our algorithm correctly decides the problem LSM(k).

Let us notice that steps 1 and 2 can be implemented in time O(m), where the constant hidden by the 'big O' notation does not depend on k. To implement step 3, let us recall that every stable model of a logic program is determined by some subset of the set of atoms that appear negated in the program (each such subset uniquely determines the reduct, as we stated in the introduction; see also (Bondarenko *et al.*, 1993)). By Lemma 3.2, the set of such atoms in the program Q^k has cardinality at most $k + k^2$. Checking for each subset of this set whether it determines a stable model of Q^k can be implemented in time $O(size(Q^k)) = O(m)$. Consequently, our algorithm runs in time $O(2^{k+k^2}m)$ (with the constant hidden by the 'big O' notation independent of k).

Theorem 3.3

The problem LSM is fixed-parameter tractable. Moreover, for each fixed k there is a linear-time algorithm to decide whether a logic program P has a stable model of size at least |P| - k.

4 Computing stable models of size at most k

In the introduction we pointed out that there is a straightforward algorithm to decide the problem SSM(k) that runs in time $O(mn^k)$, where m = size(P) and n = |At(P)|. For $k \ge 1$ (the assumption we adopt in this section), this algorithm can be slightly improved. Namely, we will now describe an algorithm for the problem SSM(k) that runs in time $O(F(k)mn^{k-1})$, where F is some integer function. Thus, if k is fixed and not a part of the input, this improved algorithm runs in time $O(mn^{k-1})$.

We present our algorithm under the assumption that input logic programs are *proper*. We say that a logic program rule *r* is *proper* if:

(P1)
$$h(r) \notin b^{+}(r)$$
, and

(P2)
$$b^+(r) \cap b^-(r) = \emptyset$$

We say that a logic program *P* is *proper* if all its rules are proper. Rules that violate at least one of the conditions (P1) and (P2) (that is, rules that are not proper) have no influence on the collection of stable models of a program as we have the following well-known result (see, for instance, Brass and Dix, 1997).

Lemma 4.1

A set of atoms M is a stable model of a logic program P if and only if M is a stable model of the subprogram of P consisting of all proper rules in P.

It is easy to see that rules that violate (P1) or (P2) can be eliminated from a logic program P in time O(m). Thus, the restriction to proper programs does not affect the generality of our discussion.

For a proper logic program P and for a set $A \subseteq At(P)$ of atoms, we define P(A) to be the program consisting of all those rules r of P that are not blocked by A (in other words, those that satisfy $b^-(r) \cap A = \emptyset$) and whose positive body is contained in A (in other words, such that $b^+(r) \subseteq A$).

Let P be a logic program and let $A \subseteq At(P)$ be a set of atoms. A stable model M of P is called A-based if

- 1. *M* is of the form $A \cup \{a\}$, where $a \in At(P) \setminus A$, and
- 2. $M \subseteq LM(P(A)^M)$ (in other words, when computing $LM(P^M)$, the derivation of A does not require that a be derived first).

We have the following simple lemma.

Lemma 4.2

Let k be an integer such that $k \ge 1$. A proper logic program P has a stable model of cardinality k if and only if for some $A \subseteq At(P)$, with |A| = k - 1, P has an A-based stable model.

It follows from Lemma 4.2 that when deciding the existence of k-element stable models, $k \ge 1$, it is enough to focus on the existence of A-based stable models. This is the approach we take here. In most general terms, our algorithm for the problem SSM(k) consists of generating all subsets $A \subseteq At(P)$, with $|A| \le k - 1$, and for each such subset A, of checking whether P has an A-based stable model. This latter task is the key.

We will now describe an algorithm that, given a logic program P and a set $A \subseteq At(P)$, decides whether P has an A-based stable model. To this end, we define P'(A) to be the program consisting of all those rules P of P such that:

- 1. $b^-(r) \cap A = \emptyset$ (r is not blocked by A)
- 2. $h(r) \notin A$
- 3. $b^+(r) \setminus A$ consists of exactly one element; we will denote it by a_r .

Our algorithm is based on the following result allowing us to restrict attention to the program P(A) (the statement of the lemma and its proof rely on the terminology introduced above).

Lemma 4.3

Let A be a set of atoms. A proper logic program P has an A-based stable model if and only if P(A) has an A-based stable model $M = A \cup \{a\}$, such that $a \notin \{a_r : r \in P'(A)\}$.

Proof

(⇒) Let M be an A-based stable model of P. Assume that $M = A \cup \{a\}$, for some $a \notin A$. Since $P(A)^M \subseteq P^M$, $LM(P(A)^M) \subseteq LM(P^M) = M$. Since M is A-based, we have that $M \subseteq LM(P(A)^M)$. It follows that M is an A-based stable model of P(A).

Let us assume that there is a rule $s \in P'(A)$ such that $a = a_s$. The rule s is not blocked by A. Since $a \in b^+(s)$, we have that $a \notin b^-(s)$ (we recall that all rules in P are proper). Hence, s is not blocked by $\{a\}$ either. Consequently, $horn(s) \in P^M$. Since $s \in P'(A)$, the body of horn(s) (that is, $b^+(s)$) is contained in M. The set M is a least model of P^M . In particular, M satisfies horn(s). Thus, it follows that $h(s) \in M$. In the same time, $h(s) \neq a$ (as s is proper). Thus, $h(s) \in A$, a contradiction (we recall that $s \in P'(A)$). It follows that $a \notin \{a_r : r \in P'(A)\}$.

(\Leftarrow) We will now assume that $M = A \cup \{a\}$ is an A-based stable model of P(A) such that $a \notin \{a_r : r \in P'(A)\}$. Similarly as before, we have $M = LM(P(A)^M) \subseteq LM(P^M)$. Let us assume that $LM(P^M) \setminus M \neq \emptyset$. Then there is a rule t in P^M such that the body of t is contained in M and $h(t) \notin M$. Let s be a rule in P that gives rise to t when constructing the reduct. Assume first that the body of t (that is, $b^+(s)$) is contained in A. Then $s \in P(A)$, $t \in P(A)^M$ and, consequently, $h(t) \in LM(P(A)^M) = M$, a contradiction.

Thus, the body of t is not contained in A. Since the body of t is contained in M, it consists of a and, possibly, some other elements, all of which are in A. It follows that $s \in P'(A)$. Consequently, $a = a_s$ and $a \in \{a_r : r \in P'(A)\}$, a contradiction. Thus, $LM(P^M) = M$, that is, M is a stable model of P. Since $M = LM(P(A)^M)$, it follows that M is an A-based model of P. \square

Let A be a set of atoms. A logic program with negation, P, is an A-program if P = P(A), that is if for every rule $r \in P$ we have $b^+(P) \subseteq A$ and $b^-(P) \cap A = \emptyset$. Clearly, the program P(A), described above, is an A-program. We will now focus on A-programs and their A-based stable models.

Let A be a set of atoms. We denote by R(A) the set of all proper Horn rules over the set of atoms A. Clearly, the cardinality of R(A) depends on the cardinality of A only. Further, we define $\mathcal{P}(A)$ to be the set of all Horn programs $Q \subseteq R(A)$ satisfying the condition LM(Q) = A. As in the case of R(A), the cardinality of $\mathcal{P}(A)$ also depends on the size of A only.

We will now describe conditions that determine whether an A-program P has an A-based stable model. To this end, with every atom $a \in At(P) \setminus A$, we associate the following values:

- 1. F(a) = 1 if there is a rule s in P with $h(s) \notin A \cup \{a\}$ and $a \notin b^{-}(s)$; F(a) = 0, otherwise
- 2. G(a) =the number of rules s in P with h(s) = a and $a \notin b^-(s)$.

Further, with every proper Horn rule $r \in R(A)$ and every atom $a \in At(P) \setminus A$, we associate the quantity:

1. H(r, a) = 1 if there is a rule s in P with horn(s) = r and $a \notin b^{-}(s)$; H(r, a) = 0, otherwise.

The following lemma characterizes A-based stable models of an A-program. Both the statement of the lemma and its proof rely on the terminology introduced above.

Lemma 4.4

Let A be a set of atoms, let P be an A-program and let a be an atom such that $a \in At(P) \setminus A$. Then $A \cup \{a\}$ is an A-based stable model of P if and only if F(a) = 0, G(a) > 0, and for some program $Q \in \mathcal{P}(A)$ and for every rule $r \in Q$, H(r, a) > 0.

Proof

(⇒) We denote $M = A \cup \{a\}$ and assume that M is an A-based stable model for P. It follows that $M = LM(P^M)$. Let P_A be the subprogram of P consisting of those rules of P whose head belongs to A. Since M is an A-based stable model of P, we have $A = LM(P_A^M)$. Let Q be the program obtained from P_A^M by removing multiple occurrences of rules. Clearly, $Q \in \mathcal{P}(A)$. It follows directly from the definition of the reduct that for every rule $P \in Q$, P(P, A) = 1.

Next, we observe that $a \in LM(P^M)$. Thus, G(a) > 0. Let us assume that F(a) = 1. Let r be a rule in P such that $h(r) \notin A \cup \{a\}$ and $a \notin b^-(r)$. Since P is an A-program, $A \cap b^-(r) = \emptyset$. Thus, it follows that $horn(r) \in P^M$. We also have that $b^+(r) \subseteq A \subseteq M$. Since M is a model of P^M , $h(r) \in M$. However, in the same time we have that $h(r) \notin A \cup \{a\} (= M)$, a contradiction. It follows that F(a) = 0.

(\Leftarrow) We now assume that for some $a \in At(P) \setminus A$, F(a) = 0, G(a) > 0 and for some program $Q \in \mathcal{P}(A)$ and for every rule $r \in Q$, H(r,a) = 1. As before, we set $M = A \cup \{a\}$. We will show that $M = LM(P^M)$.

First, since P is an A-program and H(r,a) = 1 for every rule $r \in Q$, it follows that $Q \subseteq P(A)^M$. Thus, $A \subseteq LM(P(A)^M)$. Second, we have that G(a) > 0. Thus, there is a rule $r \in P$ such that h(r) = a and $a \notin b^-(r)$. It follows that $horn(r) \notin Q$ and $horn(r) \in P^M$. Since $Q \subseteq P(A)^M$, A = LM(Q) and $b^+(r) \subseteq A$, we obtain that $a \in LM(P(A)^M)$. Thus, $M \subseteq LM(P(A)^M)$. Finally, since F(a) = 0, we have that for every rule $s \in P$ such that $a \notin b^-(s)$, $h(s) \in M$. Thus, $LM(P^M)$ does not contain any atom not in M. Consequently, $M = LM(P^M)$ and M is a stable model of P. Since $M \subseteq LM(P(A)^M)$, M is an A-based stable model of P. \square

We will discuss now effective ways to compute values F(a), G(a) and H(r, a). Clearly, computing the values G(a) can be accomplished in time linear in the size of the program, that is, in time O(m). Indeed, we start by initializing all values G(a) to 0. Then, for each rule $s \in P$, we set G(h(s)) := G(h(s)) + 1 if $h(s) \notin b^-(s)$, and leave G(h(s)) unchanged, otherwise. To decide which is the case requires that we scan all negated lierals in the body of s. That takes time $O(|b^-(s)|)$. Thus, the overall time is O(m).

Computing values F(a) and H(r,a) is more complicated. First, we prove the following lemma.

Lemma 4.5

Let P be an A-program, let $a \in At(P) \setminus A$ and let $r \in R(A)$. Then

- 1. F(a) = 1 if and only if $a \notin \bigcap \{ \{h(s)\} \cup b^{-}(s) : s \in P, h(s) \notin A \}$.
- 2. H(r,a) = 1 if and only if $a \notin \bigcap \{b^-(s) : s \in P, horn(s) = r\}$.

Proof

- 1. Let us assume first that F(a) = 1. Then there is a rule $s \in P$ such that $h(s) \notin A \cup \{a\}$ and $a \notin b^-(s)$. Thus, $a \notin \{h(s)\} \cup b^-(s)$. Consequently, the identity $a \notin \bigcap \{\{h(s)\} \cup b^-(s) : s \in P, h(s) \notin A\}$ follows. All the implications in this argument can be reversed. Hence, we obtain the assertion (1).
- 2. Let us assume that H(r, a) = 1. Then, there is a rule $s \in P$ such that horn(s) = r and $a \notin b^-(s)$. Consequently, $a \notin \bigcap \{b^-(s) : s \in P, horn(s) = r\}$. As in (1), all the implications are in fact equivalences and the assertion (2) follows. \square

Lemma 4.5 shows that to compute all the values F(a) one has to compute the set

$$\bigcap \{\{h(s)\} \cup b^{-}(s) : s \in P, h(s) \notin A\}.$$

To this end, for each atom a we will compute the number of sets in $\{\{h(s)\} \cup b^-(s) : s \in P, h(s) \notin A\}$ that a is a member of. We will denote this number by C(a). We first initialize all values C(a) to 0. Then, we consider all sets in $\{\{h(s)\} \cup b^-(s) : s \in P, h(s) \notin A\}$ in turn. For each such set and for each atom a in this set we set C(a) := C(a) + 1. The set $\bigcap \{\{h(s)\} \cup b^-(s) : s \in P, h(s) \notin A\}$ is given by all those atoms a for which C(a) is equal to the number of sets in $\{\{h(s)\} \cup b^-(s) : s \in P, h(s) \notin A\}$. It is clear that the time needed for this computation is linear in the size of the program (assuming appropriate linked-list representation of rules). Thus, all the values F(a) can be computed in time linear in the size of the program, that is, in O(m) steps.

To compute values H(r,a) we proceed similarly. First, we compute all the sets $\{s:s\in P, horn(s)=r\}$, where $r\in R(A)$. To this end, we scan all rules in P in order and for each of them we find the rule $r\in R(A)$ such that horn(s)=r. Then we include s in the set $\{s:s\in P, horn(s)=r\}$. Given s, it takes O(g|A|) steps to identify rule r (where g is some function). Indeed, the size of $b^+(s)$ is bound by |A| as P is an A-program. Moreover, the number of rules in R(A) depends on |A| only. Thus, the task of computing all sets $\{s:s\in P, horn(s)=r\}$, for $r\in R(A)$, can be accomplished in O(g(|A|)|P|) steps. Next, for each these sets of rules, we proceed as in the case of values F(a), to compute their intersections. Each such computation takes time O(m), where m=size(P)). Thus, computing all the values H(r,a) can be accomplished in time O(g(|A|)|P|+|R(A)|m)=O(f(|A|)m), for some function f.

We can now put all the pieces together. As a result of our considerations, we obtain the following algorithm for deciding the problem SSM(k).

Algorithm to decide the problem SSM(k), $k \ge 1$

Input: A logic program P (k is not a part of input)

- (0) if \emptyset is a stable model of P then return YES and exit;
- (1) P :=the set of proper rules in P;
- (2) for every $A \subseteq At(P)$ with $|A| \le k-1$ do
- (3) compute the set of rules R(A) and the set of programs $\mathcal{P}(A)$;
- (4) compute the program P(A);
- (5) compute the program P'(A) and the set $B = \{a_r : r \in P'(A)\};$
- (6) given P(A) and R(A), compute tables F, G and H (as described above);

```
    (7) for every a ∈ At(P(A)) \ A \ B do
    (8) if
    (9) F(a) = 0, G(a) > 0 and
    (10) there is a program Q ∈ P(A) s. t. for every rule r ∈ Q, H(r, a) > 0
    (11) then report YES and exit;
    (12) report NO and exit.
```

The correctness of this algorithm follows from Lemmas 4.2–4.4. We will now analyze the running time of this algorithm. Clearly, line (0) can be executed in O(m) steps. As we already observed, rules that are not proper can be eliminated from P in time O(m). Next, there are $O(n^{k-1})$ iterations of loop (2). In each of them, line (3) takes time $O(f_1(k))$, for some function f_1 (let us recall that |R(A)| and $|\mathcal{P}(A)|$ depend on |A| only). Further, lines (4) and (5) can be executed in time O(m). Line (6), as we discussed earlier, can be implemented so that to run in O(f(k)m) steps. Loop (7) is executed O(n) times and each iteration takes $O(f_2(k))$ steps, for some function f_2 (let us again recall that $|\mathcal{P}(A)|$ depends on k only). Thus, the running time of the whole algorithm is $O(F(k)mn^{k-1})$, for some integer function F. Consequently, we get the following result.

Theorem 4.6

There is an integer function F and an algorithm $\mathscr A$ such that $\mathscr A$ decides the problem SSM(k) and runs in time $O(F(k)mn^{k-1})$ (the constant hidden in the 'big Oh' notation does not depend on k).

5 Complexity of the problem SSM

The algorithm outlined in the previous section is not quite satisfactory. Its running time is still high. A natural question to ask is: are there significantly better algorithms for the problems SSM(k)? In this section we address this question by studying the complexity of the problem SSM. Our goal is to show that the problem is difficult in the sense of the W hierarchy. We will show that the problem SSM is W[2]-hard and that it is in the class W[3]. To this end, we define the $(\leq k)$ -weighted t-normalized satisfiability problem as:

 $WS^{\leq}(t)$ Given a t-normalized formula φ , decide whether there is a model of φ with at most k atoms (k is a parameter).

The problem $WS^{\leq}(t)$ is a slight variation of the problem WS(t). It is known to be complete for the class W[t], for $t \geq 2$ (see Downey and Fellows, 1997, p. 468). To show W[2]-hardness of SSM, we will reduce the problem $WS^{\leq}(2)$ to the problem SSM. Given the overwhelming evidence of fixed-parameter intractability of problems that are W[2]-hard (Downey and Fellows, 1997), it is unlikely that algorithms for problems SSM(k) exist whose asymptotic behavior would be given by a polynomial of order independent of k. To better delineate the location of the problem SSM in the W hierarchy we also provide an upper bound on its hardness by showing that it can be reduced to the problem $WS^{\leq}(3)$, thus proving that the problem SSM belongs to the class W[3].

We will start by showing that the problem SSM(k) is reducible (in the sense of the definition from Section 2) to the problem $WS \le (3)$. To this end, we describe an encoding of a logic program P by means of a collection of clauses T(P) so that P has a stable model of size at most k if and only if T(P) has a model with no more than $(k+1)(k^2+2k)$ atoms. In the general setting of the class NP, an explicit encoding of the problem of existence of stable models in terms of propositional satisfiability was described in Ben-Eliyahu and Dechter (1994). Our encoding, while different in key details, uses some ideas from that paper.

Let us consider an integer k and a logic program P. For each atom q in P let us introduce new atoms c(q), c(q,i), $1 \le i \le k+1$, and $c^-(q,i)$, $2 \le i \le k+1$. Intuitively, atom c(q) represents the fact that in the process of computing the least model of the reduct of P with respect to some set of atoms, atom q is computed no later than during the iteration k+1 of the van Emden-Kowalski operator. Similarly, atom c(q,i) represents the fact that in the same process atom q is computed exactly in the iteration i of the van Emden-Kowalski operator. Finally, atom $c^-(q,i)$, expresses the fact that q is computed before the iteration i of the van Emden-Kowalski operator. The formulas $F_1(q,i)$, $2 \le i \le k+1$, and $F_2(q)$ describe some basic relationships between atoms c(q), c(q,i) and $c^-(q,i)$ that we will require to hold:

$$F_1(q,i) = c^-(q,i) \Leftrightarrow c(q,1) \vee \ldots \vee c(q,i-1),$$

$$F_2(q) = c(q) \Leftrightarrow c(q, 1) \vee \ldots \vee c(q, k+1).$$

Let r be a rule in P with h(r) = q, say

$$r = q \leftarrow a_1, \dots, a_s, \mathbf{not}(b_1), \dots, \mathbf{not}(b_t).$$

We define a formula $F_3(r,i)$, $2 \le i \le k+1$, by

$$F_3(r,i) = c^-(a_1,i) \wedge \ldots \wedge c^-(a_s,i) \wedge \neg c(b_1) \wedge \ldots \wedge \neg c(b_t) \wedge \neg c^-(q,i).$$

We define $F_3(r,1) =$ **false** (**false** is a distinguished contradictory formula in our propositional language) if $s \ge 1$. Otherwise, we define

$$F_3(r,1) = \neg c(b_1) \wedge \ldots \wedge \neg c(b_t).$$

Speaking informally, formula $F_3(r,i)$ asserts that q is computed by means of rule r in the iteration i of the least model computation process and that it has not been computed earlier.

Let $r_1, ..., r_v$ be all rules in P with atom q in the head. We define a formula $F_4(q, i)$, $1 \le i \le k + 1$, by

$$F_4(q, i) = c(q, i) \Leftrightarrow F_3(r_1, i) \vee \ldots \vee F_3(r_r, i).$$

Intuitively, the formula $F_4(q, i)$ asserts that when computing the least model of the reduct of P, atom q is first computed in the iteration i.

We now define the theory $T_0(P)$ that encodes the problem of existence of small stable models:

$$T_0(P) = \{F_1(q,i): q \in At(P), \ 2 \le i \le k+1\} \cup \{F_2(q): q \in At(P)\} \cup \{F_4(q,i): q \in At(P), \ 1 \le i \le k+1\}.$$

Next, we establish some useful properties of the theory $T_0(P)$. First, we consider a set U of atoms that is a model of $T_0(P)$ and define

$$M(U) = \{ q \in At(P) : c(q) \in U \}.$$

Lemma 5.1

Let *U* be a model of $T_0(P)$ and let $q \in M(U)$. Then there is a unique integer *i*, $1 \le i \le k+1$, such that $c(q,i) \in U$.

Proof

Since U is a model of a formula $F_2(q)$, there is an integer $i, 1 \le i \le k+1$, such that $c(q,i) \in U$. To prove uniqueness of such i, assume that there are two integers j_1 and $j_2, 1 \le j_1 < j_2 \le k+1$, such that $c(q,j_1) \in U$ and $c(q,j_2) \in U$. Since $U \models F_4(q,j_2)$, it follows that there is a rule $r \in P$ with h(r) = q and such that $U \models F_3(r,j_2)$. In particular, $U \models \neg c^-(q,j_2)$. In the same time, since $c(q,j_1) \in U$ and $U \models F_1(q,j_2)$, we have $c^-(q,j_2) \in U$, a contradiction. \square

For every atom $q \in M(U)$ define i_q to be the integer whose existence and uniqueness is guaranteed by Lemma 5.1. Define $i_U = \max\{i_q : q \in M(U)\}$. Next, for each $i, 1 \le i \le i_U$, define

$$[M(U)]_i = \{q \in M(U): i_q = i\}.$$

Lemma 5.2

Let *U* be a model of $T_0(P)$. Under the terminology introduced above, for every *i*, $1 \le i \le i_U$, $[M(U)]_i \ne \emptyset$.

Proof

We proceed by downward induction. By the definition of i_U , $[M(U)]_{i_U} \neq \emptyset$. Consider $i, 2 \leq i \leq i_U$, and assume that $[M(U)]_i \neq \emptyset$. We will show that $[M(U)]_{i-1} \neq \emptyset$. Let $q \in [M(U)]_i$. Clearly, $c(q,i) \in U$ and, since $U \models F_4(q,i)$, there is a rule $r = q \leftarrow a_1, \ldots, a_s, \mathbf{not}(b_1), \ldots, \mathbf{not}(b_t)$ such that $U \models F_3(r,i)$. Consequently, for every $j, 1 \leq j \leq s, c^-(a_j,i) \in U$. Assume that for every $j, 1 \leq j \leq s, c^-(a_j,i-1) \in U$. Since $U \models c^-(q,i-1) \Rightarrow c^-(q,i)$ and since $U \models \neg c^-(q,i)$, it follows that $U \models \neg c^-(q,i-1)$. Consequently, U satisfies the formula $F_3(r,i-1)$ and, so, $U \models F_4(q,i-1)$. It follows that $c(q,i-1) \in U$, a contradiction (we recall that $i_q = i$). Hence, there is $j, 1 \leq j \leq s$, such that $c(a_j,i-1) \in U$. It follows that $a_j \in [M(U)]_{i-1}$ and $[M(U)]_{i-1} \neq \emptyset$. \square

Lemma 5.3

Let U be a model of $T_0(P)$ and let $|M(U)| \leq k$. Then

- 1. $i_U \leq k$, and
- 2. M(U) is a stable model of P.

Proof

- 1. The assertion follows directly from the fact that $|M(U)| \le k$ and from Lemma 5.2.
- 2. We need to show that $M(U) = LM(P^{M(U)})$. We will first show that $M(U) \subseteq LM(P^{M(U)})$. Since $M(U) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{i_U} [M(U)]_i$, we will show that for every $i, 1 \le i \le i_U$, $[M(U)]_i \subseteq LM(P^{M(U)})$. We will proceed by induction. Let $q \in [M(U)]_1$.

It follows that there is a rule r such that $U \models F_3(r,1)$. Consequently, r is of the form $r = q \leftarrow \mathbf{not}(b_1), \ldots, \mathbf{not}(b_t)$ and $U \models \neg c(b_1) \land \ldots \land \neg c(b_t)$. Hence, for every j, $1 \leqslant j \leqslant t$, $b_j \notin M(U)$. Consequently, the rule $(q \leftarrow .)$ is in $P^{M(U)}$ and, so, $q \in LM(P^{M(U)})$. The inductive step is based on a similar argument. It relies on the inequality $i_U \leqslant k$ we proved in (1). We leave the details of the inductive step to the reader.

We will next show that $LM(P^{M(U)}) \subseteq M(U)$. We will use the characterization of $LM(P^{M(U)})$ as the limit of the sequence of iterations of the van Emden–Kowalski operator $T_{P^{M(U)}}$:

$$LM(P^{M(U)}) = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} T^i_{P^{M(U)}}(\emptyset).$$

We will first show that for every integer i, $0 \le i \le k+1$, we have: $T^i_{P^{M(U)}}(\emptyset) \subseteq M(U)$ and for every $q \in T^i_{P^{M(U)}}(\emptyset)$, $i_q \le i$.

Clearly, $T^0_{P^{M(U)}}(\emptyset) = \emptyset \subseteq M(U)$. Hence, the basis for the induction is established. Assume that for some $i, \ 0 \leqslant i \leqslant k, \ T^i_{P^{M(U)}}(\emptyset) \subseteq M(U)$ and that for every $q \in T^i_{P^{M(U)}}(\emptyset), i_q \leqslant i$. Consider $q \in T^{i+1}_{P^{M(U)}}(\emptyset)$. If $U \models c^-(q,i+1)$, then $c(q,v) \in U$ for some $v, \ 1 \leqslant v \leqslant i$. Since $U \models F_2(q), \ c(q) \in U$ and $q \in M(U)$. By Lemma 5.1, it follows that $i_q = v$. Hence, $i_q < i + 1$.

Thus, assume that $U \models \neg c^-(q, i+1)$. Since $q \in T^{i+1}_{pM(U)}(\emptyset)$, there is a rule

$$r = q \leftarrow a_1, \dots, a_s, \mathbf{not}(b_1), \dots, \mathbf{not}(b_t)$$

in P such that $b_j \notin M(U)$, for every $j, 1 \leq j \leq t$, and $a_j \in T^i_{P^{M(U)}}(\emptyset)$, $1 \leq i \leq s$. By the induction hypothesis, for every $j, 1 \leq j \leq s$, we have $a_j \in M(U)$ and $i_{a_j} \leq i$. It follows that $U \models F_3(r, i+1)$ and, consequently, that $c(q, i+1) \in U$. Since $U \models F_2(q)$, $c(q) \in U$ and $q \in M(U)$. It also follows (Lemma 5.1) that $i_q = i + 1$.

Thus, we proved that $\bigcup_{i=0}^{k+1} T^i_{P^{M(U)}}(\emptyset) \subseteq M(U)$. Since $|M(U)| \leq k$, there is j, $0 \leq j \leq k$ such that $T^j_{P^{M(U)}}(\emptyset) = T^{j+1}_{P^{M(U)}}(\emptyset)$. It follows that for every j', j < j', $T^j_{P^{M(U)}}(\emptyset) = T^{j'}_{P^{M(U)}}(\emptyset)$. Consequently, $T^i_{P^{M(U)}}(\emptyset) \subseteq M(U)$ for every non-negative integer i. \square

Consider now a stable model M of the program P and assume that $|M| \leq k$. Clearly, $M = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} T_{PM}^{i}(\emptyset)$. For each atom $q \in M$ define s_q to be the least integer s such that $q \in T_{PM}^{s}(\emptyset)$. Clearly, $s_q \geq 1$. Moreover, since $|M| \leq k$, it follows that for each $q \in M$, $s_q \leq k$. Now, define

$$U_M = \{c(q), c(q, s_q) : q \in M\} \cup \{c^-(q, i) : q \in M, s_q < i \le k+1\}$$

Lemma 5.4

Let M be a stable model of a logic program P such that $|M| \le k$. Under the terminology introduced above, the set of atoms U_M is a model of $T_0(P)$.

Proof

Clearly, $U_M \models F_1(q, i)$ for $q \in At(P)$ and $2 \le i \le k+1$, and $U_M \models F_2(q)$ for $q \in At(P)$.

We will now show that $U_M \models F_4(q,i)$, for $q \in At(P)$ and i = 1, 2, ..., k + 1. First,

we will consider the case $q \in M$. There are three subcases here depending on the value of i.

We start with i such that $s_q < i \le k+1$. Then $U_M \not\models \neg c^-(q,i)$. It follows that $U_M \not\models F_3(r,i)$ for every rule $r \in P$ such that h(r) = q. Since $U_M \not\models c(q,i)$, $U_M \models F_4(q,i)$.

Next, we assume that $i = s_q$. Then, there is a rule $r = q \leftarrow a_1, \ldots, a_s, \mathbf{not}(b_1), \ldots, \mathbf{not}(b_t)$ in P such that $b_j \notin M$, for every j, $1 \le j \le t$, and $a_j \in T_{P^M}^{i-1}(\emptyset)$, $1 \le j \le s$. Clearly, $U_M \models F_3(r,i)$. Since $U_M \models c(q,i)$, it follows that $U_M \models F_4(q,i)$, for $i = s_q$.

Finally, let us consider the case $1 \le i < s_q$. Assume that there is rule $r \in P$ such that h(r) = q and $U_M \models F_3(r,i)$. Let us assume that $r = q \leftarrow a_1, \ldots, a_s, \mathbf{not}(b_1), \ldots, \mathbf{not}(b_t)$. It follows that for every $j, 1 \le j \le t, U_M \models \neg c(b_j)$. Consequently, for every $j, 1 \le j \le t, b_j \notin M$ and the rule $r' = q \leftarrow a_1, \ldots, a_s$ belongs to the reduct P^M . In addition, for every $j, 1 \le j \le s, c^-(a_j,i) \in U_M$. Thus, $a_j \in M$ and $s_{a_j} \le i - 1$. This latter property is equivalent to $a_j \in T_{P^M}^{i-1}(\emptyset)$. Thus, it follows that $q \in T_{P^M}^i(\emptyset)$ and $s_q \le i - a$ contradiction with the assumption that $i < s_q$. Hence, for every rule r with the head $q, U_M \not\models F_3(r,i)$. Since for $i < s_q, c(q,i) \notin U_M, U_M \models F_4(q,i)$.

To complete the proof, we still need to consider the case $q \notin M$. Clearly, for every $i, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant k+1$, $U_M \not\models c(q,i)$. Assume that there is $i, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant k+1$, and a rule r such that h(r) = q and $U_M \models F_3(r,i)$. Let us assume that r is of the form $q \leftarrow a_1, \ldots, a_s, \mathbf{not}(b_1), \ldots, \mathbf{not}(b_t)$. It follows that $c^-(a_j,i) \in U_M$ and, consequently, $a_j \in M$ for every $j, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant s$. In addition, it follows that for every $j, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant t$, $U_M \models \neg c(b_j)$ and, consequently, $b_j \notin M$. Thus, $q \leftarrow a_1, \ldots, a_s$ belongs to the reduct P^M and, since M is a model of the reduct, $q \in M$, a contradiction. It follows that for every $i, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant k+1$, $U_M \models F_4(q,i)$. \square

For each atom $q \in At(P)$, let us introduce $k^2 + 2k$ new atoms d(q, i), $1 \le i \le k^2 + 2k$, and define

$$T(P) = T_0(P) \cup \{c(q) \Leftrightarrow d(q, i) : 1 \leqslant i \leqslant k^2 + 2k\}.$$

Lemmas 5.1-5.4 add up to a proof of the following result.

Theorem 5.5

Let k be a non-negative integer and let P be a logic program. The program P has a stable model of size at most k if and only if the theory T(P) has a model of size at most $(k+1)(k^2+2k)$.

Proof

(⇒) Let M be a stable model of P such that $|M| \le k$. By Lemma 5.4, the set U_M is a model of $T_0(P)$ Consequently, the set

$$U = U_M \cup \{d(q, i) : q \in M, 1 \le i \le k^2 + 2k\}$$

is a model of T(P). Moreover, it is easy to see that $|U_M| \le 2k + k^2$. Hence, $|U| \le 2k + k^2 + k(k^2 + 2k) = (k+1)(k^2 + 2k)$.

Conversely, let us assume that some set V, consisting of atoms appearing in T(P) and such that $|V| \leq (k+1)(k^2+2k)$, is a model of T(P). Let us define U to consist of all atoms of the form c(q), c(q,i) and $c^-(q,i)$ that appear in V. Clearly, U is a model of $T_0(P)$. Let us assume that $M(U) \geq k+1$ (we recall that the notation

M(U) was introduced just before Lemma 5.1 was stated). Then, there are at least $(k+1)(k^2+2k)$ atoms of type d(q,i) in V. Consequently, $V > (k+1)(k^2+2k)$ as it contains also at least k+1 atoms c(q), where $q \in M(U)$. This is a contradiction. Thus, it follows that $|M(U)| \le k$. Moreover, by Lemma 5.3, M(U) is a stable model of P. \square

Let us now define the following sets of formulas. First, for each atom $q \in At(P)$ we define

$$C_0(q) = \{ \neg c(q) \lor d(q, i) : 1 \le i \le k^2 + 2k \} \cup \{ c(q) \lor \neg d(q, i) : 1 \le i \le k^2 + 2k \}.$$

Next, we define

$$C_1(q,i) = \{ \neg c^-(q,i) \lor c(q,1) \lor \dots \lor c(q,i-1) \} \cup \{ \neg c(q,j) \lor c^-(q,i) : 1 \leqslant j \leqslant i-1 \},$$

$$C_2(q) = \{ \neg c(q) \lor c(q,1) \lor \dots \lor c(q,k+1) \} \cup \{ \neg c(q,j) \lor c(q) : 1 \leqslant j \leqslant k+1 \},$$

and

$$C_4(q,i) = \{ \neg c(q,i) \lor F_3(r_1,i) \lor \dots \lor F_3(r_v,i) \} \cup \{ \neg F_3(r_i,i) \lor c(q,i) : 1 \le i \le v \},$$

where $\{r_1, \ldots, r_v\}$ is the set of all rules in P with q in the head.

Clearly, the theory

$$T^{c}(P) = \{C_{0}(q): q \in At(P)\} \cup \{C_{1}(q,i): q \in At(P), 2 \leq i \leq k+1\} \cup \{C_{2}(q): q \in At(P)\} \cup \{C_{4}(q,i): q \in At(P), 1 \leq i \leq k+1\}$$

is equivalent to the theory T(P). Moreover, it is a collection of sums of products of literals. Therefore, it is a 3-normalized formula. By Theorem 5.5, it follows that the problem SSM can be reduced to the problem $WS^{\leq}(3)$. Thus, we get the following result.

Theorem 5.6

The problem $SSM(k) \in W[3]$.

Next, we will show that the problem $WS^{\leq}(2)$ can be reduced to the problem SSM. Let $C = \{c_1, ..., c_p\}$ be a collection of clauses. Let $A = \{x_1, ..., x_r\}$ be the set of atoms appearing in clauses in C. For each atom $x \in A$, introduce k new atoms x(i), $1 \leq i \leq k$. By S_i , $1 \leq i \leq k$, we denote the logic program consisting of the following n clauses:

$$x_1(i) \leftarrow \mathbf{not}(x_2(i)), \dots, \mathbf{not}(x_r(i))$$
 \dots
 $x_r(i) \leftarrow \mathbf{not}(x_1(i)), \dots, \mathbf{not}(x_{r-1}(i))$

Define $S = \bigcup_{i=1}^k S_i$. Clearly, each stable model of S is of the form $\{x_{j_1}(1), \ldots, x_{j_k}(k)\}$, where $1 \le j_p \le r$ for $p = 1, \ldots, k$. Sets of this form can be viewed as representations of nonempty subsets of the set A that have no more than k elements. This representation is not one-to-one, that is, some subsets have multiple representations.

Next, define P_1 to be the program consisting of the clauses

$$x_i \leftarrow x_i(i), \quad j = 1, ..., r, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., k.$$

Stable models of the program $S \cup P_1$ are of the form $\{x_{j_1}(1), ..., x_{j_k}(k)\} \cup M$, where M is a nonempty subset of A such that $|M| \leq k$ and $x_{j_1}, ..., x_{j_k}$ enumerate (possibly with repetitions) all elements of M.

Finally, for each clause

$$c = a_1 \lor ... \lor a_s \lor \neg b_1 \lor ... \lor \neg b_t$$

from C define a logic program clause p(c):

$$p(c) = f \leftarrow b_1, \dots, b_t, \mathbf{not}(a_1), \dots, \mathbf{not}(a_s), \mathbf{not}(f)$$

where f is yet another new atom. Define $P_2 = \{p(c) : c \in C\}$ and $P^C = S \cup P_1 \cup P_2$.

Theorem 5.7

A set of clauses C has a nonempty model with no more than k elements if and only if the program P^{C} has a stable model with no more than 2k elements.

Proof

Let M be a nonempty model of C such that $|M| \le k$. Let x_{j_1}, \ldots, x_{j_k} be an enumeration of all elements of M (possibly with repetitions). Then the set $M' = \{x_{j_1}(1), \ldots, x_{j_k}(k)\} \cup M$ is a stable model of the program $S \cup P_1$. Since M is a model of C, it follows that $(P^C)^{M'} = (S \cup P_1)^{M'} \cup F$, where F consists of the clauses of the form

$$f \leftarrow b_1, \ldots, b_t$$

such that $t \ge 1$ and for some $j, 1 \le j \le t, b_j \notin M'$. Since $M' = LM((S \cup P_1)^{M'})$, it follows that

$$M' = LM((S \cup P_1)^{M'} \cup F) = LM((P^C)^{M'}).$$

Thus, M' is a stable model of P^{C} . Since $|M'| \leq 2k$, the 'only if' part of the assertion follows.

Conversely, assume that M' is a stable model of P^{C} . Clearly, $f \notin M'$. Consequently,

$$LM((S \cup P_1)^{M'}) = LM((S \cup P_1 \cup P_2)^{M'}) = LM((P^C)^{M'}) = M'.$$

That is, M' is a stable model of $S \cup P_1$. As mentioned earlier, it follows that $M' = \{x_{j_1}(1), \dots, x_{j_k}(k)\} \cup M$, where M is a nonempty subset of At(P) such that $|M| \leq k$ and x_{j_1}, \dots, x_{j_k} is an enumeration of all elements of M.

Consider a clause $c = a_1 \vee ... \vee a_s \vee \neg b_1 \vee ... \vee \neg b_t$ from C. Since M' is a stable model of P^C , it is a model of P^C . In particular, M' is a model of P^C . Since P^C it follows that P^C and, consequently, P^C is a model of P^C . P^C

Now the reducibility of the problem $WS^{\leq}(2)$ to the problem SSM is evident. Given a collection of clauses C, to check whether it has a model of size at most k, we first check whether the empty set of atoms is a model of C. If so, we return the answer YES and terminate the algorithm. Otherwise, we construct the program P^{C} and check whether it has a stable model of size at most 2k. Consequently, we obtain the following result.

Theorem 5.8
The problem SSM is W[2]-hard.

6 Open problems and conclusions

The paper established several results pertaining to the problem of computing small and large stable models. It also brings up interesting research questions.

First, we proved that the problem LSM is in the class FPT. For problems that are fixed-parameter tractable, it is often possible to design an algorithm running in time O(p(N) + f(k)), where N is the size of the problem, k is a parameter, p is a polynomial and f is a function (Downey and Fellows, 1997). Such algorithms are often practical for quite large ranges of N and k. The algorithm for the LSM problem presented in this paper runs in time $O(m2^{k+k^2})$. It seems plausible it can be improved to run in time O(m+f(k)), for some function f. Such an algorithm would most certainly be practical for wide range of values of m and k. We propose as an open problem the challenge of designing an algorithm for computing large stable models with this time complexity.

There is a natural variation on the problem of computing large stable models: given a logic program P and an integer k (parameter), decide whether P has a stable model of size at least |At(P)| - k. This version of the problem LSM was recently proved by Zbigniew Lonc and the author to be W[3]-hard (and, hence, fixed-parameter intractable) (Lonc and Truszczyński, 2000). The upper bound for the complexity of this problem remains unknown.

In the paper, we described an algorithm that for every fixed k, decides the existence of stable models of size at most k in time $O(n^{k-1}m)$, where n is the number of atoms in the program and m is its size. This algorithm offers only a slight improvement over the straightforward 'guess-and-check' algorithm. An interesting and, it seems, difficult problem is to significantly improve on this algorithm by lowering the exponent in the complexity estimate to αk , for some constant $\alpha < 1$.

We also studied the complexity of the problem SSM and showed that it is fixed-parameter intractable. Our results show that SSM is W[2]-hard. This result implies that the problem SSM is at least as hard as the problem to determine whether a CNF theory has a model of cardinality at most k, and strongly suggests that algorithms do not exist that would decide problems SSM(k) and run in time $O(n^c)$, where c is a constant independent on k. For the upper bound, we proved in this paper that the problem SSM belongs to class W[3]. Recently, Zbigniew Lonc and the author (Lonc and Truszczyński, 2000) showed that the problem SSM is, in fact, in the class W[2].

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