Computing Loops with at Most One External Support Rule

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A consequence of a logic program under answer set semantics is one that is true in all answer sets. This paper considers using loop formulas to compute some of these consequences to increase the efficiency of answer set solvers. Since computing loop formulas is in general intractable, we consider only loops with either no external support or at most one external supports as their loop formulas are either unit or binary clauses. We show that for disjunctive logic programs, loop formulas of loops with no external support can be computed in polynomial time, and that an iterative procedure using unit propagation on these formulas and the program completion computes the well-founded models in the case of normal logic programs. For loops with at most one external support, their loop formulas can be computed in polynomial-time for normal logic programs, but are NP-hard for disjunctive programs. So for normal logic programs, we have a procedure similar to the iterative one for loops without any external support, but for disjunctive logic programs, we present a polynomial approximation algorithm. All these algorithms have been implemented, and our experiments show that for certain logic programs, the consequences computed by our algorithms can significantly speed up current ASP solvers cmodels, clasp, and DLV.

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This paper expands on two previous conference papers [Chen et al. 2008] and [Chen et al. 2009], especially the experimental results.

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1. INTRODUCTION

This paper is about Answer Set Programming (ASP) where the main computational task is to compute the answer sets of a logic program. In this context, consequences of a logic program, those that are true in all answer sets, are of interest as they can be used to simplify the given program and help computing its answer sets. The best known example is the well-founded model for normal logic programs [Van Gelder et al. 1991], which always exists and can be computed efficiently. All literals in the well-founded model are consequences, and in all current ASP solvers, a logic program is first simplified by its well-founded model. A natural question then is whether there are other consequences of a logic program. Motivated by this, we propose to use loops and loop formulas to compute consequences of a logic program.

The notions of loops and loop formulas were first proposed by Lin and Zhao [2004] for propositional normal logic programs, they showed that a set of atoms is an answer set of a normal logic program iff it satisfies the completion and the loop formulas of the program. The notions and the result have been extended to disjunctive logic programs, nested logic programs [Lee and Lifschitz 2003], general logic programs [Ferraris et al. 2006], normal logic programs with variables [Chen et al. 2006], propositional circumscription [Lee and Lin 2006], and arbitrary first-order formulas with sable model semantics [Lee and Meng 2008]. Generally, the consequences of a logic program are the logical consequences of its completion and loop formulas. However, deduction in propositional logic is coNP-hard and in general there may be an exponential number of loops [Lifschitz and Razborov 2006]. One way to overcome these problems is to use some tractable inference rules and consider only those loop formulas that can be used effectively by these inference rules and at the same time can be computed efficiently.

In this paper, we choose unit propagation as the inference rule. To see which loops would yield "unit propagation friendly" loop formulas, let us look at the form of loop formulas for normal logic programs (similarly for disjunctive logic programs).

According to [Lin and Zhao 2004], a loop L is a set of atoms, and its loop formula is a sentence of the form:

$$\bigvee L \supset \bigvee_{r \in R^-(L)} body(r),$$

where $R^{-}(L)$ is the set of so-called *external support rules* of L, and body(r) is the conjunction of the literals in the body of the rule r. Without going into details about the definition of external supports and how they are computed, we see that if a loop L has no external supports, then its loop formula is equivalent to the following set of literals:

$$\{ \neg a \mid a \in L \},\$$

and if a loop L has exactly one external support rule, say r, then its loop formula is equivalent to the following set of binary clauses:

$$\{ \neg a \lor l \mid a \in L, l \in body(r) \}.$$

Thus we see that loops that have at most one external support rule are special in that their loop formulas will yield unit or binary clauses that can be used effectively

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by unit propagation.

More generally, if we assume a set A of literals, then for any loop that has at most one external support rule whose body is not false under A, its loop formula is equivalent to either a set of literals or a set of binary clauses under A.

Since the completion of a logic program can be computed and converted to a set of clauses in linear time (by introducing new variables if necessary), if these loop formulas can also be computed in polynomial time, we then have a polynomial time algorithm for computing some consequences of a logic program. In general terms, one of such procedure is as follows:

Input: a logic program P.

- 1. Initialize $U = \emptyset$, and convert Comp(P) to a set C of clauses.
- 2. Based on U, compute a set of loop formulas, and convert them into a set L of clauses.
- 3. Let $K = \{ \varphi \mid U \cup C \cup L \vdash_P \varphi \}$, where \vdash_P is a sound inference rule in propositional logic (such as unit propagation).
- 4. If $K \setminus U = \emptyset$, then return K, else let U = K and go back to step 2.

We shall show that, the loop formulas of loops with no external support rules can indeed be computed in polynomial time. For normal logic programs, when \vdash_P is unit propagation, and the class of loops under U is those that have no external support under U, then the above procedure computes essentially the same set of literals as does the *Expand* operator in smodels [Simons et al. 2002]. In particular, it computes the well-founded model [Van Gelder et al. 1991] when the given normal logic program has no constraint. In general, this procedure can be more powerful, when loops with at most one external support rule are considered, and these extra consequence can help ASP solvers. This is supported experimentally. Our earlier experimental results reported in [Chen et al. 2008] showed that consequences computed by the above procedure can speed up cmodels [Giunchiglia et al. 2006] significantly. However, the sizes of the logic programs that we tried were not big enough to show its benefits on clasp [Gebser et al. 2007]. We have since performed more experiments with a better implementation of the procedure outlined above. We report here that even for clasp, the computed consequences can speed it up significantly on large programs - the largest program that we tried is an instance of the Hamiltonian Circuit problem with 1000 nodes. For this program, clasp needs almost 3000 seconds to return an answer set. Our system runs in 18 seconds to return the consequences of the program as computed by our procedure above, and once these consequences are added to the original program as constraints, clasp returns an answer set in about 6 seconds!

The above procedure works in principle for more general logic programs, such as disjunctive logic programs. As expected, loop formulas of loops with no external support rules required in the procedure can still be computed in polynomial time. The consequences computed from the procedure are closely related to the pre-processing step in DLV, well-founded models, and greatest unfounded sets in disjunctive logic programs as well. However, the problem of computing the loop formulas of loops with at most one external support rule turns to be NP-hard. We thus propose a polynomial algorithm for computing some of these loop formu-

las, and show experimentally that this polynomial approximation algorithm can be effective in practice.

This paper is organized as follows. We briefly review the basic notions of logic programming in the next section. Then we define loops with at most one external support rule under a given set of literals, and consider how to compute their loop formulas for normal and disjunctive logic programs. We then consider how to use these loop formulas to derive consequences of a program using unit propagation, and discuss related work. Since the problem of computing the loop formulas of loops with at most one external support rule is different for normal and disjunctive logic programs, we first consider the case for normal logic programs, then extend it to disjunctive logic programs. We also show experimentally that, when loop formulas of loops with at most one external support rule is considered in the procedure, these extra consequences can help ASP solvers to find answer sets of certain logic programs.

2. PRELIMINARIES

In this paper, we consider only fully grounded finite logic programs.

A normal logic program is a finite set of (normal) rules of the form:

$$H \leftarrow a_1, \dots, a_m, not \, a_{m+1}, \dots, not \, a_n, \tag{1}$$

where $n \ge m \ge 0$ and a_i , $1 \le i \le n$, are atoms. *H* is either empty or an atom. If *H* is empty, then this rule is also called a *constraint*, and if *H* is an atom, it is a *proper rule*.

A disjunctive logic program is a finite set of (disjunctive) rules of the form

$$a_1 \vee \cdots \vee a_k \leftarrow a_{k+1}, \dots, a_m, not \, a_{m+1}, \dots, not \, a_n, \tag{2}$$

where $n \ge m \ge k \ge 0$ and a_1, \ldots, a_n are atoms. Note that, if $k \le 1$, the rule is a normal rule.

We will also write rule r of form (2) as

$$head(r) \leftarrow body(r),$$
 (3)

where head(r) is $a_1 \vee \cdots \vee a_k$, $body(r) = body^+(r) \wedge \neg body^-(r)$, $body^+(r)$ is $a_{k+1} \wedge \cdots \wedge a_m$, and $\neg body^-(r)$ is $\neg a_{m+1} \wedge \cdots \wedge \neg a_n$, and we identify head(r), body(r), $body^+(r)$ with their corresponding sets of literals, specially, we identify $body^-(r)$ with the set of atoms occurred in $\neg body^-(r)$.

Given a logic program P, we denote by Atoms(P) the set of atoms in it, and Lit(P) the set of literals constructed from Atoms(P):

$$Lit(P) = Atoms(P) \cup \{ \neg a \mid a \in Atoms(P) \}.$$

Given a literal l, the *complement* of l, written \overline{l} below, is $\neg a$ if l is a and a if l is $\neg a$, where a is an atom. For a set L of literals, we let $\overline{L} = {\overline{l} \mid l \in L}$.

2.1 Answer Sets

Now, we review the definitions of *answer sets* for normal and disjunctive logic programs.

To define the *answer sets* of a normal logic program with constraints, we first define the *stable models* of a normal logic program that does not have any constraints [Gelfond and Lifschitz 1988]. Given a normal logic program P without constraints, and a set S of atoms, the Gelfond-Lifschitz transformation of P on S, written P_S , is obtained from P by deleting:

- (1) each rule that has a formula *not* p in its body with $p \in S$, and
- (2) all formulas of the form not p in the bodies of the remaining rules.

Clearly for any S, P_S is a set of rules without any negative literals, so that P_S has a unique minimal model, denoted by $\Gamma_P(S)$. Now a set S of atoms is a stable model of P iff $S = \Gamma_P(S)$.

In general, given a normal logic program P that may have constraints, a set S of atoms is an answer set of P iff it is a stable model of the program obtained by deleting all the constraints in P, and it satisfies all the constraints in P, i.e. for any constraint of the form (1) such that H is empty, either $a_i \notin S$ for some $1 \leq i \leq m$ or $a_j \in S$ for some $m + 1 \leq j \leq n$.

The answer sets of a disjunctive logic program is defined as in [Gelfond and Lifschitz 1991]. Given a disjunctive logic program P and a set S of atoms, the Gelfond-Lifschitz transformation of P on S, written P_S , is defined the same as for normal logic programs. Clearly for any S, P_S is the set of rules without any negative literals, so that P_S has a set of minimal models, denoted by $\Gamma_P(S)$. Now a set S of atoms is an answer set of P iff $S \in \Gamma_P(S)$.

2.2 Completions

The completion of a disjunctive (normal) logic program P [Lee and Lifschitz 2003], Comp(P), is defined as the set of propositional formulas that consists of the implication

$$body(r) \supset head(r),$$
 (4)

for every rule r in P, and the implication

$$a \supset \bigvee_{r \in P, \ a \in head(r)} \left(body(r) \land \bigwedge_{p \in head(r) \setminus \{a\}} \neg p \right), \tag{5}$$

for each atom $a \in Atoms(P)$.

Note that, if P is a normal logic program without constraints, Comp(P) is equivalent to the Clark's completion of P [Clark 1978]. If P has constraints, then the completion of P is the union of Clark's completion and the set of sentences corresponding to the constraints in P: if $\leftarrow a_1, ..., a_m, not a_{m+1}, ..., not a_n$ is a constraint, then its corresponding sentence is $\neg(a_1 \land \cdots \land a_m \land \neg a_{m+1} \land \cdots \land \neg a_n)$.

As we mentioned, we will convert the completion into a set of clauses, and use unit propagation as the inference rule. Since unit propagation is not logically complete, it matters how we transform the formulas in the completion into clauses. In the following, let comp(P) be the set of following clauses:

(1) for each $a \in Atoms(P)$, if there is no rule in P with a in its head, then add $\neg a$; (2) if r is not a constraint, then add $head(r) \lor \bigvee \overline{body(r)}$;

- (3) if r is a constraint, then add the clause $\bigvee body(r)$;
- (4) if a is an atom and $r_1, \ldots, r_t, t > 0$, are all the rules in P with a in their heads, then introduce t new variables v_1, \ldots, v_t , and add the following clauses:

$$\neg a \lor v_1 \lor \cdots \lor v_t,$$

$$v_i \lor \bigvee \overline{body(r_i)} \lor \bigvee_{p \in head(r_i) \setminus \{a\}} p, \text{ for each } 1 \le i \le t,$$

$$\neg v_i \lor l, \text{ for each } l \in body(r_i) \cup \overline{head(r_i) \setminus \{a\}} \text{ and } 1 \le i \le t.$$

2.3 Loops and Loop Formulas

We now briefly review the notions of loops and loop formulas in disjunctive (normal) logic programs [Lee and Lifschitz 2003].

Given a disjunctive (normal) logic program P, the positive dependency graph of P, written G_P , is the directed graph whose vertices are atoms in P, and there is an arc from p to q if there is a rule $r \in P$ such that $p \in head(r)$ and $q \in body^+(r)$. A set L of atoms is said to be a loop of P if for any p and q in L, there is a non-empty path from p to q in G_P such that all the vertices in the path are in L, i.e. the L-induced subgraph of G_P is strongly connected.

Given a loop L, a rule r is an external support of L if $head(r) \cap L \neq \emptyset$ and $L \cap body^+(r) = \emptyset$. In the following, let $R^-(L)$ be the set of external support rules of L. Then the loop formula of L under P, written LF(L, P), is the following implication

$$\bigvee_{p \in L} p \supset \bigvee_{r \in R^{-}(L)} \left(body(r) \land \bigwedge_{q \in head(r) \backslash L} \neg q \right).$$
(6)

2.4 Unfounded Sets

The notion of unfounded sets for normal logic programs, which provide the basis for negative conclusions in the well-founded semantics [Van Gelder 1989], has been extended to disjunctive logic programs [Leone et al. 1997].

Let P be a disjunctive logic program, A be a set of literals. A set of atoms X is an *unfounded set* for P w.r.t. A if, for each $a \in X$, for each rule $r \in P$ such that $a \in head(r)$, at least one of the following conditions holds:

- (1) $\overline{A} \cap body(r) \neq \emptyset$, that is, the body of r is false w.r.t. A.
- (2) $body^+(r) \cap X \neq \emptyset$, that is, some positive body literal belongs to X.
- (3) $(head(r) \setminus X) \cap A \neq \emptyset$, that is, an atom in the head of r, distinct from elements in X, is true w.r.t. A.

Note that if P is a normal logic program, unfounded sets defined here coincide with the definition given for normal logic programs in [Van Gelder 1989]. For normal logic programs, the union of all unfounded sets w.r.t. A is also an unfounded set w.r.t. A (called the *greatest unfounded set*). But this is not generally true for disjunctive logic programs, thus for some disjunctive logic program P and set of literals A, the union of two unfounded sets is not an unfounded set and the greatest unfounded set of P w.r.t. A does not exist. From Proposition 3.7 in [Leone et al. 1997], the greatest unfounded set exists for any P if A is unfounded-free. Formally,

a set of literals A is unfounded-free for a disjunctive logic program P, if $A \cap X = \emptyset$ for each unfounded set X for P w.r.t. A. If A is unfounded-free for P, then the greatest unfounded set exists. In the following, we use $GUS_P(A)$ to denote the greatest unfounded set for P w.r.t. A.

Loops and unfounded sets are closely related [Lee 2005; Anger et al. 2006]. In this paper, we show that the greatest unfounded sets (if exist) can be computed from loops that have no external support rules.

2.5 Unit Propagation

We use unit propagation as the inference rule for deriving consequences from the completion and loop formulas of a logic program. Given a set Γ of clauses, we let $UP(\Gamma)$ be the set of literals that can be derived from Γ by unit propagation. Formally, it can be defined as follows:

Function $UP(\Gamma)$ if $(\emptyset \in \Gamma)$ then return Lit; $A := unit_clause(\Gamma)$; if A is inconsistent then return Lit; if $A \neq \emptyset$ then return $A \cup UP(assign(A, \Gamma))$ else return \emptyset ;

where *Lit* is the set of literals in the language, $unit_clause(\Gamma)$ returns the union of all unit clauses in Γ , and $assign(A, \Gamma)$ is $\{c \mid \text{ for some } c' \in \Gamma, c' \cap A = \emptyset$, and $c = c' \setminus \overline{A}\}$.

COMPUTING LOOPS WITH AT MOST ONE EXTERNAL SUPPORT FOR NOR-MAL LOGIC PROGRAMS

The basic theorem about loop formulas says that a set of atoms is an answer set of a logic program iff it is a model of the program's completion and loop formulas¹. This is the case for normal logic programs [Lin and Zhao 2004] as well as disjunctive logic programs [Lee and Lifschitz 2003]. This means that a sentence is a consequence of a logic program iff it is a logical consequence of the program's completion and loop formulas. The problem is that logical entailment in propositional logic is coNP-complete, and that in the worst case, there may be an exponential number of loops and loop formulas. Here, we suggest using unit propagation as the inference rule, and some special classes of loops whose loop formulas can be computed efficiently. We consider loops with at most one external support rule.

In this section, we consider the case for normal logic programs.

3.1 Loops with at Most One External Support

Consider first loops without any external support rules. If a loop L has no external support rules, i.e. $R^-(L) = \emptyset$, then its loop formula (6) is equivalent to $\bigwedge_{p \in L} \neg p$. More generally, if we already know that A is a set of literals that are true in all answer sets, and $\overline{A} \cap body(r) \neq \emptyset$, for every rule $r \in R^-(L)$, then under A, the loop formula of L is equivalent to $\bigwedge_{p \in L} \neg p$.

Thus we extend the notion of external support rules, and have it conditioned on a given set of literals. Let P be a logic program, and A a set of literals. We say

 $^{^1\}mathrm{Or}$ the program and its loop formulas if singletons are always considered loops.

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that a rule $r \in R^{-}(L)$ is an external support of L under A if $\overline{A} \cap body(r) = \emptyset$. In the following, we denote by $R^{-}(L, A)$ the set of external support rules of L under A. Now given a logic program P and a set A of literals, let

$$loop_0(P, A) = \{ L \mid L \text{ is a loop of } P \text{ such that } R^-(L, A) = \emptyset \},$$

$$floop_0(P, A) = \{ \neg a \mid a \in L \text{ for a loop } L \in loop_0(P, A) \}.$$

Then $loop_0(P, A)$ is the set of loops that do not have any external support rules under A, and $floop_0(P, A)$ is equivalent to the set of loop formulas of these loops. In particular, the set of loop formulas of loops without any external support rules is equivalent to $floop_0(P, \emptyset)$.

Similarly, we can consider the set of loops that have exactly one external support rule under a set A of literals, and the set of loop formulas of these loops:

$$loop_1(P, A) = \{L \mid L \text{ is a loop of } P \text{ such that } R^-(L, A) = \{r\}, \text{ for only one rule}$$

 $r \in P\},$

$$floop_1(P, A) = \{ \neg a \lor l \mid a \in L, l \in body(r), \text{ where } L \in loop_1(P, A) \text{ and } r \text{ is the} only external support rule of L under A \}.$$

In particular, $floop_1(P, \emptyset)$ is equivalent to the set of loop formulas of the loops that have exactly one external support rule in P.

Notice that if L is a loop of P without any external supports under A, then L is also an unfounded set of P w.r.t. A. However, the other way around is not true in general. An unfounded set does not need to be a loop. For instance, consider $P = \{a \leftarrow not b. \ b \leftarrow not a.\}$. There is no loops here. But $\{b\}$ is an unfounded set w.r.t. $A = \{a\}$. Furthermore, to our best knowledge, there is no corresponding notion to loops with exactly one external support in the literature on unfounded sets.

We now consider how to compute $floop_0(P, A)$ and $floop_1(P, A)$. We start with $floop_0(P, A)$. Let $ml_0(P, A)$ be the set of maximal loops that do not have any external support rules under A: a loop is in $ml_0(P, A)$ if it is a loop of P such that $R^-(L, A) = \emptyset$, and there does not exist any other such loop L' where $L \subset L'$. Clearly,

$$floop_0(P,A) = \bigcup_{L \in ml_0(P,A)} \overline{L}.$$

The following proposition is immediate:

PROPOSITION 3.1. Let P be a normal logic program and A a set of literals. If L_1 and L_2 are two loops of P that do not have any external support rules under A, and $L_1 \cap L_2 \neq \emptyset$, then $L_1 \cup L_2$ is also a loop of P that does not have any external support rules under A.

Thus for any normal logic program P, and $A \subseteq Lit(P)$, loops in $ml_0(P, A)$ are pair-wise disjoint. This means that there can only be at most |Atoms(P)| loops in $ml_0(P, A)$.

To compute $ml_0(P, A)$, consider G_P , the positive dependency graph of P. If L is a loop of P, then there must be a strongly connected component C of G_P such that $L \subseteq C$. For L to be in $ml_0(P, A)$, it is impossible that $L \subset C$ and

 $R^{-}(C, A) = \emptyset$, then there are two cases: either L = C and $R^{-}(C, A) = \emptyset$ or $L \subset C$, $R^{-}(C, A) \neq \emptyset$ and $R^{-}(L, A) = \emptyset$. If it is the latter, then for any $r \in R^{-}(C, A)$, it must be that $head(r) \notin L$, for otherwise, r must be in $R^{-}(L, A)$, a contradiction with $R^{-}(L, A) = \emptyset$. Thus if $R^{-}(C, A) \neq \emptyset$, then any subset of C that is in $ml_0(P, A)$ must also be a subset of $S = C \setminus \{head(r) \mid r \in R^{-}(C, A)\}$. Thus instead of G_P , we can recursively search the S induced subgraph of G_P . This motivates the following procedure for computing $ml_0(P, A)$.

 $\begin{aligned} ML_0(P,A) &:= ML_0(P,A,Atoms(P));\\ \textbf{Function } ML_0(P,A,S): \ P \ \text{a normal program}, \ A \ \text{and} \ S \ \text{sets of literals of} \ P\\ ML &:= \emptyset; \ G := \text{the } S \ \text{induced subgraph of} \ G_P;\\ \text{For each strongly connected component } L \ \text{of} \ G:\\ \quad \textbf{if} \ R^-(L,A) &= \emptyset \ \textbf{then} \ \text{add} \ L \ \text{to} \ ML;\\ \quad \textbf{else append} \ ML_0(P,A,L \setminus \{ \ head(r) \mid r \in R^-(L,A) \}) \ \text{to} \ ML;\\ \textbf{return} \ ML; \end{aligned}$

where G_P is the positive dependency graph of P.

From our discussions above, the following result is immediate.

THEOREM 3.2. For any normal logic program P, any $A \subseteq Lit(P)$, and any $C \subseteq Atoms(P)$, the above function $ML_0(P, A, C)$ returns the following set of loops:

 $\{L \mid L \subseteq C \text{ is a loop of } P \text{ such that } R^-(L, A) = \emptyset, \text{ and there does not} exist any other such loop L' such that <math>L \subset L'\}$

in $O(n^2)$, where n is the size of P as a set. Particularly, $ML_0(P, A) = ml_0(P, A)$.

We now consider the problem of computing $floop_1(P, A)$. For any rule r, let $ml_1(P, A, r)$ be the set of maximal loops of P that have r as their only external support rule under A: L is in $ml_1(P, A, r)$ if it is a loop of P such that $R^-(L, A) = \{r\}$ and there is no other such loop L' such that $L \subset L'$. Notice that this definition is meaningful only if r is a proper rule of P. If r is a constraint, then it can never be an external support rule of any loop, thus $ml_1(P, A, r) = \emptyset$. Now let

$$ml_1(P,A) = \bigcup_{r \in P} ml_1(P,A,r).$$

It is easy to see that loops in $ml_1(P, A, r)$ are pair-wise disjoint. Thus the size of $ml_1(P, A, r)$ is bounded by |Atoms(P)|, and $ml_1(P, A)$ by m |Atoms(P)|, where m is the number of proper rules in P.

It is easy to see that $floop_1(P, A)$ is the following set:

$$\bigcup_{L \in ml_1(P,A)} \{\neg a \lor l \mid a \in L, l \in body(r), R^-(L,A) = \{r\}\}.$$

Thus to compute $floop_1(P, A)$, we need to compute only $ml_1(P, A)$, and for the latter, we only need to compute $ml_1(P, A, r)$ for all proper rules $r \in P$ such that $\overline{A} \cap body(r) = \emptyset$. At first glance, this problem can be trivially reduced to that of computing $ml_0(P \setminus \{r\}, A)$, the set of maximal loops that do not have any external support rules under A in the program obtained from P by deleting r from it. However, while it is true that if $L \in ml_0(P \setminus \{r\}, A)$ and r is the only external

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support rule of L under A in P, then $L \in ml_1(P, A, r)$, the converse is not true in general.

c.

EXAMPLE 1. Consider the following logic program P:

$$\begin{array}{l} a \ \leftarrow \ b, \\ b \ \leftarrow \ a. \\ b \ \leftarrow \ c. \\ c \ \leftarrow \ b. \end{array}$$

It is easy to see that $ml_1(P, \emptyset, b \leftarrow c) = \{\{a, b\}\}, but ml_0(P \setminus \{b \leftarrow c\}, \emptyset) = \{\{a, b, c\}\}.$

We do not yet know any efficient way of computing $ml_1(P, A, r)$, but for the purpose of computing $floop_1(P, A) \cup floop_0(P, A)$, $ml_0(P \setminus \{r\}, A)$ is enough.

PROPOSITION 3.3. For any normal logic program P and a set A of literals, $floop_0(P, A)$ implies that $floop_1(P, A)$ is equivalent to the following theory

$$\bigcup_{\overline{A} \cap body(r) = \emptyset, \ L \in ml_0(P \setminus \{r\}, A)} \{ \neg a \lor l \mid a \in L, l \in body(r) \}.$$

$$(7)$$

Note that, we have proved that $floop_0(P, A) \cup floop_1(P, A)$ is logically equivalent to $floop_0(P, A) \cup (7)$. From the proof we can see that, if a binary clause $C \in floop_1(P, A)$ is not entailed by $floop_0(P, A)$ then C is in (7), and if a binary clause $C' \in (7)$ is not entailed by $floop_0(P, A)$ then C is in $floop_1(P, A)$, thus $UP(floop_0(P, A) \cup floop_1(P, A)) = UP(floop_0(P, A) \cup (7))$.

So to summarize, for normal logic programs, to compute $floop_0(P, A) \cup floop_1(P, A)$, we first compute $ml_0(P, A)$, and then for each proper rule $r \in P$ such that $\overline{A} \cap$ $body(r) = \emptyset$, we compute $ml_0(P \setminus \{r\}, A)$. The worst case complexity of this procedure is $O(n^3)$, where n is the size of P. There are a lot of redundancies in this procedure as described here as the computations of $ml_0(P, A)$ and $ml_0(P \setminus \{r\}, A)$ overlap a lot. These redundancies can and should be eliminated in the actual implementation.

3.2 Computing Consequences of a Normal Logic Program

By Lin and Zhao's theorem on loop formulas, logical consequences of $comp(P) \cup floop_0(P, A) \cup floop_1(P, A)$ are also consequences of P. Since comp(P) and $floop_0(P, A) \cup floop_1(P, A)$ can all be computed in polynomial time, with a polynomial time inference rule, we thus get a polynomial time algorithm for computing some consequences of a logic program. In this paper, we consider using UP, the unit propagation.

Consider first loops without any external support rules. When \vdash_P is unit propagation UP, and the loop formulas are those from ML_0 (maximal loops with no external support), the iterative procedure given in Introduction becomes the following one:

Function $T_0(P)$: P is a logic program $X := \emptyset; Y := comp(P) \cup \{ \text{ loop formulas of loops in } ML_0(P, \emptyset) \};$ while $X \neq UP(Y)$ do $X := UP(Y); Y := Y \cup \{ \text{ loop formulas of loops in } ML_0(P, X) \};$

return $X \cap Lit(P)$;

Note that, function $T_0(P)$ returns consequences of a program P and comp(P) may contain extra variables when the completion is converted to clauses, thus $\cap Lit(P)$ is needed for the return of the function.

Formally, the above procedure computes the least fixed point of the following operator:

$$f(X) = UP(comp(P) \cup X \cup floop_0(P, X)) \cap Lit(P).$$
(8)

As it turns out, this least fixed point is essentially the well-founded model when the given normal logic program has no constraints. This means that, surprisingly perhaps, the well-founded models amount to repeatedly applying unit propagation to the program completion and loop formulas of loops that do not have any "applicable" external support rules. In general, for normal logic programs that may have constraints, the least fixed point of the above operator is essentially $Expand(P, \emptyset)$ in smodels [Simons et al. 2002; Baral 2003]. More generally, given a set A of literals, Expand(P, A) corresponds to the least fixed point of the following operator:

$$U_A^P(X) = UP(comp(P) \cup A \cup X \cup floop_0(P, X)) \cap Lit(P).$$
(9)

Clearly the function T_0 can start from A, we only need to replace $X := \emptyset$ by X := A in the procedure, then computes the least fixed point of U_A^P .

Now if we add in $floop_1(P, A)$, a more powerful operator can be defined:

$$T_A^P(X) = UP(comp(P) \cup A \cup X \cup floop_0(P, X) \cup floop_1(P, X)) \cap Lit(P).$$

In the following, we denote by $T_1(P, A)$ the least fixed point of the operator T_A^P . Clearly, $U_A^P(X) \subseteq T_A^P(X)$, and the least fixed point of U_A^P , denoted by $T_0(P, A)$ (in particular, $T_0(P, \emptyset) = T_0(P)$), is contained in $T_1(P, A)$, the least fixed point of T_A^P . The following example shows that the containments can be proper.

EXAMPLE 2. Consider the following logic program P:

$$\begin{array}{l} x \leftarrow not \ e. \\ e \leftarrow not \ x. \\ n \leftarrow x. \\ n \leftarrow m. \\ m \leftarrow n. \\ \leftarrow not \ n. \end{array}$$

Clearly, $x \in T_1(P, \emptyset)$ but $x \notin T_0(P, \emptyset)$.

PROPOSITION 3.4. Let P be a normal logic program and A a set of literals in P. If S is an answer set of P that satisfies A, then S also satisfies $T_1(P, A)$.

Notice that $T_1(P, A)$, the least fixed point of the operator T_A^P , can be computed by an iterative procedure like the one described in Introduction.

3.3 Expand in smodels

We mentioned that the least fixed point of our operator U_A^P defined by (9) coincides with the output of the *Exappd* operator used in smodels. We now make this precise.

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Our following presentation of the *Expand* operator in smodels follows that in [Baral 2003].

Given a normal logic program P and a set A of literals, the goal of Expand(P, A) is to extend A as much as possible and as efficiently as possible so that all answer sets of P that agree with A also agree with Expand(P, A). It is defined in terms of two functions named Atleast(P, A) and Atmost(P, A). They form the lower and upper bound of what can be derived from the program P based on A in the sense that those in Atleast(P, A) must be in and those not in Atmost(P, A) must be out. Formally, Expand(P, A) is defined to be the least fixed point of the following operator:

$$E_A^P(X) = Atleast(P, A \cup X) \cup \overline{Atoms(P) \setminus Atmost(P, A \cup X)}.$$
 (10)

The function Atleast(P, A) is defined as the least fixed point of the operator F_A^P defined as follows:

$$F_1(P,X) = \{ a \in Atoms(P) \mid \text{ there is a rule } r \text{ in } P \text{ such that } a = head(r) \text{ and } X \models body(r) \},$$

$$F_2(P,X) = \{ \neg a \mid a \in Atoms(P) \text{ and for all } r \in P, \text{ if } a = head(r), \text{ then} \\ X \models \neg body(r) \},$$

- $F_3(P,X) = \{ x \mid \text{ there exists an atom } a \in X \text{ such that there is only one rule } r \\ \text{ in } P \text{ such that } a = head(r), x \in body(r), \text{ and } X \nvDash \neg body(r) \},$
- $F_4(P,X) = \{ \bar{x} \mid \text{ there exists } \neg a \in X \text{ such that there is a rule } r \text{ in } P \text{ such that } a = head(r) \text{ and } X \cup \{x\} \models body(r) \},$

$$F_5(P,X) = \begin{cases} Lit(P) & \text{if } X \text{ is inconsistent,} \\ \emptyset & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

$$F_A^P(X) = A \cup X \cup F_1(P, X) \cup F_2(P, X) \cup F_3(P, X) \cup F_4(P, X) \cup F_5(P, X).$$

where $X \models body(r)$ if $body(r) \subseteq X$, and $X \models \neg body(r)$ if $\overline{X} \cap body(r) \neq \emptyset$.

The function Atmost(P, A) is defined as the least fixed point of the following operator G_A^P :

$$G_A^P(X) = \{ a \mid \text{there is a rule } r \in P \text{ such that } head(r) = a, X \setminus A^- \models body^+(r), \\ \text{and } body^-(r) \cap A^+ = \emptyset \} \setminus A^-,$$

where $A^+ = \{a \mid a \text{ is an atom and } a \in A\}$, and $A^- = \{a \mid a \text{ is an atom and } \neg a \in A\}$.

In the following, a normal program P is said to be *simplified* if for any rule $r \in P$, $head(r) \notin body^+(r) \cup body^-(r)$. Notice that any normal logic program is strongly equivalent to a simplified normal logic program: if $head(r) \in body^+(r)$, then $\{r\}$ is strongly equivalent to the empty set, thus can be safely deleted from any logic program, and if $head(r) \in body^-(r)$, then $\{r\}$ is strongly equivalent to $\{\leftarrow body(r)\}$ (cf. [Lin and Chen 2007]).

The following theorem relates $T_0(P, A)$ and Expand(P, A). The proof is given in Appendix.

THEOREM 3.5. For any normal logic program P, and any set $A \subseteq Lit(P)$. Expand $(P, A) \subseteq T_0(P, A)$. If P is simplified, then $Expand(P, A) = T_0(P, A)$.

As we mentioned, if P has no constraint, then $Expand(P, \emptyset)$ is the same as the well-founded model of P [Baral 2003]. Thus for simplified logic programs, the well-founded model can be computed by a bottom-up procedure using unit propagation on sets of clauses from the program completion and the loop formulas of the loops that do not have any external support rules.

The following example shows that if P has a rule such as $p \leftarrow not p$, T_0 may be stronger than *Expand*.

EXAMPLE 3. Consider the following program P:

Clearly, $T_0(P, \emptyset) = \{f, q, \neg p\}$, but $Expand(P, \emptyset) = \emptyset$.

3.4 Some Experiments

We have implemented a system² that for any given normal logic program P, first computes $T_1(P, \emptyset)$, and then adds the following set of constraints: $\{ \leftarrow \bar{l} \mid l \in T_1(P, \emptyset) \}$ to P. Clearly, adding the above constraints to P does not change the answer sets. The effectiveness of this strategy obviously depends on the underlying ASP solver as well as whether the consequences computed by our system are "new" to the ASP solver.

For the normal logic programs used at the First Answer Set Programming System Competition³, our system does not return anything beyond the well-founded model of P. Thus for these programs, our system does not add anything new. This does not mean that our system is not suitable for these benchmark problems. A typical logic program has variables, and the instances that are used to ground these variables are often important in determining the hardness of the grounded logic program. Niemelä's encoding of the Hamiltonian Circuit (HC) problem is used in the competition as well, but the graphs used are all generated randomly. As we shall see next, when the graphs have some specific structures which occur in many practical problems, our system can speed up the current ASP solvers on these problems significantly.

For Niemelä's encoding of the HC problem in [Niemelä 1999]. Instead of randomly generated graphs, we consider graphs that represent networks consisting of sets of components that are densely connected inside but have only a few connections among them. These networks are ubiquitous. Examples include countries consisting of big cities that are connected by only a few highways, cities consisting of populated neighborhoods that are connected by a few "main roads", and circuits that are often composed of components that are highly connected inside but have only a few connections between them.

²Our implementation is available on the web http://www.cs.ust.hk/cloop/. The current implementation is significantly more efficient that the one reported in our KR'08 paper [Chen et al. 2008].

³http://asparagus.cs.uni-potsdam.de/contest/

Table 1. Run-time Data for Normai Logic 1 lograms.					
Problem	cmodels	$cmodels_{T_1}$	clasp	$clasp_{T_1}$	T_1
10x10	9.93	0.70	0.07	0.05	0.29
10x20	18.24	2.50	0.24	0.13	0.63
10x30	38.66	5.16	0.57	0.25	1.03
10x40	85.15	7.98	1.05	0.38	1.52
10x50	73.31	14.12	2.10	0.48	1.97
15x10	586.57	5.42	0.46	0.19	1.02
15x20	>2h	12.62	1.24	0.52	2.26
15x30	>2h	25.07	6.46	0.68	3.64
15x40	>2h	45.24	100.80	1.58	5.47
15x50	>2h	72.09	234.00	2.33	7.14
20x10	2080.62	19.62	0.73	0.44	2.47
20x20	>2h	67.38	25.04	1.19	5.59
20x30	>2h	147.72	85.82	2.81	8.85
20x40	>2h	219.62	465.13	4.36	13.01
20x50	>2h	352.35	2940.28	6.20	17.36

Table I. Run-time Data for Normal Logic Programs.

To simplify things a bit, we model these networks by graphs consisting of some complete subgraphs that are connected by a few arcs between them. Specifically, we consider graphs of the form MxN: a graph with N copies of the complete graph with M nodes, C_1, \ldots, C_N , and with exactly one arc from C_i to C_{i+1} and exactly one arc from C_{i+1} to C_i , for each $1 \le i \le N$ (C_{N+1} is defined to be C_1).

Clearly, a graph of the form MxN has a Hamiltonian circuit, and each such circuit must go through the arcs connecting the complete subgraphs. Furthermore, all except for one of the "must-in" arcs can be computed by $T_1(P, \emptyset)$, thus adding their corresponding constraints to P should help ASP solvers in computing the answer sets. This is confirmed by our experiments.

Table I contains the running times for these Hamiltonian Circuit programs.⁴ For each MxN entry in the table, we randomly created 20 different such graphs (two MxN graphs may differ on which arcs are chosen to connect two neighboring complete subgraphs), and the times reported in the table refers the average times for the resulting 20 programs. The programs are first grounded by gringo (version 3.0.1 [2007])⁵, then computed by different ASP solvers. The numbers under "cmodels_{T1}" and "clasp_{T1}" refers to the run times (in seconds) of cmodels (version 3.79 [2006]) and clasp (version 1.3.4 [2007]) when the results from $T_1(P, \emptyset)$ are added to the original program as constraints, and those under " T_1 " are the run times of our program for computing $T_1(P, \emptyset)$. As can be seen, information from $T_1(P, \emptyset)$ makes both cmodels and clasp run much faster when looking for an answer set.

In addition to cmodels and clasp, we also tried DLV (Oct 11 2007 [2006]) and smodels (version 2.34). DLV did not return in 2 hours (including grounding times) for most of the 10x2 graphs, but returned an answer set under 0.1 second when the

 $^{^4\}rm Our$ experiments were done on a 4×AMD Opteron 844 (1.8GHz) CPU and 8GB RAM. The reported times are in CPU seconds as reported by Linux "/usr/bin/time" command.

 $^{^5{\}rm The}$ result is similar when programs are grounded by Lparse (version 1.1.2) in http://www.tcs.hut.fi/Software/smodels/.

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results from $T_1(P, \emptyset)$ were added.

Our experiences with smodels are especially interesting and informative. Similar to DLV, smodels performed badly even on the smallest graphs that we tried. However, adding consequences from $T_1(P, \emptyset)$ did not help either. This is actually to be expected as smodels applies the *Lookahead* operator, and whatever that can be computed by $T_1(P, \emptyset)$ can also be computed by the *Lookahead* operator⁶. It is not easy to modify smodels by taking out the *Lookahead* operator. But clasp has an option to turn on an operator like this one, and we were surprised to find out that once this option was turned on, clasp became much slower. For instance, it took an hour for it to return an answer set for most of the 20x30 graphs.

We can only hypothesize why smodels performed badly on these programs, and why clasp performed almost just as badly when its lookahead option is turned on. Whatever the reasons are, it is clear that an operator like lookahead should be applied selectively. A similar discussion is given in [Liu and You 2007]. Our system computes $T_1(P, \emptyset)$ once as a pre-processing step, and the results help cmodels and clasp on logic programs that contain certain crucial "must-in" rules. It is an interesting question how to integrate this procedure into search by applying it when a search decision lead to a logic program that contains some crucial "must-in" rules. Of course, the difficult part is to figure out which program has this property.

We remark here that the crucial feature of the graphs that we consider here is that they consist of sets of subgraphs that are densely connected inside but with a single path linking them together. Whether the subgraphs are identical copies of a complete graph is not important. Furthermore, while our experiments were done on the Hamiltonian Circuit problem, they should carry over to any logic programs whose positive dependency graphs have a similar structures. As we mentioned above, these structures are ubiquitous in practical problems. When these problems are modeled by logic programs, the dependency graphs of these programs will reflect the structures as well.

Finally, in retrospect it is not surprising that the consequences computed and added to the input program speeds up the current ASP solvers. These new consequences are from loops with exactly one external support rule. These external support rules are crucial as they must be used in computing an answer set. In a sense, these new consequences are like "backbones" in SAT. Once they are added to the input, a big search space is pruned.

4. COMPUTING LOOPS WITH AT MOST ONE EXTERNAL SUPPORT FOR DIS-JUNCTIVE LOGIC PROGRAMS

In the previous section, we show that for normal logic programs, loop formulas of loops with at most one external support rule can be computed in polynomial time, and an iterative procedure based on these formulas, the program completion, and unit propagation computes consequences of the program which can help ASP solvers to find answer sets of certain logic programs.

In this section we tend to extend these results to disjunctive logic programs. We consider first these loops can be computed in disjunctive logic programs.

⁶Literals in $T_1(P, \emptyset)$ are consequences of P, clearly, they can be computed from Lookahead.

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4.1 Loops with No External Support

It is easy to see that if a loop L has no external support rules, i.e. $R^{-}(L) = \emptyset$, then its loop formula (6) is equivalent to $\bigwedge_{p \in L} \neg p$, if L has only one external support rule, i.e. $R^{-}(L) = \{r\}$, then its loop formulas (6) is equivalent to

$$\bigwedge_{p \in L} \neg p \lor \left(body(r) \land \bigwedge_{q \in head(r) \backslash L} \neg q \right),$$

which will be equivalent to a set of binary clauses.

More generally, if we already know that A is a set of literals that are true in all answer sets, then for any loop L that has no external support rules whose body is *active* under A w.r.t. L, its loop formula is still equivalent to a set of literals under A. A rule r is *active* under A w.r.t. L if $\overline{A} \cap body(r) = \emptyset$ and $A \cap (head(r) \setminus L) = \emptyset$.

Thus we extend the notion of external support rules, and have it conditioned on a given set of literals. Let P be a disjunctive logic program, and A a set of literals. We say that a rule r is an *external support rule of* L *under* A if $r \in R^{-}(L)$ is active under A w.r.t. L. In the following, we denote by $R^{-}(L, A)$ the set of external support rules of L under A.

Given a disjunctive logic program P and a set A of literals, similar to normal logic programs, we define

 $loop_0(P, A) = \{ L \mid L \text{ is a loop of } P \text{ such that } R^-(L, A) = \emptyset \},$ $floop_0(P, A) = \{ \neg a \mid a \in L \text{ for a loop } L \in loop_0(P, A) \}.$

We now consider how to compute $floop_0(P, A)$ for disjunctive logic programs. It is shown that $floop_0(P, A)$ can be computed in quadratic time for normal logic programs. However, for disjunctive logic programs, the problem is NP-hard in the general case.

PROPOSITION 4.1. Given a disjunctive logic program P, a set A of literals, and an atom a, deciding whether $\neg a \in floop_0(P, A)$ is NP-complete.

Fortunately, if the set A is unfounded-free⁷, then $floop_0(P, A)$ can be computed in quadratic time. As we shall see, this restriction is enough for computing consequences of a logic program using the procedure outlined in Introduction when the inference rule is unit propagation and the class of loops is that of loops without external support.

Our algorithm below for computing $floop_0(P, A)$ is similar to the corresponding one for normal programs, and is through maximal loops.

For a disjunctive logic program P, let $ml_0(P, A)$ be the set of maximal loops that do not have any external support rules under A. Clearly,

$$floop_0(P,A) = \bigcup_{L \in ml_0(P,A)} \overline{L}.$$

If P is a normal logic program, loops in $ml_0(P, A)$ are pair-wise disjoint. For disjunctive logic programs the property is not true in general, this is the reason

⁷Recall that A is unfounded-free if $A \cap X = \emptyset$ for each unfounded set X of P w.r.t. A.

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that $floop_0(P, A)$ is intractable. However, if A is unfounded-free, then loops in $ml_0(P, A)$ are pair-wise disjoint. This follows from the following proposition:

PROPOSITION 4.2. Let P be a disjunctive logic program, A be a set of literals such that $A \cap (L_1 \cup L_2) = \emptyset$. If L_1 and L_2 are two loops of P that do not have any external support rules under A, and $L_1 \cap L_2 \neq \emptyset$, then $L_1 \cup L_2$ is also a loop of P that does not have any external support rules under A.

The following example shows that the condition $A \cap (L_1 \cup L_2) = \emptyset$ in Proposition 4.2 is necessary.

EXAMPLE 4. Consider the following disjunctive logic program P:

a

$$egin{array}{cccc} & \lor b \lor c \leftarrow & . & \ a \leftarrow & b, & c. & \ b \leftarrow & a. & \ c \leftarrow & a. & \end{array}$$

Let $A = \{b, c\}$, $L_1 = \{a, b\}$ and $L_2 = \{a, c\}$. L_1 and L_2 are belong to $loop_0(P, A)$, but $L_1 \cup L_2 = \{a, b, c\}$ is a loop of P that has one external support under A.

Now consider the following algorithm:

 $\begin{aligned} ML_0(P,A) &:= ML_0(P,A,Atoms(P)); \\ \textbf{Function } ML_0(P,A,S) &: P \text{ a disjunctive program, } A \text{ and } S \text{ sets of literals of } P \\ ML &:= \emptyset; G &:= \text{the } S \text{ induced subgraph of } G_P; \\ \text{For each strongly connected component } L \text{ of } G &: \\ \textbf{if } R^-(L,A) &= \emptyset \textbf{ then } \text{ add } L \text{ to } ML; \\ \textbf{else append } ML_0(P,A,L \setminus \bigcup_{r \in R^-(L,A)} H(r,A)) \text{ to } ML; \\ \textbf{return } ML; \end{aligned}$

where G_P is the positive dependency graph of P, and

 $H(r,A) = \begin{cases} head(r) & \text{if } head(r) \cap A = \emptyset \\ head(r) \cap A & \text{if } head(r) \cap A \neq \emptyset. \end{cases}$

Specially, $ML_0(P, A)$ is a short term for $ML_0(P, A, Atoms(P))$. Note that, if P is a normal logic program, then the algorithm presented here is the same as the corresponding algorithm for normal logic programs.

Similarly, we have the following theorem.

THEOREM 4.3. Let P be a disjunctive logic program, A and S sets of literals in P.

(1) The function $ML_0(P, A, S)$ runs in $O(n^2)$, where n is the size of P as a set.

- (2) $ML_0(P, A) \subseteq loop_0(P, A).$
- (3) If A is unfounded-free, then $ML_0(P, A) = ml_0(P, A)$.

4.2 Loops with at Most One External Support

Similarly, for disjunctive logic programs, we can consider the set of loops that have exactly one external support rule under a set A of literals, and the set of loop

formulas of these loops:

 $loop_1(P,A) = \{ L \mid L \text{ is a loop of } P \text{ such that } R^-(L,A) = \{r\}, \text{ for only one rule } r \in P \},$ $floop_1(P,A) = \{ \neg a \lor l \mid a \in L, l \in body(r) \cup \overline{head(r) \setminus L}, \text{ where } L \in loop_1(P,A) \}$

 $floop_1(P, A) = \{ \neg a \lor l \mid a \in L, l \in body(r) \cup head(r) \setminus L, \text{ where } L \in loop_1(P, A) \\ \text{and } r \text{ is the only external support rule of } L \text{ under } A \}.$

Like $floop_0(P, A)$, $floop_1(P, A)$ can be computed in polynomial time for normal logic programs, but for disjunctive logic programs, it is intractable.

PROPOSITION 4.4. Given a disjunctive logic program P, a set A of literals, an atom a, and a literal l, deciding whether $\neg a \lor l \in floop_1(P, A)$ is NP-complete.

While there is a polynomial algorithm for computing $floop_0(P, A)$ when A is unfounded-free, this is not the case for $floop_1(P, A)$. Proposition 4.4 holds even when we restrict A to be unfounded-free.

Notice that for normal logic programs, the complexity of $floop_1(P, A)$ is left as an open question. Instead, a polynomial algorithm is proposed for computing $floop_0(P, A) \cup floop_1(P, A)^8$, which corresponds to the set of loop formulas of loops with at most one external support. For disjunctive logic programs, $floop_0(P, A) \cup$ $floop_1(P, A)$ is still intractable even when A is unfounded-free⁹.

Given this negative results about computing loop formulas of loops with at most one external support in disjunctive logic programs, we turn our attention to polynomial algorithms that can compute as many loop formulas from $floop_0(P, A) \cup$ $floop_1(P, A)$ as possible. We propose one such approximation algorithm below. It is based on the observation that if a loop has one external support rule, then it often has no external support when this rule is deleted. This would reduce the problem of computing loops with one external support rule to that of loops with no external support, and for the latter we can use the function $ML_0(P, A, S)$ when A is unfounded-free (Theorem 4.3).

PROPOSITION 4.5. For any disjunctive logic program P and a set A of literals that is unfounded-free for P. $floop_0(P, A)$ and $floop_1(P, A)$ imply the following theory

$$\bigcup_{\overline{A} \cap body(r) = \emptyset, \ L \in ML_0(P \setminus \{r\}, A)} \{ \neg a \lor l \mid a \in L, l \in body(r) \cup \overline{head(r) \setminus L} \}.$$
(11)

In the following, we use $FLoop_1(P, A)$ to denote (11). Note that, if P is a normal logic program, then $floop_0(P, A) \cup FLoop_1(P, A)$ is equivalent to $floop_0(P, A) \cup (7)$. According to Proposition 3.3, if P is a normal logic program, then $floop_0(P, A) \cup floop_1(P, A)$ is equivalent to $floop_0(P, A) \cup FLoop_1(P, A)$ for any A. However, for

⁸Not exactly this set, but $floop_0(P, A) \cup (7)$, which is logically equivalent to $floop_0(P, A) \cup floop_1(P, A)$, and especially $UP(floop_0(P, A) \cup (7)) = UP(floop_0(P, A) \cup floop_1(P, A))$.

⁹For disjunctive logic programs, deciding whether a literal $l \in UP(floop_0(P, A) \cup floop_1(P, A))$ where A is unfounded-free, is NP-hard. Note that, we can use the translation proposed in the proof of Proposition 4.4 to reduce the SAT problem to it.

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disjunctive logic programs, these two formulas are not equivalent, even when A is unfounded-free, as the following example illustrates.

EXAMPLE 5. Consider the following logic program P:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} a \lor b \lor c \ \leftarrow \ d. \\ a \ \leftarrow \ b, c. \\ b \ \leftarrow \ a. \\ c \ \leftarrow \ b. \end{array}$$

Let $A = \emptyset$, $loop_1(P, A) = \{ \{a, b, c\}, \{a, b\} \}$, both loops have one external support rule: $a \lor b \lor c \leftarrow d$, thus $\neg a \lor \neg c, \neg b \lor \neg c \in floop_1(P, A)$, but they can not be computed from $FLoop_1(P, A)^{10}$.

So to summarize, for disjunctive logic programs, while we can not efficiently compute $floop_0(P, A) \cup floop_1(P, A)$, we can compute $floop_0(P, A) \cup FLoop_1(P, A)$ which is still helpful for computing consequences of a logic program. To compute $floop_0(P, A) \cup FLoop_1(P, A)$, we first call $ML_0(P, A)$, and then for each proper rule $r \in P$ such that $\overline{A} \cap body(r) = \emptyset$, we call $ML_0(P \setminus \{r\}, A)$. The worse case complexity of this procedure is $O(n^3)$, where n is the size of P.

4.3 Computing Consequences of a Disjunctive Logic Program

Let's now consider computing consequences of a disjunctive logic program using the loop formulas computed in last subsection.

Consider the iterative procedure given in Introduction. When \vdash_P is unit propagation UP, and the loop formulas are those from ML_0 (for disjunctive logic programs), it tends to be the same as the function T_0 presented in Section 3.

Clearly $T_0(P)$ runs in polynomial time and returns a set of consequences of a disjunctive logic program P. It is easy to see that at each iteration, the set Xcomputed by the procedure is also a set of consequences of P. Thus by the following proposition and Theorem 4.3, if P has at least one answer set, then at each iteration, the set of literals added to the set of loop formulas of loops in $ML_0(P, X)$, equals to $floop_0(P, X)$, the set of loop formulas with no external support under X.

PROPOSITION 4.6. Let P be a disjunctive logic program that has an answer set. If A is a set of literals that are consequences of P, then A is unfounded-free for P.

Similarly, using $floop_0(P, A) \cup floop_1(P, A)$, we get the following procedure:

Function $T^1(P)$: P is a disjunctive logic program $X := \emptyset; Y := comp(P) \cup floop_0(P, \emptyset) \cup floop_1(P, \emptyset);$ while $X \neq UP(Y)$ do $X := UP(Y); Y := Y \cup floop_0(P, X) \cup floop_1(P, X);$ return $X \cap Lit(P);$

Again it is easy to see that at each iteration, X is a set of consequences of P, and in particular, $T^{1}(P)$ returns a set of consequences of P. For normal logic

¹⁰Note that, let $r = a \lor b \lor c \leftarrow d$., $ML_0(P \setminus \{r\}, A) = \{\{a, b, c\}\}$ and $\{a, b\}$ is not a maximal loop without external support rules in $P \setminus \{r\}$.

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programs, by Proposition 3.3, $floop_0(P, A) \cup floop_1(P, A)$ can be computed in polynomial time, thus $T^1(P)$ runs in polynomial time. For disjunctive logic programs, as we have shown in the previous subsection, even for unfounded-free A, computing $floop_0(P, A) \cup floop_1(P, A)$ is intractable. Thus we cannot show that the above procedure is polynomial. However, this still leaves open the question of whether $T^1(P)$ can be computed by some other methods that hopefully can be shown to run in polynomial time. Unfortunately, this does not seem to be likely as we can show that computing $T^1(P)$ is also intractable.

PROPOSITION 4.7. For any disjunctive logic program P, deciding whether a literal is in $T^1(P)$ is NP-hard.

In the last subsection, we propose to use $FLoop_1(P, A)$ as a polynomial approximation of $floop_1(P, A)$. We can thus make use of this operator:

Function $T_1(P)$: P is a disjunctive logic program $X := \emptyset; Y := comp(P) \cup floop_0(P, \emptyset) \cup FLoop_1(P, \emptyset);$ while $X \neq UP(Y)$ do $X := UP(Y); Y := Y \cup floop_0(P, X) \cup FLoop_1(P, X);$ return $X \cap Lit(P);$

This is the function that we have implemented and used in our experiments. See Section 4.5 for details.

4.4 Related Work

Here we relate $T_0(P)$ for disjunctive program P to the preprocessing procedure in DLV [Leone et al. 2006] and the well-founded semantics of disjunctive programs proposed by Wang and Zhou [2005].

4.4.1 *DLV preprocessing operator.* We now show that $T_0(P)$ coincides with the least fixed point of the operator W_P used in DLV for preprocessing a given disjunctive logic program. First, we show that the greatest unfounded set of a disjunctive logic program (if exists) can be computed from loop formulas of loops that have no external support rules.

Given a disjunctive logic program P and A a set of literals. We use M(P, A) to denote the least fixed point of the operator M_P^A defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} loop_0^A(P,X) &= \{ a \mid \text{ there is a loop } L \text{ of } P \text{ s.t. } a \in L \text{ and } R^-(L,A\cup X) = \emptyset \}, \\ F_2^A(P,X) &= \{ a \mid a \in Atoms(P) \text{ and for all } r \in P, \text{ if } a \in head(r) \text{ then} \\ \overline{A} \cap body(r) \neq \emptyset, X \cap body(r) \neq \emptyset, \text{ or } (head(r) \setminus \{a\}) \cap A \neq \emptyset \}, \\ M_P^A(X) &= X \cup loop_0^A(P,X) \cup F_2^A(P,X). \end{aligned}$$

THEOREM 4.8. For any disjunctive logic program P and any $A \subseteq Lit(P)$ such that the greatest unfounded set of P w.r.t. A exists. $M(P, A) = GUS_P(A)$.

From the above theorem, we can compute $GUS_P(A)$ by M(P, A). We do not yet know any efficient way of computing $loop_0(P, A)$ for any possible A, but if A is restricted to be unfounded-free, then $GUS_P(A)$ always exists, and $loop_0^A(P, X) = \bigcup_{L \in ML_0(P, A \cup \overline{X})} L$, which can be computed in polynomial time. Furthermore, $F_2^A(P, X)$ can be computed in linear time. So, if A is unfounded-free, we have proposed a

loop-oriented approach for computing $GUS_P(A)$ in polynomial time. Note that, different from other current approaches, $GUS_P(A)$ is computed directly here, avoiding the computation of the complement of it.

Now we introduce the W_P operator proposed in [Leone et al. 1997].

$$\mathcal{T}_P(X) = \{ a \in Atoms(P) \mid \text{ there is a rule } r \in P \text{ such that } a \in head(r), \\ head(r) \setminus \{a\} \subseteq \overline{X}, \text{ and } body(r) \subseteq X \}, \\ \mathcal{W}_P(X) = \mathcal{T}_P(X) \cup \overline{GUS_P(X)}.$$

From Proposition 5.6 in [Leone et al. 1997], \mathcal{W}_P has a least fixed point, denoted $\mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$, is the consequence of the program. $\mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$ can also be computed efficiently, thus it is considered as a good start point to compute answer sets and is implemented in DLV.

In the following, a disjunctive logic program P is said to be simplified if for any $r \in P$, $head(r) \cap (body^+(r) \cup body^-(r)) = \emptyset$. Notice that any disjunctive logic program is strongly equivalent to a simplified program: if $head(r) \cap body^+(r) \neq \emptyset$, then $\{r\}$ is strongly equivalent to the empty set, thus can be safely deleted from any logic program, and if $head(r) \cap body^-(r) \neq \emptyset$, then $\{r\}$ is strongly equivalent to $\{r'\}$ such that $head(r') = head(r) \setminus body^-(r)$ and body(r') = body(r) (cf. [Lin and Chen 2007]). Clearly, if P is a normal program, the notion of simplified defined here coincides with the one in the previous subsection.

The following theorem relates $T_0(P)$ and $\mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$.

THEOREM 4.9. For any disjunctive logic program $P, W_P^{\omega}(\emptyset) \subseteq T_0(P)$. If P is simplified and without constraints, then $W_P^{\omega}(\emptyset) = T_0(P)$.

Note that, [Leone et al. 1997] proved that, if P does not contain constraints, $\mathcal{W}_{P}^{\omega}(\emptyset)$ coincides with the well-founded model of a normal logic program P' obtained by "shifting" some head atoms to the bodies of the rules. Thus, if P is simplified and without constraints, then $T_{0}(P)$ coincides with the well-founded model of P' as well.

Given a disjunctive logic program P, we denote by sh(P) the normal program obtained from P by substituting every rule of form (2) by the k rules

$$a_i \leftarrow a_{k+1}, \dots, a_m, \text{not } a_{m+1}, \dots, \text{not } a_n, \text{not } a_1, \dots, \text{not } a_{i-1}, \text{not } a_{i+1}, \dots, \text{not } a_k.$$

$$(1 \le i \le k)$$

It is worth to note that, $FLoop_1(sh(P), A)$ may be not a consequence of a disjunctive logic program, even when A is unfounded-free for P or sh(P).

EXAMPLE 6. Consider the following logic program P:

$$d \leftarrow not e.$$

$$e \leftarrow not d.$$

$$a \lor c \leftarrow d.$$

$$a \lor b \leftarrow e.$$

$$a \leftarrow b.$$

$$b \leftarrow a.$$

$$\leftarrow not a.$$

 $\leftarrow not \, b.$

Clearly, $\{a, b, d\}$ and $\{a, b, e\}$ are the only two answer sets of P, $\{a, b, d\}$ is the only answer set of sh(P). Let $A = \{a, b\}$, A is unfounded-free for P and sh(P). $\neg a \lor d \in FLoop_1(sh(P), A)$ which is false for $\{a, b, e\}$, thus not a consequence of P.

A disjunctive logic program P is *head-cycle free*, if there does not exist a loop L and a rule r, s.t. $a, b \in L$ and $a, b \in head(r)$. If P is head-cycle free, then a set of atoms is an answer of P iff it is an answer set of sh(P).

PROPOSITION 4.10. For any head-cycle free disjunctive logic program P and a set A of literals:

$$ml_{0}(P,A) = ML_{0}(P,A) = ML_{0}(sh(P),A),$$

$$FLoop_{1}(P,A) = \bigcup_{\substack{\overline{A} \cap body(r) = \emptyset, \\ L \in ML_{0}(sh(P \setminus \{r\}),A)}} \{ \neg a \lor l \mid a \in L, l \in body(r) \cup \overline{head(r) \setminus L} \},$$

and $floop_0(P, A)$ implies that $floop_1(P, A)$ is equivalent to $FLoop_1(P, A)$.

4.4.2 Wang and Zhou's well-founded semantics for disjunctive logic programs. Theorem 3.5 states that T_0 computes the well-founded model when the given normal logic program is simplified and has no constraints. However, there have been several competing proposals for extending the well-founded semantics to disjunctive logic programs [Leone et al. 1997; Brass and Dix 1999; Wang and Zhou 2005]. It is interesting that with a slight change of unit propagation, the procedure computes the same results as the well-founded semantics proposed in [Wang and Zhou 2005]. We now make this precise, first, we give one of the definitions of the well-founded semantics proposed by Wang and Zhou.

Given a disjunctive logic program P, a positive (negative) disjunction is a disjunction of atoms (negative literals) of P. A pure disjunction is either a positive one or a negative one. If A and $B = A \vee A'$ are two disjunctions, then we say Ais a subdisjunction of B, denoted $A \subseteq B$. Let S be a set of pure disjunctions, we say body(r) of $r \in P$ is true w.r.t. S, denoted $S \models body(r)$, if $body(r) \subseteq S$; body(r) is false w.r.t. S, denoted $S \models \neg body(r)$ if either (1) the complement of a literal in body(r) is in S or (2) there is a disjunction $a_1 \vee \cdots \vee a_n \in S$ such that $\{not a_1, \ldots, not a_n\} \subseteq body(r)$.

Now we define the notion of unfounded set under a set of pure disjunctions. Let S be a set of pure disjunctions of a disjunctive logic program P, a set of atoms X is an *unfounded set* for P w.r.t. S if, for each $a \in X$, $r \in P$ such that $a \in head(r)$, at least one of the following conditions holds:

- (1) the body of r is false w.r.t. S;
- (2) there is $x \in X$ such that $x \in body^+(r)$;
- (3) if $S \models body(r)$, then $S \models (head(r) X)$. Here (head(r) X) is the disjunction obtained from head(r) by removing all atoms in $X, S \models (head(r) X)$ means there is a subdisjunction $A' \subseteq (head(r) X)$ such that $A' \in S$.

Note that, if S is just a set of literals, then the above definition is equivalent to the definition in Preliminaries. If P has the greatest unfounded set w.r.t. S, we denote it by $\mathcal{U}_P(S)$. However, $\mathcal{U}_P(S)$ may be unfounded for some S.

Now we are ready to define the well-founded operator \mathcal{W}'_P for any disjunctive logic program P and set of pure disjunctions S:

$$\mathcal{T}'_{P}(S) = \{ A \text{ a pure disjunction} \mid \text{there is } r \in P : A \lor a_{1} \lor \cdots \lor a_{k} \leftarrow body(r), \\ \text{such that } S \models body(r) \text{ and } not a_{1}, \dots, not a_{k} \in S \}.$$

 $\mathcal{W}'_P(S) = \mathcal{T}'_P(S) \cup \overline{\mathcal{U}_P(S)}.$

Note that $\mathcal{T}'_P(S)$ is a set of positive disjunctions rather than a set of atoms.

From [Wang and Zhou 2005], the operator \mathcal{W}'_P always has the least fixed point, which is denoted by $lfp(\mathcal{W}'_P)$, and the well-founded semantics U-WFS is defined as U-WFS $(P) = lfp(\mathcal{W}'_P)$.

Now we extend T_0 to treat about pure disjunctions. First, we extend the notion $floop_0(P, A)$ to under a set of pure disjunctions S.

A rule r is active under S w.r.t. a loop L, if $S \not\models \neg body(r)$ and $S \not\models (head(r) \setminus L)$. A rule r is an external support rule of L under S, if $r \in R^{-}(L)$ is active under S w.r.t. L. We use $R^{-}(L, S)$ to denote the set of external support rules of L under S.

Given a disjunctive logic program P and a set S of pure disjunctions, let

 $floop_0(P,S) = \{ \neg a \mid a \in L \text{ for a loop } L \text{ of } P \text{ such that } R^-(L,S) = \emptyset \}.$

Then $floop_0(P, S)$ is equivalent to the set of loop formulas of the loops that do not have any external support rules under S. Clearly, if S is just a set of literals, the above definition of $floop_0$ is equivalent to the definition in Section 4.

Now we extend unit propagation to return pure disjunctions. Given a set Γ of clauses, we use UP^* to denote the set of pure disjunctions returned by the extended unit propagation:

Function $UP^*(\Gamma)$ if $(\emptyset \in \Gamma)$ then return Lit; $S := pure_clause(\Gamma)$; if S is inconsistent then return Lit; if $S \neq \emptyset$ then return $S \cup UP^*(assign(S, \Gamma))$ else return \emptyset ;

where $pure_clause(\Gamma)$ returns the union of all positive clauses (disjunctions) and negative literals in Γ , let A be the union of all unit clauses in S^{11} , then $assign(S, \Gamma)$ is $\{c \mid \text{for some } c' \in \Gamma, c' \cap A = \emptyset$, and $c = c' \setminus \overline{A}\}$.

We use the new unit propagation in T_0 , formally, the procedure computes the least fixed point of the following operator:

$$T_0^*(P,S) = UP^*(comp(P) \cup S \cup floop_0(P,S)) \cap DB(P),$$

where DB(P) denotes the set of pure disjunctions formed by the literals in Lit(P). We use $T_0^*(P)$ to denote such least fixed point.

The following theorem relates U-WFS(P) and $T_0^*(P)$.

THEOREM 4.11. For any disjunctive logic program P, U-WFS $(P) \subseteq T_0^*(P)$. If P is simplified and without constraints, then U-WFS $(P) = T_0^*(P)$.

¹¹Note that, A is a set of literals.

Tuble II. Itali time Data for Disjanetive Logic Flograms.						
Problem	cmodels	$cmodels_{T_1}$	claspD	$claspD_{T_1}$	T_1	
10x10	1194.90^{1}	2.44	0.14	0.12	0.38	
10x20	1318.68^{1}	5.48	0.61	0.35	1.23	
10x30	580.491	16.01	2.63	0.85	2.53	
10x40	2318.57^{1}	32.27	8.42	2.64	4.53	
10x50	1864.36^{1}	57.06	13.40	4.55	6.59	
15x10	>2h	9.86	0.66	0.54	1.76	
15x20	>2h	33.67	4.56	1.56	6.04	
15x30	>2h	60.76	14.99	3.41	12.81	
15x40	>2h	122.00	40.02	9.15	22.56	
15x50	>2h	211.29	96.31	17.13	35.08	
20x10	>2h	16.03	2.04	1.54	5.20	
20x20	>2h	75.38	13.68	4.49	19.21	
20x30	>2h	189.10	58.17	8.86	39.19	
20x40	>2h	416.63	120.32	22.03	73.75	
20x50	>2h	728.85	251.15	36.86	136.77	

Table II. Run-time Data for Disjunctive Logic Programs.

4.5 Some Experiments

We have also implemented a program that for any given disjunctive logic program P, it first computes $T_1(P)$, and then adds $\{ \leftarrow \bar{l} \mid l \in T_1(P) \}$ to P. Our implementation is also available on the web¹².

We tried our program on a number of benchmarks. First, for the disjunctive logic programs at the First Answer Set Programming System Competition, $T_1(P)$ does not return anything beyond the well-founded model of P. Next we tried the disjunctive encoding of the Hamiltonian Circuit problem,¹³ and consider graphs with the same structure proposed in Section 3.4. Similarly, none of these "must-in" arcs can be computed using the W_P operator, except one of them, others can be computed from $T_1(P)$, thus adding the corresponding constraints to P should help ASP solvers in computing the answer sets.

Table II contains the running times for these programs.¹⁴ Similar to the experiments described in Section 3.4, we also randomly created 20 different graphs for each MxN, and the times reported in the table refers the average times for these corresponding 20 problems. The problems are first grounded by gringo (while Lparse will exhaust RAM before it grounds a 20x20 problem), then computed by different ASP solvers. In this table, the numbers under "cmodels_{T1}" and "claspD_{T1}" refer to the run times (in seconds) of cmodels (version 3.79) and claspD (version 1.1 [2008]) when the results from $T_1(P)$ are added to the original program as constraints. As can be seen, information from $T_1(P)$ makes cmodels and claspD run much faster when looking for an answer set. We also tried DLV, which will not be terminated in 2 hours (including grounding times) for most 20x5 and 20x10 problems, but with information from $T_1(P)$ it will compute an answer of these problems less than 10 and 50 seconds separately.

¹⁴Our experiments were done on the same computer described in Section 3.4.

 $^{^{12} \}tt{http://www.cs.ust.hk/cloop/}$

¹³http://www.dbai.tuwien.ac.at/proj/dlv/examples/hamcycle

¹The program does not terminate in 2 hours for some instances, we count their time as 2 hours.

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5. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we consider loops that have at most one external support rule for normal and disjunctive logic programs. These loops are special in that their loop formulas are equivalent to sets of unit or binary clauses. We have considered how they, together with the program completion, can be used to deduce useful consequences of a logic program under unit propagation.

Our main results are that, for normal logic programs, the set of loop formulas of loops with at most one external support rule under a set of literals can be computed in polynomial time, and an iterative procedure using these loop formulas, program completion and unit propagation is proposed to computing consequences of the program. When restricted to loop formulas of loops with no external support rules, the procedure basically computes the well-founded model. We have implemented this procedure as a pre-processing step, and show experimentally that for some interesting Hamiltonian Circuit problems, this pre-processing step significantly improves the performances of cmodels and clasp, which are among the best ASP solvers today.

For disjunctive logic programs, the set of loop formulas of loops that do not have any external support under an unfounded-free set of literals can be computed in polynomial time, and an iterative procedure using these loop formulas, program completion and unit propagation outputs the same set of consequences as computed by the preprocessing step of DLV, and is basically the same as Wang and Zhou's well-founded model semantics of disjunctive logic programs. However, the problem of computing loop formulas of loops with at most one external support is intractable. As a result, we consider a polynomial time algorithm for computing some of these loop formulas, and our experimental results show that this algorithm is sometimes useful for simplifying a disjunctive logic program beyond that can be done by the preprocessing step of DLV.

The following are two interesting directions for future work:

- —We have used unit propagation as the inference rule. One could use others as long as they are "efficient" enough. For example, in addition to unit propagation, one can consider adding the following rule: infer l from $l \lor a$ and $l \lor \neg a$, or even the full resolution on binary clauses.
- -We have used these loop formulas for deriving consequences of a logic program. They can of course be used in ASP solvers such as ASSAT and cmodels directly. Whether this has any benefit requires further study.

APPENDIX: PROOFS OF THEOREMS AND PROPOSITIONS

A.1 Proof of Proposition 3.3

Proof of Proposition 3.3: Suppose $floop_0(P, A)$ and $floop_1(P, A)$ are true. We show that for any proper rule r of P such that $\overline{A} \cap body(r) = \emptyset$, and any $L \in ml_0(P \setminus \{r\}, A)$,

$$\{\neg a \lor l \mid a \in L, l \in body(r)\}\tag{12}$$

is true. Firstly, L is also a loop of P, and that either $R^{-}(L, A) = \emptyset$ or $R^{-}(L, A) = \{r\}$. For the first case, $\overline{L} \subseteq floop_0(P, A)$, then $floop_0(P, A)$ implies $\neg a$ for each

 $a \in L$, thus (12) is true. For the second case, (12) is contained in $floop_1(P, A)$, thus true.

Now suppose $floop_0(P, A)$ and (7) are true. We show that $floop_1(P, A)$ is true, i.e. for any proper rule $r \in P$ such that $\overline{A} \cap body(r) = \emptyset$ and any $L \in ml_1(P, A, r)$, (12) holds. Firstly, L is a loop of $P \setminus \{r\}$ that has no external support rules under A. Thus there exists $L' \in ml_0(P \setminus \{r\}, A)$ such that $L \subseteq L'$. Now L' is also a loop of P, and w.r.t. P, either $R^-(L', A) = \emptyset$ or $R^-(L', A) = \{r\}$. In the first case, $\overline{L} \subseteq \overline{L'} \subseteq floop_0(P, A)$, thus (12) holds. In the second case, L' must be in $ml_1(P, A, r)$ as well, thus L = L' and (12) holds. \Box

A.2 Proof of Proposition 3.4

Proof of Proposition 3.4: According to Theorem 1 in [Lin and Zhao 2004], S is an answer set of P if and only if it satisfies comp(P) and each loop formula of P. Given a set X of literals, if X is a set of consequences of $P \cup \{\leftarrow p \mid \neg p \in A\} \cup \{\leftarrow not p \mid p \in A\}$, then $T_A^P(X)$ is a set of consequences of this program, thus $T_1(P, A)$ is also a set of consequences. \Box

A.3 Proof of Theorem 3.5

LEMMA A.1. For any normal logic program P, and any $A \subseteq Lit(P)$.¹⁵

 $M(P, A) = \overline{Atoms(P) \setminus Atmost(P, A)}.$

PROOF. Let $AM(P, A) = \overline{Atoms(P) \setminus Atmost(P, A)}$ and $X \subseteq AM(P, A)$, clearly $\overline{X} \cap Atmost(P, A) = \emptyset$. First we prove that $M(P, A) \subseteq AM(P, A)$. As M(P, A) is the least fixed point of our operator M_P^A , we only need to prove that $M_P^A(X) \subseteq AM(P, A)$.

Let L be a loop of P and $R^-(L, A \cup X) = \emptyset$, clearly $L \cap Atmost(P, A \cup X) = \emptyset$. For any set of atoms Y such that $Y \subseteq Atmost(P, A)$ and $Y \subseteq Atmost(P, A \cup X)$, as $\overline{X} \cap Atmost(P, A) = \emptyset$, $Y \setminus A^- = Y \setminus (A^- \cup \overline{X})$, so $G_A^P(Y) = G_{A \cup X}^P(Y)$, thus $Atmost(P, A \cup X) = Atmost(P, A)$. Now we have $L \cap Atmost(P, A) = \emptyset$, then $\overline{loop_0^A(P, X)} \cap Atmost(P, A) = \emptyset$ and $loop_0^A(P, X) \subseteq AM(P, A)$.

Let a be an atom such that $a \in \overline{F_2^A(P,X)}$, then for all $r \in P$, if a = head(r) then $A \cup X \models \neg body(r)$. Clearly, $a \notin Atmost(P, A \cup X)$ and $a \notin Atmost(P, A)$, thus $F_2^A(P,X) \subseteq AM(P,A)$.

So $M_P^A(X) \subseteq AM(P, A)$ and $M(P, A) \subseteq AM(P, A)$. Now we prove that $AM(P, A) \subseteq M(P, A)$. Let $S = AM(P, A) \setminus M(P, A)$, we want to prove $S = \emptyset$. The sketch of the proof is: if $S \neq \emptyset$, then there exists a loop $L \subseteq \overline{S}$ and $R^-(L, M(P, A)) = \emptyset$, clearly, $\overline{L} \subseteq loop_0^A(P, M(P, A))$ and $\overline{L} \subseteq M(P, A)$, so $S \cap M(P, A) \neq \emptyset$, which conflicts to the definition of S. Now we give the detail of the proof.

For any atom a, if $\neg a \in S$, then there exists a rule r such that head(r) = a and $Atmost(P, A) \setminus A^- \not\models body^+(r)$, which is equivalent to $((Atoms(P) \setminus Atmost(P, A)) \cup A^-) \cap body^+(r) \neq \emptyset$. As $Atoms(P) \setminus Atmost(P, A) = \overline{S} \cup \overline{M}(P, A)$, there exists a rule r such that head(r) = a and $\overline{S} \cap body^+(r) \neq \emptyset$.

Let G_P^S be the \overline{S} induced subgraph of G, $L = \{a \mid \text{for each } b \in \overline{S}, \text{ if there is a} \}$

 $^{{}^{15}}M(P, A)$ is defined in Section 4.4.1.

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path from a to b in $G_P^{\overline{S}}$, then there is a path from b to a in $G_P^{\overline{S}}$. Now we prove that, $L \neq \emptyset$ and $R^{-}(L, M(P, A)) = \emptyset$.

For any atom $a \in \overline{S}$, let $H^{-}(a) = \{b \mid b \in \overline{S}, \text{ there is a path from } a \text{ to } b \text{ and } b \in \overline{S}\}$ there is not any path from b to a in $G_P^{\overline{S}}$ and $H^+(a) = \{b \mid b \in \overline{S}, \text{ there is a path}\}$ from b to a in $G_P^{\overline{S}}$. If $L = \emptyset$, then for each atom $a \in \overline{S}$, $H^-(a) \neq \emptyset$. If an atom $b \in H^{-}(a)$, then $a \in H^{+}(b)$ and $H^{-}(b) \subseteq H^{-}(a) \setminus \{a\}$. If another atom $c \in H^{-}(b)$ then $H^{-}(c) \subseteq H^{-}(a) \setminus \{a, b\}$. So we can form an infinite list of atoms $\{a_1, a_2, \ldots\}$, where $a_{i+1} \in H^-(a_i)$ and $a_{i+1} \neq a_i$ $(1 \leq j \leq i, 1 \leq i \leq \infty)$. But \overline{S} is finite, so $L \neq \emptyset$.

Clearly, L is a loop of P, $L \subseteq \overline{S}$, $L \neq \emptyset$, and for each external support rule r of L, $body^+(r) \cap \overline{S} = \emptyset$. Furthermore, each rule whose head is belonged to \overline{S} is not satisfied under $M(P,A) \cup S$, so $R^{-}(L,M(P,A)) = \emptyset$. Then $\overline{L} \subset loop_{0}^{A}(P,M(P,A))$, $\overline{L} \subseteq M(P, A)$ and $\overline{L} \subseteq S$, which conflicts to the definition of S.

So $S = \emptyset$ and $M(P, A) = \overline{Atoms(P) \setminus Atmost(P, A)}$.

LEMMA A.2. For any normal logic program P, and any $A \subseteq Lit(P)$.

$$Expand(P, A) \subseteq T_0(P, A).$$

PROOF. Expand(P, A) is the least fixed point of the operator E_A^P defined by (10). For any set X of literals, such that $X \subseteq T_0(P,A)$, we want to prove $E_A^P(X) \subseteq$ $T_0(P, A)$. First we prove that $Atleast(P, A \cup X) \subseteq T_0(P, A)$.

 $Atleast(P, A \cup X)$ is the least fixed point of operator $F_{A \cup X}^P$. Let $Y \subseteq T_0(P, A)$, we consider $F_i(P, Y)$ $(1 \le i \le 5)$ respectively.

Let x be a literal, if $x \in F_1(P, Y)$, then there is a rule $x \leftarrow l_1, \ldots, l_n$ and $\{l_1,\ldots,l_n\} \subseteq Y$. The corresponding clause $x \vee \overline{l_1} \vee \cdots \vee \overline{l_n}$ is in comp(P), then $x \in UP(comp(P) \cup Y)$. As $Y \subseteq T_0(P, A)$ and $T_0(P, A)$ is the least fixed point of our operator U_A^P defined by (9), $x \in UP(comp(P) \cup T_0(P,A)), x \in T_0(P,A)$. So $F_1(P,Y) \subseteq T_0(P,A).$

If $\bar{x} \in F_2(P, Y)$, then for every rule r, if head(r) = x then body(r) is false under Y. The corresponding clause $\bar{x} \lor v_1 \lor v_2 \lor \cdots \lor v_n$ is in comp(P) and $\neg v_1, \neg v_2, \ldots, \neg v_n \in$ $UP(comp(P) \cup Y)$, where v_i is the new variable stands for the body of the rule. Clearly $\bar{x} \in UP(comp(P) \cup Y)$. In particular, if n = 0, there is a clause \bar{x} in comp(P), then $\bar{x} \in UP(comp(P) \cup Y)$. Similar to the prove for $F_1(P, Y), F_2(P, Y) \subseteq T_0(P, A)$.

If $x \in F_3(P, Y)$, then there exists a clause $\neg a \lor v_1 \lor v_2 \lor \cdots \lor v_n$ in comp(P), $a \in Y$ and for any $j \neq i, \neg v_j \in Y$, then $v_i \in UP(comp(P) \cup Y)$. As the clause $\neg v_i \lor x$ is in $comp(P), x \in UP(comp(P) \cup Y)$, thus $F_3(P,Y) \subseteq T_0(P,A)$.

If $\bar{x} \in F_4(P,Y)$, then there is a literal $\neg a \in Y$, a rule $a \leftarrow l_1, \ldots, l_n$, and $\{l_1, \ldots, l_n\}$ is true under $Y \cup \{x\}$. As Y is consistent, then $\{l_1, \ldots, l_n\}$ is not true under Y, so x is equivalent to a literal l_i $(1 \le i \le n)$ and for any $j \ne i, 1 \le j \le n$, $l_i \in Y$. The corresponding clause is $a \vee \bar{l}_1 \vee \cdots \vee \bar{l}_n$, then $\bar{x} \in UP(comp(P) \cup Y)$, so $F_4(P, Y) \subseteq T_0(P, A)$.

If Y is inconsistent, then $F_5(P,Y) = Lit(P)$. $T_0(P,A)$ is also inconsistent, then
$$\begin{split} T_0(P,A) &= Lit(P), \ F_5(P,Y) \subseteq T_0(P,A). \\ \text{As for any } Y \subseteq T_0(P,A), \ F_{A\cup X}^P(Y) \subseteq T_0(P,A), \text{ we have proved that } Atleast(P,A\cup P) \\ T_0(P,A) = Lit(P), \ F_5(P,Y) \subseteq T_0(P,A). \\ T_0(P,A) = Lit(P), \ F_5(P,A) = Li$$

 $X) \subseteq T_0(P, A).$

Now we prove that $\overline{Atoms(P) \setminus Atmost(P, A)} \subseteq T_0(P, A)$.

From Lemma A.1, $M(P, A \cup X) = Atoms(P) \setminus Atmost(P, A \cup X)$. Clearly for

any $Y \subseteq T_0(P, A)$, $loop_0^A(P, Y) \subseteq T_0(P, A)$ and $F_2^A(P, Y) \subseteq T_0(P, A)$, so $M_P^A(P, Y) \subseteq T_0(P, A)$, $M(P, A \cup X) \subseteq T_0(P, A)$. So $E_A^P(X) \subseteq T_0(P, A)$ and $Expand(P, A) \subseteq T_0(P, A)$. \Box

LEMMA A.3. For any simplified logic program P, and any $A \subseteq Lit(P)$.

 $T_0(P, A) \subseteq Expand(P, A).$

PROOF. $T_0(P, A)$ is the least fixed point of our operator U_A^P defined by (9). For any set X of literals such that $X \subseteq Expand(P, A)$, we want to prove $U_A^P(X) \subseteq$ Expand(P, A). X is consistent, if not, Expand(P, A) = Lit(P) and $U_A^P(X) \subseteq$ Expand(P, A). First we prove that $UP(comp(P) \cup X) \cap Lit(P) \subseteq Expand(P, A)$.

From the definition of comp(P) in Preliminaries, some new variables are introduced and there are four kinds of clauses in comp(P). We consider them one by one. First we give some notions that will be used in the proof.

A set of literals $X \subseteq Lit(comp(P))$ is called a proper submodel of a set of clauses comp(P), if for any new variable v_i which stands for the body $\{l_1, \ldots, l_m\}$, $v_i \in X$ implies $\{l_1, \ldots, l_m\} \subseteq X$ and $\neg v_i \in X$ implies that there exists some $j, 1 \leq j \leq m$ such that $\overline{l_j} \in X$. For any set of literals $Y \subseteq Lit(comp(P))$, $Sub(Y) = \{v_i \mid v_i \in Y, v_i \text{ stands for the body } \{l_1, \ldots, l_m\}$, and $\{l_1, \ldots, l_m\} \not\subseteq Y\}$.

For any set of literals $X \subseteq Lit(comp(P))$, such that X is a proper submodel of comp(P) and $(X \cap Lit(P)) \subseteq Expand(P, A)$.

For type 1, the clause is $\neg a$ and $\neg a \in F_2(X \cap Lit(P))$.

For type 2, the clause is $\bar{l}_1 \vee \cdots \vee \bar{l}_n \vee l$. Assume that it can be reduced to a unit clause under X. As the rule is a simplified rule, the head of the rule is not belonged to the set of the atoms appeared in the body, then there are only two cases. If the remaining literal is l, then $\{l_1, \ldots, l_n\} \subseteq X$, so $l \in F_1(P, X \cap Lit(P))$, $l \in Expand(P, A)$. If the remaining literal is \bar{l}_i , then $\bar{l} \in X$, and for any $j \neq i, 1 \leq j \leq n, l_j \in X$, so $\bar{l}_i \in F_4(P, X \cap Lit(P))$, $\bar{l}_i \in Expand(P, A)$. So if the unit clause c is reduced from one of this kind of clauses, then $c \in Expand(P, A)$.

For type 3, the clauses are $\neg a \lor v_1 \lor \cdots \lor v_m$, $v_i \lor \overline{l}_{1_i} \lor \cdots \lor \overline{l}_{n_i}$, $\neg v_i \lor l_{1_i}$, $\ldots \neg v_i \lor l_{n_i}$ $(1 \le i \le m)$.

For the clause $\neg a \lor v_1 \lor \cdots \lor v_m$, assume that it can be reduced to a unit clause under X. There are only two cases. If the remaining literal is $\neg a$, then $\{\neg v_1, \ldots, \neg v_m\} \subseteq X$. As X is a proper submodel of comp(P), for any rule $r \in P$ if head(r) = a then body(r) is false under $X \cap Lit(P)$, so $\neg a \in F_2(P, X \cap Lit(P))$, $\neg a \in Expand(P, A)$. If the remaining literal is $v_i, v_i \notin Lit(P)$, so we do not need to consider this case.

For the clause $v_i \vee \bar{l}_1 \vee \cdots \vee \bar{l}_n$, assume that it can be reduced to a unit clause under X. There are only two cases. If the remaining literal is \bar{l}_j , then $\neg v_i \in X$ and for any $k \neq j$, $1 \leq k \leq n$, $l_k \in X$. As X is a proper submodel of comp(P), then $\bar{l}_j \in X$, so $\bar{l}_j \in Expand(P, A)$. If the remaining literal is $v_i, v_i \notin Lit(P)$.

For the clause $\neg v_i \lor l_j$, assume that it can be reduced to a unit clause under X. There are only two cases. If the remaining literal is l_j , then $v_i \in X$. As X is a proper submodel of comp(P), $l_j \in X$. So $l_j \in Expand(P, A)$. If the remaining literal is $\neg v_i$, $v_i \notin Lit(P)$.

So if the unit clause c is reduced from the clause of type 3, then $\{c\} \cap Lit(P) \subseteq Expand(P, A)$.

For type 4, the clause is $\bar{l}_1 \vee \cdots \vee \bar{l}_n$. Assume that it can be reduced to a unit clause under X. If the remaining literal is \bar{l}_i , then for any $j \neq i, 1 \leq j \leq n, l_j \in X$, so $\bar{l}_i \in F_4(P, X \cap Lit(P))$. So if the unit clause c is reduced from one of this kind of clauses, then $c \in Expand(P, A)$.

 $unit_clause(assign(X, comp(P)))$ returns the union of unit clauses reduced from comp(P) under X, we denote UPO(comp(P), X) for short. So for any $X \subseteq Lit(comp(P))$, X is a proper submodel of comp(P) and $X \cap Lit(P) \subseteq Expand(P, A)$, we have $UPO(comp(P), X) \cap Lit(P) \subseteq Expand(P, A)$.

Let Y = UPO(comp(P), X), if Y is not a proper submodel of comp(P), then there exists some $v_i \in Y$ which stands for the body $\{l_1, \ldots, l_n\}$ and for some $1 \leq j \leq n, l_j \notin Y$. v_i can only come from the clause $\neg a \lor v_1 \lor \cdots \lor v_m$, so $a \in Y$ and for all $k \neq i, 1 \leq k \leq m, \neg v_k \in Y$, then $\{l_1, \ldots, l_n\} \subseteq F_3(P, Y \cap$ $Lit(P)), UPO(comp(P), Sub(Y)) \cap Lit(P) \subseteq Expand(P, A)$. Let $Z = Y \setminus Sub(Y)$, it is clear that Z is a proper submodel of comp(P), then $UPO(comp(P), Z) \cap$ $Lit(P) \subseteq Expand(P, A)$. So $UPO(comp(P), Y) \cap Lit(P) = (UPO(comp(P), Z) \cup$ $UPO(comp(P), Sub(Y))) \cap Lit(P) \subseteq Expand(P, A)$.

So $UP(comp(P) \cup X) \cap Lit(P) \subseteq Expand(P, A)$.

Now we prove that $loop_0(P, X) \subseteq Expand(P, A)$.

From Lemma A.1, for any $Y \subseteq Expand(P, A)$, $loop_0^A(P, Y) \subseteq Expand(P, A)$, then $loop_0(P, X) \subseteq Expand(P, A)$.

So $U_A^P(X) \subseteq Expand(P, A)$ and $T_0(P, A) \subseteq Expand(P, A)$. \Box

Proof of Theorem 3.5: Directly from Lemma A.2 and A.3. \Box

A.4 Proof of Proposition 4.1

Proof of Proposition 4.1: Clearly, deciding whether $\neg a \in floop_0(P, A)$ is a NP problem. We can proceed as follows: guess a loop L of P such that $a \in L$, and verify that L has no external support rules under A.

We prove the hardness for NP by reducing the 3-SAT problem to the problem. Now we give the detail of the proof.

Given a set of atoms $Atoms = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n\}$ and $Lit = Atoms \cup \overline{Atoms}$, let Γ be a set of clauses of the form $l_1 \vee l_2 \vee l_3$, where $l_i \in Lit$ $(1 \leq i \leq 3)$, deciding whether Γ is satisfiable is a 3-SAT problem.

Let p be an atom not in *Atoms*, we denote by Loop(Atoms) the logic program:

$$\begin{array}{ll} a_i \leftarrow p. \\ p \leftarrow a_i, p. \quad (1 \le i \le n) \end{array}$$

Clearly, every subset of Atoms extended with p is a loop of Loop(Atoms) and every loop of Loop(Atoms) is in this form.

Let C be a clauses in Γ and a, b, c be the three atoms mentioned in C, there are only eight cases to form C from a, b, c. We use Tran(C) to denote a disjunctive rule according to C, which is different for each case. We give the detail in Table III.

Let $Sat(\Gamma) = \{Tran(C) \mid C \in \Gamma\}$, clearly, $Sat(\Gamma)$ is a disjunctive logic program. Furthermore, if an interpretation $I \subseteq Atoms$ does not satisfy a clauses C, then Tran(C) is an external support rule of the loop $I \cup \{p\}$ under Atoms, otherwise, Tran(C) is not an external support rule under Atoms.

10410 11410(0) of clause c for c
Clause C	Rule $Tran(C)$
$a \vee b \vee c$	$p \leftarrow a, b, c.$
$a \vee b \vee \neg c$	$p \lor c \leftarrow a, b.$
$a \vee \neg b \vee c$	$p \lor b \leftarrow a, c.$
$a \vee \neg b \vee \neg c$	$p \lor b \lor c \leftarrow a.$
$\neg a \lor b \lor c$	$p \lor a \leftarrow b, c.$
$\neg a \lor b \lor \neg c$	$p \lor a \lor c \leftarrow b.$
$\neg a \vee \neg b \vee c$	$p \lor a \lor b \leftarrow c.$
$\neg a \vee \neg b \vee \neg c$	$p \lor a \lor b \lor c \leftarrow .$
	Clause C $a \lor b \lor c$ $a \lor b \lor \neg c$ $a \lor \neg b \lor c$ $a \lor \neg b \lor \neg c$ $\neg a \lor b \lor c$ $\neg a \lor b \lor \neg c$ $\neg a \lor b \lor \neg c$

Table III. Rule Tran(C) of clause C for each case.

We use $Tran(\Gamma)$ to denote the disjunctive logic program: $Loop(Atoms) \cup Sat(\Gamma)$. From the discussion above, for any interpretation $I \subseteq Atoms$, $I \cup \{p\}$ is a loop of $Tran(\Gamma)$, and if I satisfies a clause C in Γ , then Tran(C) is not an external support rule of the loop $I \cup \{p\}$ under Atoms, otherwise, Tran(C) is an external support rule of $I \cup \{p\}$ under Atoms.

So if there is an interpretation I satisfies every clause in Γ , then loop $I \cup \{p\}$ of $Tran(\Gamma)$ has no external support rules under Atoms, and $\neg p \in floop_0(Tran(\Gamma), Atoms)$. If there does not exists such an interpretation, then for any $I \subseteq Atoms$, $I \cup \{p\}$ has at least one external support rule under Atoms, thus there does not exists a loop of $Tran(\Gamma)$ with p that has no external support rules under Atoms, then $\neg p \notin floop_0(Tran(\Gamma), Atoms)$. So Γ is satisfiable iff $\neg p \in floop_0(Tran(\Gamma), Atoms)$.

It is known that the 3-SAT problem is NP-complete, thus deciding whether $\neg a \in floop_0(P, A)$ is NP-hard, the problem is NP-complete. \Box

A.5 Proof of Proposition 4.2

Proof of Proposition 4.2: Suppose otherwise, and let $r \in R^-(L_1 \cup L_2, A)$. Then $head(r) \cap (L_1 \cup L_2) \neq \emptyset$, $body^+(r) \cap (L_1 \cup L_2) = \emptyset$, $\overline{A} \cap body(r) = \emptyset$, $A \cap (head(r) \setminus (L_1 \cup L_2)) = \emptyset$ and $A \cap (L_1 \cup L_2) = \emptyset$. Thus $A \cap head(r) = \emptyset$ and either $head(r) \cap L_1 \neq \emptyset$ or $head(r) \cap L_2 \neq \emptyset$. So either $r \in R^-(L_1, A)$ or $r \in R^-(L_2, A)$, a contradiction with the assumption that L_1 and L_2 do not have any external support rules under A.

A.6 Proof of Theorem 4.3

Proof of Theorem 4.3: The complexity part is straightforward and the loops computed from $ML_0(P, A, Atoms(P))$ are loops without external support rules for P w.r.t. A. Note that, generally $ML_0(P, A) \not\subseteq ml_0(P, A)$.

For the correctness when A is unfounded-free, observe that if L is a loop of P, then there must be a strongly connected component C of G_P such that $L \subseteq C$. Now if $L \in ml_0(P, A)$, then there must be such a component C such that either L = Cand $R^-(C, A) = \emptyset$ or $L \subset C$, $R^-(C, A) \neq \emptyset$ and $R^-(L, A) = \emptyset$. In the latter case, for any $r \in R^-(C, A)$, if $head(r) \cap A = \emptyset$, then $head(r) \cap L = \emptyset$, for otherwise, r must be in $R^-(L, A)$, a contradiction with $R^-(L, A) = \emptyset$. If $head(r) \cap A \neq \emptyset$, as A is unfounded-free, then for any loop $L \in ML_0(P, A, Atoms(P)), L \cap A = \emptyset$, thus $(head(r) \cap A) \cap L = \emptyset$. So if $R^-(C, A) \neq \emptyset$, then any subset of C that is in $ml_0(P, A)$ must also be a subset of $S = C \setminus \bigcup_{r \in R^-(L,A)} H(r, A)$. Thus instead

of G_P , we can recursively search that S induced subgraph of G_P . \Box

A.7 Proof of Proposition 4.4

Proof of Proposition 4.4: Clearly, deciding whether $\neg a \lor l \in floop_1(P, A)$ is a NP problem. We can proceed as follows: guess a loop L of P such that $a \in L$, and verify that L has only one external support rule r under A such that $l \in body(r) \cup \overline{head}(r) \setminus \overline{L}$.

Similar to the proof of Proposition 4.1, we prove the hardness for NP by reducing the 3-SAT problem to the problem. We also follow the notions proposed in the above proof.

We use $Tran_1(\Gamma)$ to denote the disjunctive logic program: $Loop(Atoms) \cup Sat(\Gamma) \cup \{p \leftarrow q, q \leftarrow \}$, where q is an atom not in *Atoms* and different from p. From the discussion in the above proof, for any interpretation $I \subseteq Atoms$, $I \cup \{p\}$ is a loop of $Tran_1(\Gamma)$, and if I satisfies a clause C in Γ , then Tran(C) is not an external support rule of the loop $I \cup \{p\}$ under *Atoms*, otherwise, Tran(C) is an external support rule of $I \cup \{p\}$ under *Atoms*.

So if there is an interpretation I satisfies every clause in Γ , then loop $I \cup \{p\}$ of $Tran_1(\Gamma)$ has only one external support rule: $p \leftarrow q$ under Atoms, and $\neg p \lor q \in floop_1(Tran_1(\Gamma), Atoms)$. If there does not exists such an interpretation, then for any $I \subseteq Atoms$, $I \cup \{p\}$ has more than one external support rule under Atoms, thus there does not exists a loop of $Tran_1(\Gamma)$ with p that has only one external support rule under Atoms, then $\neg p \lor q \notin floop_1(Tran_1(\Gamma), Atoms)$. So Γ is satisfiable iff $\neg p \lor q \in floop_1(Tran_1(\Gamma), Atoms)$. Furthermore, as q is a consequence of $Tran_1(\Gamma)$, $Atoms \subseteq U(Tran_1(\Gamma), \emptyset)$.

It is known that the 3-SAT problem is NP-complete, thus for $A \subseteq U(P, \emptyset)$, deciding whether $\neg a \lor l \in floop_1(P, A)$ is NP-hard, the problem is NP-complete.

A.8 Proof of Proposition 4.5

Proof of Proposition 4.5: For any rule r in the disjuctive logic program P, we also define $ml_1(P, A, r)$ the set of maximal loops of P that have r as their only external support rule under A, and $ml_1(P, A) = \bigcup_{r \in P} ml_1(P, A, r)$. Let

$$\begin{aligned} floop_1'(P,A) &= \bigcup_{L \in ml_1(P,A)} \{ \neg a \lor l \mid a \in L, \ l \in body(r) \cup \overline{head(r) \setminus L}, \\ R^-(L,A) &= \{r\} \, \}. \end{aligned}$$

Clearly, if $L \in ml_1(P, A)$ then $L \in loop_1(P, A)$, so $floop_1(P, A)$ implies $floop'_1(P, A)$. We only need to prove that $floop'_1(P, A)$ implies the formula (11) under $floop_0(P, A)$.

Suppose $floop_0(P, A)$ and $floop'_1(P, A)$ are true. We show that for any rule $r \in P$ s.t. $\overline{A} \cap body(r) = \emptyset$, and any $L \in ml_0(P \setminus \{r\}, A)$,

$$\{ \neg a \lor l \mid a \in L, l \in body(r) \cup head(r) \setminus L \}$$
(13)

is true. Firstly, L is also a loop for P, and that either $R^-(L, A) = \emptyset$ or $R^-(L, A) = \{r\}$. For the first case, $\overline{L} \subseteq floop_0(P, A)$, thus (13) is true. For the second case, $L \in loop_1(P, A)$ and there does not exist any other such loop L' s.t. $L \subset L'$, so $l \in ml_1(P, A, r)$, (13) is contained in $floop'_1(P, A)$, thus true.

So $floop_0(P, A) \cup floop'_1(P, A)$ implies the formula (11), and $floop_0(P, A) \cup floop_1(P, A)$ implies the formula (11). \Box

A.9 Proof of Proposition 4.6

Proof of Proposition 4.6: Let *S* be an answer set of *P* and $S = S \cup Atoms(P) \setminus S$, clearly, $A \subseteq S$. Let *X* be an unfounded set for *P* w.r.t. *A*, from the definition of unfounded sets, *X* is also an unfounded set for *P* w.r.t. *S*. Theorem 4.6 in [Leone et al. 1997] demonstrates that *S* is unfounded-free. So if *A* is not unfounded-free, then there exists an unfounded set *X* for *P* w.r.t. *A* such that $X \cap A \neq \emptyset$, thus *X* is also an unfounded set w.r.t. *S* and $X \cap S \neq \emptyset$, a contradiction with *S* is unfounded-free. So *A* is also unfounded-free.

A.10 Proof of Proposition 4.7

Proof of Proposition 4.7: Similar to the proof of Proposition 4.1, we prove the hardness for NP by reducing the 3-SAT problem to the problem, deciding whether a literal $l \in T^1(P)$. We follow the notions proposed in the above proof.

We use $Tran_2(\Gamma)$ to denote the disjunctive logic program: $Loop(Atoms) \cup Sat(\Gamma) \cup \{p \leftarrow q, q \leftarrow not m, m \leftarrow not q, \leftarrow not p\}$, where q and m are different atoms not in *Atoms* and different from p. Clearly, $Atoms \cup \{p\} \subset T^1(P)$. We want to know whether q belongs to $T^1(P)$.

From the discussion in the proof of Proposition 4.1, if Γ is satisfiable, then there exists an interpretation $I \subseteq Atoms$ that satisfies every clause in Γ , thus $I \cup \{p\}$ is a loop of $Tran_2(\Gamma)$ and $I \cup \{p\}$ has only one external support rule $p \leftarrow q$ under $Atoms \cup \{p\}$, as $p \in T^1(P)$, then $q \in T^1(P)$. If Γ is unsatisfiable, then every possible interpretation does not satisfy Γ , thus every possible loop in $Tran_2(\Gamma)$ has more than one external support rule, so $q \notin T^1(P)$.

So Γ is satisfiable iff $q \in T^1(P)$. Thus deciding whether a literal $l \in T^1(P)$ is NP-hard. \Box

A.11 Proof of Theorem 4.8

LEMMA A.4. For any disjunctive logic program P, any $A \subseteq Lit(P)$, and any $X \subseteq GUS_P(A)$. $GUS_P(A) = GUS_P(A \cup \overline{X})$.

PROOF. Clearly, $GUS_P(A) \subseteq GUS_P(A \cup \overline{X})$. Now we prove that $GUS_P(A \cup \overline{X}) \subseteq GUS_P(A)$.

 $GUS_P(A \cup \overline{X})$ is an unfounded set of P w.r.t. $A \cup \overline{X}$ and $X \subseteq GUS_P(A) \subseteq GUS_P(A \cup \overline{X})$, from the definition of unfounded sets, $GUS_P(A \cup \overline{X})$ is also an unfounded set of P w.r.t. A, so $GUS_P(A \cup \overline{X}) \subseteq GUS_P(A)$. So $GUS_P(A) = GUS_P(A \cup \overline{X})$. \Box

Proof of Theorem 4.8: Let $X \subseteq GUS_P(A)$, first we prove that $M(P, A) \subseteq GUS_P(A)$. As M(P, A) is the least fixed point of our operator M_P^A , we only need to prove that $M_P^A(X) \subseteq GUS_P(A)$.

Note that, if an atom $a \in F_2^A(P, X)$, then for each $r \in P$, $a \in head(r)$ implies (1) $\overline{A \cup \overline{X}} \neq \emptyset$, or (2) $(head(r) \setminus \{a\}) \cap A \neq \emptyset$. From the definition of unfounded sets, $\{a\}$ is an unfounded set for P w.r.t. $A \cup \overline{X}$. Furthermore, $GUS_P(A)$ exists, from Lemma A.4, $GUS_P(A \cup \overline{X})$ exists, then $\{a\} \subseteq GUS_P(A \cup \overline{X})$, thus $F_2^A(P, X) \subseteq$

 $GUS_P(A \cup \overline{X})$. Let L be a loop of P and $R^-(L, A \cup \overline{X}) = \emptyset$, clearly, L is an unfounded set of P w.r.t. $A \cup \overline{X}$, and $L \subseteq GUS_P(A \cup \overline{X})$. So $M_P^A(X) \subseteq GUS_P(A \cup \overline{X})$. From Lemma A.4, $M_P^A(X) \subseteq GUS_P(A)$, thus $M(P, A) \subseteq GUS_P(A)$.

Now we prove that $GUS_P(A) \subseteq M(P, A)$. Let $S = GUS_P(A) \setminus M(P, A)$, we want to prove $S = \emptyset$. The sketch of the proof is: if $S \neq \emptyset$, then there exists a loop $L \subseteq S$ and $R^-(L, A \cup \overline{M(P, A)}) = \emptyset$, clearly, $L \subseteq loop_0^A(P, M(P, A))$ and $L \subseteq M(P, A)$, so $S \cap M(P, A) \neq \emptyset$, which conflicts to the definition of S. Now we give the detail of the proof.

For any atom a, if $a \in S$, then every rule $r \in P$ such that $a \in head(r)$, we have $\overline{A} \cap body(r) \neq \emptyset$, $A \cap (head(r) \setminus GUS_P(A)) \neq \emptyset$, or $body^+(r) \cap GUS_P(A) \neq \emptyset$. As $GUS_P(A) = S \cup M(P, A)$, there exists a rule r such that $a \in head(r)$, $S \cap body^+(r) \neq \emptyset$.

Let G_P^S be the S induced subgraph of the positive dependence graph G_P , $L = \{a \mid for each b \in S, if there is a path from a to b in <math>G_P^S$, then there is a path from b to a in G_P^S . Now we prove that, $L \neq \emptyset$ and $R^-(L, A \cup \overline{M(P, A)}) = \emptyset$.

For any atom $a \in S$, let $H^-(a) = \{b \mid b \in S, \text{ there is a path from } a \text{ to } b \text{ and there is not any path from } b \text{ to } a \text{ in } G_P^S\}$. Clearly, for each atom $a \in S$, there exists an atom $b \in S$ such that there is an arc from a to b in G_P^S . If $L = \emptyset$, then for each atom $a \in S$, $H^-(a) \neq \emptyset$. If an atom $b \in H^-(a)$, then $H^-(b) \subseteq H^-(a) \setminus \{a\}$. If another atom $c \in H^-(b)$ then $H^-(c) \subseteq H^-(a) \setminus \{a,b\}$. So we can form an infinite list of atoms $\{a_1, a_2, \ldots\}$, where $a_{i+1} \in H^-(a_i)$ and $a_{i+1} \neq a_j$ $(1 \leq j \leq i, 1 \leq i \leq \infty)$. But S is finite, so $L \neq \emptyset$.

Clearly, L is a loop of P, $L \subseteq S$, $L \neq \emptyset$. Let r be an external support rule of L, if $body^+(r) \cap S \neq \emptyset$, then there exist two atoms a and b such that $a \in L$, $b \in S \setminus L$, and there is a path from a to b in G_P^S , thus there is also a path from b to a in G_P^S . Note that, for each atom $c \in S$, if there is a path from b to c in G_P^S , then there is a path from a to c, thus there is a path from c to a and also a path from c to b. So $b \in L$, which conflicts to $b \in S \setminus L$, thus for each external support rule r of L, $body^+(r) \cap S = \emptyset$. Furthermore, all rules $r \in P$, such that $head(r) \cap S \neq \emptyset$, $\overline{A} \cap body(r) \neq \emptyset$, $(\underline{M}(P, A) \cup S) \cap body(r) \neq \emptyset$, or $A \cap (head(r) \setminus (S \cup M(P, A))) \neq \emptyset$, so $R^-(L, A \cup \overline{M}(P, A)) = \emptyset$. Then $L \subseteq loop_0^A(P, M(P, A))$, $L \subseteq M(P, A)$ and $L \subseteq S$, which conflicts to the definition of S.

So $S = \emptyset$ and $M(P, A) = GUS_P(A)$. \Box

A.12 Proof of Theorem 4.9

LEMMA A.5. For any disjunctive logic program $P, W_P^{\omega}(\emptyset) \subseteq T_0(P)$.

PROOF. $\mathcal{W}_{P}^{\omega}(\emptyset)$ is the least fixed point of the operator \mathcal{W}_{P} . For any set X of literals, such that $X \subseteq T_{0}(P)$, we want to prove $\mathcal{W}_{P}(X) \subseteq T_{0}(P)$. First we prove that $\mathcal{T}_{P}(X) \subseteq T_{0}(P)$.

If an atom $a \in \mathcal{T}_P(X)$, then there is a rule $r \in P$ such that $a \in head(r), (\underline{head}(r) \setminus \{a\}) \subseteq \overline{X}$, and $body(r) \subseteq X$. The corresponding clause $head(r) \lor \bigvee \overline{body(r)}$ is in comp(P), then $a \in UP(comp(P) \cup X)$. So $\mathcal{T}_P(X) \subseteq T_0(P)$.

Now we prove that $GUS_P(X) \subseteq T_0(P)$. From Theorem 4.8, $M(P, X) = GUS_P(X)$. $T_0(P)$ returns a set of consequence of P, then every subset of $T_0(P)$ is unfounded-free for P. Note that, if $X_1 \subseteq X_2 \subseteq T_0(P)$, then $\bigcup_{L \in ML_0(P,X_1)} L \subseteq \bigcup_{L \in ML_0(P,X_2)} L$,

from the definition of $T_0(P)$, $\bigcup_{L \in ML_0(P,X_1)} \overline{L} \subseteq \bigcup_{L \in ML_0(P,X_2)} \overline{L} \subseteq T_0(P)$. Additionally, for any $\overline{Y} \subseteq T_0(P)$, $X \cup \overline{Y}$ is unfounded-free for P, from Theorem 4.3, $\bigcup_{L \in ML_0(P,X \cup \overline{Y})} L = \bigcup_{L \in ml_0(P,X \cup \overline{Y})} L = loop_0^X(P,Y)$. So for any $\overline{Y} \subseteq T_0(P)$, $\overline{loop_0^X(P,Y)} \subseteq T_0(P)$. Now we prove that $\overline{F_2^X(P,Y)} \subseteq T_0(P)$.

For any atom $a \in F_2^X(P,Y)$ and any rule $r \in P$, if $a \in head(r)$, then $\overline{X} \cap body(r) \neq \emptyset$, $Y \cap body(r) \neq \emptyset$, or $(head(r) \setminus \{a\}) \cap X \neq \emptyset$. The corresponding clause $\neg a \lor v_1 \lor v_2 \lor \cdots \lor v_n$ is in comp(P) and $\neg v_1, \neg v_2, \ldots, \neg v_n \in UP(comp(P) \cup X \cup \overline{Y})$, where v_i is the new variable stands for the body of the rule. Clearly, $\neg a \in UP(comp(P) \cup X \cup \overline{Y})$. In particular, if n = 0, there is clauses $\neg a$ in comp(P). So $\overline{F_2^X(P,Y)} \subseteq T_0(P)$.

So
$$M_P^X(P,Y) \subseteq T_0(P), \ \overline{M(P,X)} \subseteq T_0(P).$$

LEMMA A.6. For any simplified disjunctive logic program P that does not contain constraints, $T_0(P) \subseteq \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$.

PROOF. $T_0(P)$ is equivalent to the least fixed point of our operator f defined by (8). For any set X of literals such that $X \subseteq \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$, we want to prove $f(X) \subseteq \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$. Note that X is always consistent. First we prove that $UP(comp(P) \cup X) \cap Lit(P) \subseteq \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$.

Note that P is a simplified program that without constraints, from the definition of comp(P) in Preliminaries, some new variables are introduced and there are three kinds of clauses in comp(P). We consider them one by one. First we give some notions that will be used in the proof.

A set of literals $X \subseteq Lit(comp(P))$ is called a proper submodel of a set of clauses $comp(\underline{P})$, if for any new variable v_i which stands for the set of literals $body(r_i) \cup head(r_i) \setminus \{a\}$ (formula $body(r_i) \wedge \bigwedge_{p \in head(r_i) \setminus \{a\}} \neg p$), $v_i \in X$ implies $(body(r_i) \cup \overline{head(r_i) \setminus \{a\}}) \subseteq X$ and $\neg v_i \in X$ implies that there exists a literal $l \in body(r_i) \cup \overline{head(r_i) \setminus \{a\}}$ such that $\overline{l} \in X$. For any set of literals $Y \subseteq Lit(comp(P))$, $Sub(Y) = \{v_i \mid v_i \in Y, v_i \text{ stands for the set } body(r_i) \cup \overline{head(r_i) \setminus \{a\}}$, and $(body(r_i) \cup \overline{head(r_i) \setminus \{a\}}) \not\subseteq Y$.

Consider any set of literals $X \subseteq Lit(comp(P))$, such that X is a proper submodel of comp(P) and $(X \cap Lit(P)) \subseteq W_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$.

For type 1, the clause is $\neg a$ for an atom a that there is no rule in P with a as its head. Clearly, $\{a\}$ is an unfounded set for P w.r.t. \emptyset , then $\neg a \in \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$.

For type 2, the clause is $head(r) \vee \sqrt{body(r)}$ for each rule r in P. Assume that it can be reduced to a unit clause under X. As the rule is a simplified rule, atoms in the head do not appear in the body, then there are only two cases. If the remaining literal $l \in head(r)$, then $(body(r) \cup head(r) \setminus \{l\}) \subseteq X$, so $l \in \mathcal{T}_P(X)$ and $l \in \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$. If the remaining literal $l \in \overline{body(r)}$, then $(\overline{head(r)} \cup (body(r) \setminus \{\bar{l}\})) \subseteq X \subseteq \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$, thus $head(r) \subseteq GUS_P(X \cap Lit(P))$ and $(body(r) \setminus \{\bar{l}\}) \subseteq X$, so $l \in \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$. So if the unit clauses c is reduced from one of this kind of clauses, then $c \in \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$.

For type 3, the clauses are corresponding to the clauses formed in item 4 for the definition of comp(P) in Preliminaries.

For the clause $\neg a \lor v_1 \lor \cdots \lor v_t$, assume that it can be reduced to a unit clause under X. There are only to cases. If the remaining literal is $\neg a$, then $\{\neg v_1, \ldots, \neg v_t\} \subseteq X$. As X is a proper submodel of comp(P), then $\{a\}$ is an unfounded set for P ACM Transactions on Computational Logic, Vol. V, No. N, Month 20YY.

w.r.t. $X \cap Lit(P)$, thus $\neg a \in \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$. If the remaining literal is $v_i, v_i \notin Lit(P)$, so we do not need to consider this case.

For clauses of the form $v_i \vee \bigvee body(r_i) \vee \bigvee_{p \in head(r_i) \setminus \{a\}} p$ or $\neg v_i \vee l$, if the unit clause c is reduced from these clauses, as X is a proper submodel of comp(P), then $\{c\} \cap Lit(P) \subseteq W_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$.

In the algorithm for unit propagation, $unit_clause(assign(X, comp(P)))$ returns then union of unit clauses reduced from comp(P) under X, we denote UPO(comp(P), X)for short. From the above discussion, we have proved that, for any $X \subseteq Lit(comp(P))$, X is a proper submodel of comp(P) and $X \cap Lit(P) \subseteq \mathcal{W}_{P}^{\omega}(\emptyset)$, we have UPO(comp(P), X) $\cap Lit(P) \subseteq \mathcal{W}_{P}^{\omega}(\emptyset)$.

Let Y = UPO(comp(P), X), if Y is not a proper submodel of comp(P), then there exists some $v_i \in Y$ which stands for the set $body(r_i) \cup \overline{head}(r_i) \setminus \{a\}$ and there is a literal l in this set that $l \notin Y$. v_i can only come from the clause $\neg a \lor v_1 \lor \cdots \lor v_t$, so $a \in Y$ and for all $k \neq i, 1 \leq k \leq t, \neg v_k \in Y$. As $Y \cap Lit(P) \subseteq \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset), a \in T_P(Y \cap$ Lit(P)), then there is a rule r that $a \in head(r)$ and $body(r) \cup \overline{head}(r) \setminus \{a\} \subseteq Y$. So $UPO(comp(P), Sub(Y)) \cap Lit(P) \subseteq \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$. Let $Z = Y \setminus Sub(Y)$, it is clear that Z is a proper submodel of comp(P), then $UPO(comp(P), Z) \cap Lit(P) \subseteq \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$. So $UPO(comp(P), Y) \cap Lit(P) = (UPO(comp(P), Z) \cup UPO(comp(P), Sub(Y))) \cap$ $Lit(P) \subseteq \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$.

So $UP(comp(P) \cup X) \cap Lit(P) \subseteq W_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$.

Now we prove that, for any $X \subseteq \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$, $FLoop_0(P, X) \subseteq \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$.

Clearly, X is unfounded-free, from Theorem 4.8, $FLoop_0(P, X) = floop_0(P, X) \subseteq \overline{GUS_P(X)} \subseteq \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset).$

So $f(X) \subseteq \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$ and $T_0(P) \subseteq \mathcal{W}_P^{\omega}(\emptyset)$. \Box

Proof of Theorem 4.9: The theorem can be proved from Lemma A.5 and A.6 directly. \Box

A.13 Proof of Proposition 4.10

LEMMA A.7. For any disjunctive logic program P and a set A of literals, $floop_0(P, A)$ implies that $floop'_1(P, A)$ is equivalent to the following theory

$$\bigcup_{\overline{A} \cap body(r) = \emptyset, L \in ml_0(P \setminus \{r\}, A)} \{ \neg a \lor l \mid a \in L, l \in body(r) \cup \overline{head(r) \setminus L} \}.$$
(14)

PROOF. Suppose $floop_0(P, A)$ and $floop'_1(P, A)$ are true. We show that for any rule $r \in P$ s.t. $\overline{A} \cap body(r) = \emptyset$, and any $L \in ml_0(P \setminus \{r\}, A)$,

$$\{ \neg a \lor l \mid a \in L, l \in body(r) \cup \overline{head(r) \setminus L} \}$$
(15)

is true. Firstly, L is also a loop for P, and that either $R^-(L, A) = \emptyset$ or $R^-(L, A) = \{r\}$. For the first case, $\overline{L} \subseteq floop_0(P, A)$, thus (15) is true. For the second case, $L \in loop_1(P, A)$ and there does not exist any other such loop L' s.t. $L \subset L'$, so $l \in ml_1(P, A, r)$, (15) is contained in $floop'_1(P, A)$, thus true.

Now suppose $floop_0(P, A)$ and (14) are true. We show that $floop'_1(P, A)$ is true, i.e., for any loop $L \in ml_1(P, A, r)$, (15) is true. Clearly, $L \in ml_0(P \setminus \{r\}, A)$ or there exists a loop $L' \in ml_0(P \setminus \{r\}, A)$ s.t. $L \subset L'$. For the first case, (14) is true, thus (15) is true. For the second case, $L' \in loop_0(P, A)$, $floop_0(P, A)$ is true, thus (15) is true. \Box

Proof of Proposition 4.10: For the first equation. Clearly, if P is head-cycle free, then $loop_0(P, A) = loop_0(sh(P), A)$. Let C be a strongly connected component of G_P , loop $L \subseteq C$ and $L \in ml_0(P, A)$. There are two cases: either L = Cand $R^-(C, A) = \emptyset$ or $L \subset C$, $R^-(C, A) \neq \emptyset$ and $R^-(L, A) = \emptyset$. In the later case, if $head(r) \cap A = \emptyset$, then $head(r) \cap L = \emptyset$, for otherwise, r must be in $R^-(L, A)$, a contradiction with $R^-(L, A) = \emptyset$.

If $head(r) \cap A \neq \emptyset$, let $X = head(r) \cap L$. As P is head-cycle free, then $|X| \leq 1$, i.e., there is at most one atom $a \in X$. As $r \in R^-(C, A)$, so $body^+(r) \cap C = \emptyset$, $\overline{A} \cap body(r) = \emptyset$ and $A \cap (head(r) \setminus C) = \emptyset$. $L \subset C$, let $Y = A \cap (head(r) \setminus L)$. If $Y \neq \emptyset$, let $b \in Y$, clearly, $a \neq b$, $a, b \in C$, $b \in head(r)$, which conflicts to P is head-cycle free, so $Y = \emptyset$. Thus $a \notin L$, for otherwise, r must be in $R^-(L, A)$, a contradiction with $R^-(L, A) = \emptyset$. So $(head(r) \cap A) \cap L = \emptyset$.

Thus if $R^-(C, A) \neq \emptyset$, then any subset of C that is in $ml_0(P, A)$ must also be a subset of $S = C \setminus \{H(r, A) \mid r \in R^-(C, A)\}$. Thus instead of G_P , we can recursively search the S included subgraph of G_P .

So if P is head-cycle free, then $ML_0(P, A) = ml_0(P, A)$. As sh(P) is a normal program, from Theorem 3.2, $ML_0(sh(P), A) = ml_0(sh(P), A) = ml_0(P, A)$. So $ml_0(P, A) = ML_0(P, A) = ML_0(sh(P), A)$.

As $ML_0(sh(P \setminus \{r\}), A) = ML_0(P \setminus \{r\}, A)$, so the second equation is true.

Furthermore, as P is head-cycle free, if a loop $L \in ml_1(P, A, r)$, then for any loop $L' \supset L$ s.t. $R^-(L', A) = \{r\}$ and $head(r) \setminus L = head(r) \setminus L'$, for otherwise, Pis not head-cycle free. So $floop_1(P, A) \equiv floop'_1(P, A)$. Then from Lemma A.7 and the first equation, $floop_1(P, A) \equiv FLoop_1(P, A)$ under $floop_0(P, A)$. \Box

A.14 Proof of Theorem 4.11

Proof of Theorem 4.11: The proof is similar to the proof for Theorem 4.9, we just need to replace the set A of literals to the set S of pure disjunctions. \Box

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