

Fast Counting with Bounded Treewidth*

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Abstract. Many intractable problems have been shown to become tractable if the treewidth of the underlying structure is bounded by a constant. An important tool for deriving such results is Courcelle’s Theorem, which states that all properties defined by Monadic-Second Order (MSO) sentences are fixed-parameter tractable with respect to the treewidth. Arnborg et al. extended this result to counting problems defined via MSO properties. However, the MSO description of a problem is of course not an algorithm. Consequently, proving the fixed-parameter tractability of some problem via Courcelle’s Theorem can be considered as the starting point rather than the endpoint of the search for an efficient algorithm. Gottlob et al. have recently presented a new approach via monadic datalog to actually devise efficient algorithms for decision problems whose tractability follows from Courcelle’s Theorem. In this paper, we extend this approach and apply it to some fundamental counting problems in logic an artificial intelligence.

1 Introduction

Many problems which are, in general, intractable, have been shown to become tractable if the treewidth of the underlying structure is bounded by a constant. An important tool for deriving such results is Courcelle’s Theorem [1]. It states that any property of finite structures, which is expressible by a Monadic Second Order (MSO) sentence, can be decided in linear time (data complexity) if the structures under consideration have bounded treewidth. Courcelle’s Theorem has been successfully applied to derive tractability results in a great variety of fields. Recently, also its applicability to AI has been underlined by showing that many fundamental problems in the area of non-monotonic reasoning and knowledge representation can be encoded as MSO sentences [2]. In [3], it was shown that the fixed-parameter tractability (FPT) via Courcelle’s Theorem can be extended to counting problems defined via MSO properties.

Clearly, the MSO description of a problem is not an algorithm. Previous methods for constructing concrete algorithms from an MSO description [3, 4] first transform the MSO evaluation problem into a tree language recognition problem, which is then solved via a finite tree automaton (FTA). However, this approach has turned out to be only of theoretical value, since even very simple MSO formulae quickly lead to a “state explosion” of the FTA (see [5]). Consequently, it was already stated in [6] that the algorithms derived via Courcelle’s Theorem are “useless for practical applications” and that the main benefit of Courcelle’s Theorem is in providing “a simple way to recognize a property as being linear time computable”. Of course, this also applies to the extension of Courcelle’s Theorem to counting problems according to [3]. In other words, proving the FPT of some problem by showing that it is MSO expressible is the starting point rather than the end point of the search for an efficient algorithm.

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Recently, an alternative method to tackle this class of fixed-parameter tractable problems via *monadic datalog* has been proposed in [7]. In particular, it has been shown that if some property of finite structures is expressible in MSO then it can also be expressed by means of a monadic datalog program over the structure plus the tree decomposition. The monadic datalog approach has been applied to problems from different areas [7, 8] including propositional satisfiability (SAT) and abduction. In this paper, we show that the monadic datalog approach can be extended in such a way that it also provides concrete algorithms for some fundamental counting problems.

Results. We present new algorithms for the following problems: #SAT – the problem of counting *all* models of a propositional formula (without restriction, this is a classical #P-complete problem); #CIRCUMSCRIPTION – the problem of counting the (subset) *minimal* models of a propositional formula (this problem was, apart from the generic # Π_1 SAT-problem, one of the first problems to be shown #NP-complete [9]); and #HORN-ABDUCTION – the problem of counting the solutions of a propositional abduction problem where the underlying theory is given by a set of Horn clauses. The #P-completeness of this problem has been recently shown in [10]. Finally, we also report on experimental evaluations of the #SAT algorithm. In particular, we compare a dedicated implementation (where datalog serves as a “specification”) with direct realizations of the datalog approach on top of the DLV-system [11]. Our experiments underline that our approach of counting indeed yields the expected fixed-parameter tractability and that – in great contrast to the MSO-to-FTA approach – there are no “hidden constants” in the runtime behavior to render these algorithms useless.

Related Work. As mentioned above, counting problems defined via MSO properties were shown in [3] to be FPT w.r.t. the treewidth of the input structures. In [12], this FPT result was extended to graphs with bounded clique-width. An algorithm for solving #SAT and #GENSAT in case of bounded treewidth or clique-width of the primal or incidence graph was presented in [13]. Moreover, it is sketched how this approach based on recursive splitting can be extended to other #P-complete problems. In [14], new #SAT-algorithms based on dynamic programming were presented for bounded treewidth of several graphs related to a propositional formula in CNF, namely the primal graph, dual graph, and incidence graph. Our notion of treewidth of a CNF-formula (see Section 2) corresponds to the treewidth of the incidence graph.

2 Preliminaries

Finite Structures and Treewidth. Let $\tau = \{R_1, \dots, R_K\}$ be a set of predicate symbols. A *finite structure* \mathcal{A} over τ (a τ -*structure*, for short) is given by a finite domain $A = \text{dom}(\mathcal{A})$ and relations $R_i^{\mathcal{A}} \subseteq A^\alpha$, where α is the arity of $R_i \in \tau$. A *tree decomposition* \mathcal{T} of a τ -structure \mathcal{A} is a pair $\langle T, (A_t)_{t \in T} \rangle$ where T is a tree and each A_t is a subset of A , s.t. the following properties hold: (1) Every $a \in A$ is contained in some A_t . (2) For every $R_i \in \tau$ and every tuple $(a_1, \dots, a_\alpha) \in R_i^{\mathcal{A}}$, there exists a node $t \in T$ with $\{a_1, \dots, a_\alpha\} \subseteq A_t$. (3) For every $a \in A$, $\{t \mid a \in A_t\}$ induces a subtree of T .

The sets A_t are called the *bags* of \mathcal{T} . The *width* of a tree decomposition $\langle T, (A_t)_{t \in T} \rangle$ is defined as $\max\{|A_t| \mid t \in T\} - 1$. The *treewidth* of \mathcal{A} is the minimal width of all tree decompositions of \mathcal{A} . It is denoted as $\text{tw}(\mathcal{A})$. For given $w \geq 1$, it can be decided in linear time if some structure has treewidth $\leq w$. Moreover, in case of a positive answer, a tree decomposition of width w can be computed in linear time [15].

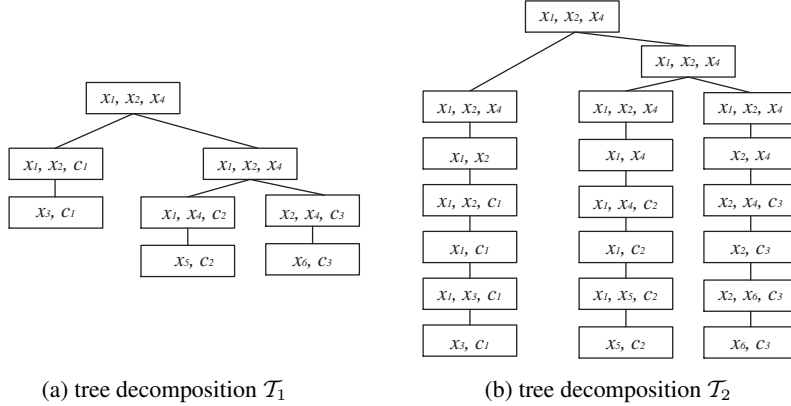


Fig. 1. Tree decompositions of formula φ of Example 1.

Example 1 ([2]). We can represent propositional formulae in CNF as finite structures over the alphabet $\tau = \{cl(\cdot), var(\cdot), pos(\cdot, \cdot), neg(\cdot, \cdot)\}$ where $cl(z)$ (resp. $var(z)$) means that z is a clause (resp. a variable) and $pos(x, c)$ (resp. $neg(x, c)$) means that x occurs unnegated (resp. negated) in the clause c . For instance, the formula $\varphi = (x_1 \vee \neg x_2 \vee x_3) \wedge (\neg x_1 \vee x_4 \vee \neg x_5) \wedge (x_2 \vee \neg x_4 \vee x_6)$ corresponds to the structure \mathcal{A} given by the set of ground atoms $\{var(x_1), var(x_2), var(x_3), var(x_4), var(x_5), var(x_6), cl(c_1), cl(c_2), cl(c_3), pos(x_1, c_1), pos(x_3, c_1), pos(x_4, c_2), pos(x_2, c_3), pos(x_6, c_3), neg(x_2, c_1), neg(x_1, c_2), neg(x_5, c_2), neg(x_4, c_3)\}$. Two tree decompositions \mathcal{T}_1 and \mathcal{T}_2 of \mathcal{A} are given in Figure 1. Note that the maximal size of the bags is 3 in both decompositions. Hence, the treewidth is ≤ 2 . On the other hand, it can be shown that these tree decompositions are optimal in the sense that we have $tw(\varphi) = tw(\mathcal{A}) = 2$. \diamond

In [7], it was shown that the following form of *normalized tree decompositions* can be obtained in linear time: (1) All bags contain either w or $w + 1$ pairwise distinct elements. W.l.o.g., we may assume that the domain contains at least w elements. (2) Every internal node $t \in T$ has either 1 or 2 child nodes. (3) If a node t has one child node t' , then the bag A_t is obtained from $A_{t'}$ either by removing one element or by introducing a new element. (4) If a node t has two child nodes then these child nodes have identical bags as t . In this case, we call t a *branch node*. In this paper, we only deal with finite structures representing propositional formulae in CNF (possibly Horn). Hence, the domain elements are either variables or clauses. Consequently, in case (3), we call a node t in the tree decomposition a *variable removal node*, a *clause removal node*, a *variable introduction node*, or a *clause introduction node*, respectively.

The tree decomposition \mathcal{T}_2 in Figure 1 is normalized in this sense.

MSO and Monadic Datalog. MSO extends First Order logic (FO) by the use of *set variables* (denoted by upper case letters), which range over sets of domain elements. In contrast, the *individual variables* (denoted by lower case letters) range over single domain elements. An MSO formula $\varphi(x)$ with exactly one free individual variable is called a *unary query*. *Datalog* programs are function-free logic programs. The (minimal-model) semantics can be defined as the least fixpoint (lfp) of applying the immediate consequence operator. Predicates occurring only in the body of rules are called *extensional*. Predicates occurring also in the head of some rule are called *intensional*.

Let \mathcal{A} be a τ -structure of treewidth $w \geq 1$. Then we define the extended signature $\tau_{td} = \tau \cup \{\text{root}, \text{leaf}, \text{child}_1, \text{child}_2, \text{bag}\}$, where the unary predicates root and leaf as well as the binary predicates child_1 and child_2 are used to represent the tree of a tree decomposition (of width w) in the obvious way. Finally, predicate bag has arity $k + 2$ with $k \leq w$, where $\text{bag}(t, a_0, \dots, a_k)$ means that the bag at node t is (a_0, \dots, a_k) .

In [7], the following connection between unary MSO queries over structures with bounded treewidth and monadic datalog was established:

Theorem 1. *Let τ and $w \geq 1$ be arbitrary but fixed. Every MSO-definable unary query over τ -structures of treewidth w is also definable by a monadic datalog program over τ_{td} . Moreover, the resulting program can be evaluated in linear time w.r.t. the size of the original τ -structure.*

3 Counting all models

We start our investigation of counting problems with the #SAT problem, i.e.: given a clause set \mathcal{C} over variables V , count the number of all models $J \subseteq V$ of \mathcal{C} (We identify an assignment with the set of atoms that are true in it). Suppose that an instance of #SAT is given as a τ_{td} -structure with $\tau_{td} = \{\text{cl}, \text{var}, \text{pos}, \text{neg}, \text{root}, \text{leaf}, \text{child}_1, \text{child}_2, \text{bag}\}$, encoding a clause set together with a tree decomposition \mathcal{T} of width w (as explained Example 1). An extended datalog program for #SAT is displayed in Figure 2.

In this program, we adhere to the following notational conventions: Lower case letters v, c, x , and j (possibly with subscripts) are used as datalog variables for a single node in \mathcal{T} , for a single clause, for a single propositional variable, or for an integer number, respectively. Upper case letters are used as datalog variables denoting sets of variables (in the case of X, P, N) or sets of clauses (in the case of C). In particular, for the sake of readability, we present the extensional predicate bag in the form $\text{bag}(v, X, C)$, where X (resp. C) denotes the set of variables (resp. clauses) in the bag at node v in \mathcal{T} . Note that all these sets are not sets in the general sense, since their cardinality is restricted by the maximal size $w + 1$ of the bags, where w is a fixed constant. Indeed, we ultimately feed these sets to the datalog system DLV in the form of individual arguments of appropriate variants of the predicates involved, see Section 6.

We are also using non-datalog expressions involving the \cup - and \uplus -operator for ordinary resp. disjoint union. They could be easily replaced by “proper” datalog expressions, e.g., $C_1 \cup C_2 = C_u$ can of course be replaced by $\text{union}(C_1, C_2, C_u)$. Moreover, we need arithmetic expressions $j_1 + j_2$ and $j_1 * j_2$ as well as the SUM-operator for the counting. The SUM-operator occurs as the expression $\text{SUM}(j)$ in the rule heads only. Its semantics is like the SUM aggregate function in ordinary SQL, where we first apply a GROUP BY over all remaining head variables to the result of evaluating the conjunctive query in the body of the rule.

For the discussion of the #SAT program below, it is convenient to introduce the following notation: Let \mathcal{C} denote the input clause set with variables in V and tree decomposition \mathcal{T} . For any node v in \mathcal{T} , we write \mathcal{T}_v to denote the subtree of \mathcal{T} rooted at v . By $\text{Cl}(v)$ we denote the clauses in the bag of v while $\text{Cl}(\mathcal{T}_v)$ denotes the clauses that occur in any bag in \mathcal{T}_v . Analogously, we write $\text{Var}(v)$ and $\text{Var}(\mathcal{T}_v)$ as a short-hand for the variables occurring in the bag of v respectively in any bag in \mathcal{T}_v . Finally, the restriction of a clause c to the variables in some set $U \subseteq V$ will be denoted by $c|_U$.

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Program #SAT
/* leaf node. */
sat(v, P, N, C_u, 1) ← leaf(v), bag(v, X, C), partition(X, P, N), true(P, N, C_u, C).
/* variable removal node. */
sat(v, P, N, C_u, j_1 + j_2) ← bag(v, X, C), child_1(v_1, v), bag(v_1, X ⊔ {x}, C),
    sat(v_1, P ⊔ {x}, N, C_u, j_1), sat(v_1, P, N ⊔ {x}, C_u, j_2).
sat(v, P, N, C_u, j) ← bag(v, X, C), child_1(v_1, v), bag(v_1, X ⊔ {x}, C),
    sat(v_1, P ⊔ {x}, N, C_u, j), not sat(v_1, P, N ⊔ {x}, C_u, -).
sat(v, P, N, C_u, j) ← bag(v, X, C), child_1(v_1, v), bag(v_1, X ⊔ {x}, C),
    sat(v_1, P, N ⊔ {x}, C_u, j), not sat(v_1, P ⊔ {x}, N, C_u, -).
/* clause removal node. */
sat(v, P, N, C_u, j) ← bag(v, X, C), child_1(v_1, v), bag(v_1, X, C ⊔ {c}),
    sat(v_1, P, N, C_u ⊔ {c}, j).
/* variable introduction node. */
sat(v, P ⊔ {x}, N, C_u, SUM(j)) ← bag(v, X ⊔ {x}, C), child_1(v_1, v), bag(v_1, X, C),
    sat(v_1, P, N, C_1, j), true({x}, ∅, C_2, C), C_1 ∪ C_2 = C_u.
sat(v, P, N ⊔ {x}, C_u, SUM(j)) ← bag(v, X ⊔ {x}, C), child_1(v_1, v), bag(v_1, X, C),
    sat(v_1, P, N, C_1, j), true(∅, {x}, C_2, C), C_1 ∪ C_2 = C_u.
/* clause introduction node. */
sat(v, P, N, C_u, j) ← bag(v, X, C ⊔ {c}), child_1(v_1, v), bag(v_1, X, C),
    sat(v_1, P, N, C_1, j), true(P, N, C_2, {c}), C_1 ∪ C_2 = C_u.
/* branch node. */
sat(v, P, N, C_u, SUM(j)) ← child_1(v_1, v), bag(v_1, X, C), sat(v_1, P, N, C_1, j_1),
    child_2(v_2, v), bag(v_2, X, C), sat(v_2, P, N, C_2, j_2),
    bag(v, X, C), C_1 ∪ C_2 = C_u, j_1 * j_2 = j.
/* result (at the root node). */
count(SUM(j)) ← root(v), bag(v, X, C), sat(v, P, N, C, j).

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Fig. 2. #SAT program.

The #SAT program contains four intensional predicates *sat*, *true*, *partition*, and *count*. The crucial predicate is $sat(v, P, N, C, j)$ with the following intended meaning: v denotes a node in \mathcal{T} . P and N form a partition of $Var(v)$ representing a truth assignment on $Var(v)$, s.t. all variables in P are true and all variables in N are false. C denotes a subset of $Cl(v)$ and j denotes a positive integer. For arbitrary values of v, P, N, C , we define the following set of truth assignments:

$$\begin{aligned}
 S(v, P, N, C) = \{ J \mid & J \text{ is an extension of } (P, N) \text{ to } Var(\mathcal{T}_v), \\
 & \text{for each } c \in (Cl(\mathcal{T}_v) \setminus Cl(v)) \cup C, c \text{ is true in } J, \\
 & \text{for each } c \in Cl(v) \setminus C, c|_{Var(\mathcal{T}_v)} \text{ is false in } J. \}
 \end{aligned}$$

We can now characterize the least fixpoint (lfp) of the #SAT program as follows.¹

Property A. If $S(v, P, N, C) = \emptyset$ then no atom $sat(v, P, N, C, -)$ is in the lfp of #SAT. If $S(v, P, N, C) \neq \emptyset$ then the following equivalence holds: $sat(v, P, N, C, j)$ is in the lfp of #SAT iff $|S(v, P, N, C)| = j$.

¹ Due to lack of space, most proofs are omitted in this paper (for full proofs, we refer to [16]).

This property implies that, for any given values v, P, N, C , we can derive at most one fact $sat(v, P, N, C, j)$. The main task of the program is the computation of all facts $sat(v, P, N, C, j)$ by means of a bottom-up traversal of the tree decomposition \mathcal{T} . Indeed, all the rules only allow us to derive sat -facts for some node v in \mathcal{T} from sat -facts at the child node(s) of v . Consequently, on the ground level, the program contains only stratified negation, since the not-operator in the rules of variable removal nodes is only applied to sat -facts of the child node v_1 of v .

The other predicates have the following meaning: $true(P, N, C_u, C)$ means that C_u contains precisely those clauses from C which are true in the (partial) assignment given by (P, N) . We do not specify the implementation of this predicate here. It can be easily achieved via the extensional predicates pos and neg . A fact $partition(X, P, N)$ expresses that (P, N) is a partition of X . The predicate $count$ holds the final result. The datalog program in Figure 2 solves the #SAT problem in the following way.

Theorem 2. *Let \mathcal{C} be an instance of #SAT, encoded by a τ_{td} -structure \mathcal{A}_{td} . Then, $count(j)$ with $j \geq 1$ is in the lfp of the #SAT-program evaluated on \mathcal{A}_{td} iff \mathcal{C} is satisfiable and has exactly j models. Moreover, both the construction of the τ_{td} -structure \mathcal{A}_{td} and the evaluation of the program take time $\mathcal{O}(f(tw(\mathcal{C})) * \|\mathcal{C}\|)$ for some function f , if we assume constant runtime for the arithmetic operations.*

Proof. Suppose that the predicate sat indeed fulfills Property A, which can be proved by structural induction on \mathcal{T} . The case distinction over all possible kinds of nodes is rather straightforward – the only non-trivial case being the case of branch nodes.

Now consider the root node v of the tree decomposition \mathcal{T} with $bag(v, X, C)$. A fact $sat(v, P, N, C, j)$ in the lfp means that the assignment (P, N) on the variables X has exactly j extensions to all variables, s.t. all clauses in \mathcal{C} are true. But then, by the semantics of the SUM-operator explained above, the rule with head $count(SUM(j))$ indeed means that a fact $count(j')$ with $j' \geq 1$ is in the lfp iff j' is the number of assignments that satisfy all clauses in \mathcal{C} , i.e., j' is the sum of j over all possible partitions (P, N) of X , s.t. $sat(v, P, N, C, j)$ is in the lfp. We are thus using that the root v of \mathcal{T} is unique and the values of X and C in the bag at v are uniquely determined by v . Moreover, for every pair of (P, N) (together with C , which is fixed for v), the value of j is also uniquely determined.

The linear time data complexity is due to the fact that our #SAT program is essentially a succinct representation of a monadic datalog program extended by a counter j . For instance, in the atom $sat(v, P, N, C, j)$, the sets P, N , and C are subsets of bounded size of the bag of v . Hence, each combination P, N, C could be represented by sets $r, s, t \subseteq \{0, \dots, w\}$ referring to indices of elements in the bag of v . Recall that w is a fixed constant. Hence, $sat(v, P, N, C, j)$ is simply a succinct representation of constantly many predicates of the form $sat_{r,s,t}(v, j)$. Hence, without the counter j , the linear time bound is implicit in Theorem 1. Moreover, j is uniquely determined for every combination of v, P, N, C , and the concrete value of j is computed by simple addition and multiplication of the corresponding values in sat -facts at the child node(s) of v . Hence, maintaining this additional argument j does not destroy the linearity. \square

4 Counting the minimal models

We now extend the #SAT program in order to solve the #CIRCUMSCRIPTION problem, i.e.: given a propositional formula φ , count the number of *minimal* models of φ . The

goal of the program in Figure 3 and 4 is, on the one hand, to keep track of *all* models of a formula φ given by the input τ_{td} -structure. This is done by the *sat*-predicate which works essentially as in the #SAT program. However, at the end of the day, we may only count the *minimal* models. Our #CIRCUMSCRIPTION program therefore also contains an *unsat*-predicate, which is used to propagate “unsat”-conditions in the sense that some model J is minimal only if all strictly smaller assignments $J' \subset J$ do not satisfy φ . Recall that we identify an assignment with the set of atoms that are true in it.

A complication which our program has to overcome is that we have to keep track which unsat-conditions refer to which sat-condition. Thus the *sat*-predicate has an index $i \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ as additional argument. The first four arguments v, i, P, N allow us to associate each *unsat*-fact with the correct *sat*-fact. The *sat*- and *unsat*-predicates have the following meaning: Let v denote a node in the tree decomposition \mathcal{T} . Let the sets P and N (resp. P' and N') denote a partition of $Var(v)$ representing a truth assignment on $Var(v)$, s.t. all variables in P (resp. in P') are true and all variables in N (resp. in N') are false. Let C and C' denote subsets of $Cl(v)$. Furthermore let $i \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ be an index used to distinguish different extensions of a truth assignment and let j be a positive integer used for counting extensions of a truth assignment. Moreover, let the set $S(v, P, N, C)$ of truth assignments be defined as in Section 3. Then, occurrences of the ground facts $sat(v, i, P, N, C, j)$ and $unsat(v, i, P, N, P', N', C')$ in the least fixpoint (lfp) of #CIRCUMSCRIPTION are determined as follows:

Property B. There exists an atom $sat(v, -, P, N, C, -)$ in the lfp of the #CIRCUMSCRIPTION program iff $S(v, P, N, C) \neq \emptyset$. Moreover, a fact $unsat(v, i, P, N, -, -, -, -)$ is in the lfp only if also a fact $sat(v, i, P, N, -, -)$ is. Finally, if $S(v, P, N, C) \neq \emptyset$ then there exists a partition $\{S_{i_1}, \dots, S_{i_n}\}$ with $n \geq 1$ of $S(v, P, N, C)$ which fulfills the following conditions:

1. A fact $sat(v, i, P, N, C, -)$ is contained in the lfp iff $i \in \{i_1, \dots, i_n\}$.
2. The fact $sat(v, i, P, N, C, j)$ is contained in the lfp iff $|S_i| = j$.
3. For every partition (P', N') of $Var(v)$ and every subset $C' \subseteq Cl(v)$, the following two equivalences hold:

The fact $unsat(v, i, P, N, P', N', C')$ is contained in the lfp \Leftrightarrow
there exists a $J \in S_i$ and an assignment $J' \subset J$, s.t. $J' \in S(v, P', N', C') \Leftrightarrow$
for all $J \in S_i$ there exists an assignment $J' \subset J$, s.t. $J' \in S(v, P', N', C')$.

Condition 2 above implies that, for any values v, i, P, N, C , there is at most one fact $sat(v, i, P, N, C, -)$ in the lfp. Condition 3 ensures that, at the root node v of \mathcal{T} , either *all* j models described by a fact $sat(v, i, P, N, C, j)$ are minimal or *none* of them is.

The predicates *true* and *partition* have the same meaning as in the #SAT program. In addition, we have the predicates *auxsat*, *auxunsat*, and *reduce* with the following meaning: Recall that the index i in $sat(v, i, P, N, C, -)$ is used to keep different assignments $J \in S(v, P, N, C)$ apart. Of course, in principle, there can be exponentially many such J . Nonetheless, the predicates *auxsat*, *auxunsat*, and *reduce* guarantee the fixed-parameter tractability in the following way. In the first place, we compute facts $auxsat(v, i_1, i_2, P, N, C, -)$ and $auxunsat(v, i_1, i_2, P, N, P', N', C')$, where we use *pairs of indices* (i_1, i_2) rather than a single index i to associate the *auxunsat*-facts with the correct *auxsat*-fact. Now suppose that for two distinct pairs (i_1, i_2) and (i'_1, i'_2) a fact $auxsat(v, i_1, i_2, P, N, C, -)$ and $auxsat(v, i'_1, i'_2, P, N, C, -)$ exists in the lfp and, moreover, the *auxunsat*-facts for (v, i_1, i_2, P, N) and (v, i'_1, i'_2, P, N) are the

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Program #CIRCUMSCRIPTION
/* leaf node. */
sat(v, 0, P, N, Cu, 1) ← leaf(v), bag(v, X, C), partition(X, P, N), true(P, N, Cu, C).
unsat(v, 0, P, N, P', N', C'u) ← leaf(v),
    sat(v, 0, P, N, -, 1), sat(v, 0, P', N', C'u, 1), P' ⊂ P.
/* variable removal node. */
auxsat(v, i, 0, P, N, Cu, j) ← bag(v, X, C), child1(v1, v), bag(v1, X ⊕ {x}, C),
    sat(v1, i, P ⊕ {x}, N, Cu, j).
auxsat(v, i, 1, P, N, Cu, j) ← bag(v, X, C), child1(v1, v), bag(v1, X ⊕ {x}, C),
    sat(v1, i, P, N ⊕ {x}, Cu, j).
auxunsat(v, i, 0, P, N, P' \ {x}, N' \ {x}, C'u) ← bag(v, X, C), child1(v1, v),
    bag(v1, X ⊕ {x}, C), unsat(v1, i, P ⊕ {x}, N, P', N', C'u).
auxunsat(v, i, 1, P, N, P', N' \ {x}, C'u) ← bag(v, X, C), child1(v1, v),
    bag(v1, X ⊕ {x}, C), unsat(v1, i, P, N ⊕ {x}, P', N', C'u).
/* clause removal node. */
sat(v, i, P, N, Cu, j) ← bag(v, X, C), child1(v1, v), bag(v1, X, C ⊕ {c}),
    sat(v1, i, P, N, Cu ⊕ {c}, j).
unsat(v, i, P, N, P', N', C'u) ← bag(v, X, C), child1(v1, v), bag(v1, X, C ⊕ {c}),
    sat(v1, i, P, N, Cu ⊕ {c}, -), unsat(v1, i, P, N, P', N', C'u ⊕ {c}).
/* variable introduction node. */
sat(v, i, P ⊕ {x}, N, C1 ∪ C2, j) ← bag(v, X ⊕ {x}, C), child1(v1, v), bag(v1, X, C),
    sat(v1, i, P, N, C1, j), true({x}, ∅, C2, C).
sat(v, i, P, N ⊕ {x}, C1 ∪ C2, j) ← bag(v, X ⊕ {x}, C), child1(v1, v), bag(v1, X, C),
    sat(v1, i, P, N, C1, j), true(∅, {x}, C2, C).
unsat(v, i, P ⊕ {x}, N, P' ⊕ {x}, N', C1 ∪ C2) ← bag(v, X ⊕ {x}, C), child1(v1, v),
    bag(v1, X, C), unsat(v1, i, P, N, P', N', C1), true({x}, ∅, C2, C).
unsat(v, i, P ⊕ {x}, N, P', N' ⊕ {x}, C1 ∪ C2) ← bag(v, X ⊕ {x}, C), child1(v1, v),
    bag(v1, X, C), unsat(v1, i, P, N, P', N', C1), true(∅, {x}, C2, C).
unsat(v, i, P ⊕ {x}, N, P, N ⊕ {x}, C1 ∪ C2) ← bag(v, X ⊕ {x}, C), child1(v1, v),
    bag(v1, X, C), sat(v1, i, P, N, C1, -), true(∅, {x}, C2, C).
unsat(v, i, P, N ⊕ {x}, P', N' ⊕ {x}, C1 ∪ C2) ← bag(v, X ⊕ {x}, C), child1(v1, v),
    bag(v1, X, C), unsat(v1, i, P, N, P', N', C1), true(∅, {x}, C2, C).
/* clause introduction node. */
sat(v, i, P, N, C1 ∪ C2, j) ← bag(v, X, C ⊕ {c}), child1(v1, v), bag(v1, X, C),
    sat(v1, i, P, N, C1, j), true(P, N, C2, {c}).
unsat(v, i, P, N, P', N', C1 ∪ C2) ← bag(v, X, C ⊕ {c}), child1(v1, v), bag(v1, X, C),
    unsat(v1, i, P, N, P', N', C1), true(P', N', C2, {c}).

```

Fig. 3. #CIRCUMSCRIPTION program.

same, i.e., for indices i, j , let $Val(v, i, j, P, N) = \{(P', N', C') \mid \text{there exists a fact } auxunsat(v, i, j, P, N, P', N', C') \text{ in the lfp}\}$. Then $Val(v, i_1, i_2, P, N) = Val(v, i'_1, i'_2, P, N)$ holds. Intuitively, this means that the pairs of indices (i_1, i_2) and (i'_1, i'_2) are not distinguishable by the *sat*- and *unsat*-conditions for this particular combination of (v, P, N) . The purpose of the *reduce*-predicate is, in such a situation, to contract (i_1, i_2) and (i'_1, i'_2) to a single index i and to take care of the actual counting and summation. More precisely, a fact $reduce(v, P, N, i, i_1, i_2, j)$ means that the pair


```

Program #CIRCUMSCRIPTION (continued)
/* branch node. */
auxsat( $v, i_1, i_2, P, N, C_1 \cup C_2, j_1 * j_2$ )  $\leftarrow$  bag( $v, X, C$ ), child1( $v_1, v$ ), bag( $v_1, X, C$ ),
    sat( $v_1, i_1, P, N, C_1, j_1$ ), child2( $v_2, v$ ), bag( $v_2, X, C$ ), sat( $v_2, i_2, P, N, C_2, j_2$ )).
auxunsat( $v, i_1, i_2, P, N, P', N', C_1 \cup C_2$ )  $\leftarrow$  bag( $v, X, C$ ),
    child1( $v_1, v$ ), bag( $v_1, X, C$ ), unsat( $v_1, i_1, P, N, P', N', C_1$ ),
    child2( $v_2, v$ ), bag( $v_2, X, C$ ), unsat( $v_2, i_2, P, N, P', N', C_2$ )).
auxunsat( $v, i_1, i_2, P, N, P, N, C_1 \cup C_2$ )  $\leftarrow$  bag( $v, X, C$ ),
    child1( $v_1, v$ ), bag( $v_1, X, C$ ), sat( $v_1, i_1, P, N, C_1, -$ ),
    child2( $v_2, v$ ), bag( $v_2, X, C$ ), unsat( $v_2, i_2, P, N, P, N, C_2$ )).
auxunsat( $v, i_1, i_2, P, N, P, N, C_1 \cup C_2$ )  $\leftarrow$  bag( $v, X, C$ ),
    child1( $v_1, v$ ), bag( $v_1, X, C$ ), unsat( $v_1, i_1, P, N, P, N, C_1$ ),
    child2( $v_2, v$ ), bag( $v_2, X, C$ ), sat( $v_2, i_2, P, N, C_2, -$ )).
/* variable removal and branch node:  $aux \Rightarrow sat$  */
sat( $v, i, P, N, C_u, j$ )  $\leftarrow$  auxsat( $v, i_1, i_2, P, N, C_u, -$ ), reduce( $v, P, N, i, i_1, i_2, j$ ).
unsat( $v, i, P, N, P', N', C'_u$ )  $\leftarrow$  auxunsat( $v, i_1, i_2, P, N, P', N', C'_u$ ),
    reduce( $v, P, N, i, i_1, i_2, -$ ).
/* result (at the root node). */
count(SUM( $j$ ))  $\leftarrow$  root( $v$ ), bag( $v, X, C$ ), sat( $v, i, P, N, C, j$ ),
    not unsat( $v, i, P, N, P', N', C$ )).

```

Fig. 4. #CIRCUMSCRIPTION program.

of indices (i_1, i_2) is mapped to the single index i and that j is the sum of all j' in facts $auxsat(v, i'_1, i'_2, P, N, C, j')$, s.t. (i'_1, i'_2) is mapped to i . In principle, the *reduce*-predicate predicate can be realized in datalog (see [16]). However, in the long run, an efficient implementation via hash tables inside the datalog processor is clearly preferable. The datalog program in Figure 3 and 4 solves the #CIRCUMSCRIPTION problem in the following way:

Theorem 3. *Let \mathcal{C} be an instance of #CIRCUMSCRIPTION, encoded by a τ_{td} -structure \mathcal{A}_{td} . Then, $count(j)$ with $j \geq 1$ is in the lfp of the #CIRCUMSCRIPTION-program evaluated on \mathcal{A}_{td} iff \mathcal{C} is satisfiable and has exactly j (subset) minimal models. Moreover, both the construction of the τ_{td} -structure \mathcal{A}_{td} and the evaluation of the program take time $\mathcal{O}(f(tw(\mathcal{C})) * \|\mathcal{C}\|)$ for some function f , if we assume constant runtime for the arithmetic operations.*

Proof. The proof is based on essentially the same ideas as the proof of Theorem 2. In particular, the correctness follows easily as soon as the correctness of Property B is established, which can be done by structural induction. The linear time bound is again shown via Theorem 1 and the fact that the arithmetic operations required for the counting do not destroy the linear time data complexity. \square

5 Horn abduction

Abduction is an important method in artificial intelligence and, in particular, in diagnosis. A propositional abduction problem (PAP) is given by a tuple $\mathcal{P} = \langle V, H, M, \mathcal{C} \rangle$,

where V is a finite set of variables, $H \subseteq V$ is the set of hypotheses, $M \subseteq V$ is the set of manifestations and \mathcal{C} is a consistent theory in the form of a propositional clause set. A set $\mathcal{S} \subseteq H$ is a *solution* to \mathcal{P} if $\mathcal{C} \cup \mathcal{S}$ is consistent and $\mathcal{C} \cup \mathcal{S} \models M$ holds.

In [8], the decision problem (i.e., does a given PAP have a solution) of propositional abduction with bounded treewidth was considered. In order to illustrate the wide applicability of the datalog approach, we concentrate on the special case of #HORN-ABDUCTION, i.e., given a PAP \mathcal{P} whose theory is a set of Horn clauses, count the number of solutions \mathcal{S} of \mathcal{P} . The datalog program in Figure 5 has a significantly different flavour than the ones in the previous sections and can be considered as prototypical for rule-based problems.

Before we explain this program, we introduce some useful terminology and conventions: In general, Horn clauses are either rules, facts, or goals. For our purposes, it is convenient to consider every clause r of \mathcal{C} as a *rule* consisting of a head (denoted as $head(r)$) and a body (denoted as $body(r)$). Goals of the form $\neg p_1 \vee \dots \vee \neg p_k$ are thus considered as rules of the form $p_1 \wedge \dots \wedge p_k \rightarrow \perp$ and a fact q in \mathcal{C} is considered as a rule of the form $\rightarrow q$ with an empty body. A PAP is represented by a τ -structure with $\tau = \{cl, var, neg, pos, hyp, man\}$, where the predicates hyp and man indicate that some variable a is a hypothesis (i.e., $hyp(a)$) or a manifestation (i.e., $man(a)$). By the above consideration, $var(\perp)$ is now also fulfilled. Moreover, $neg(a, r)$ (resp. $pos(a, r)$) means that a occurs in the body of r (resp. in the head of r). For the input tree decomposition, we assume that a bag containing some rule r also contains the variable a in the head of r . This will greatly simplify the presentation of our datalog program and can, in the worst-case, only double the width of the resulting decomposition.

For $\mathcal{S} \subseteq V \cup \{\perp\}$, we write \mathcal{S}^+ to denote the *closure* of \mathcal{S} w.r.t. the theory \mathcal{C} , i.e.: An element $q \in V \cup \{\perp\}$ is contained in \mathcal{S}^+ iff either $q \in \mathcal{S}$ or there exists a “derivation sequence” of q from \mathcal{S} in \mathcal{C} of the form $\mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{S} \cup \{q_1\} \rightarrow \mathcal{S} \cup \{q_1, q_2\} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \mathcal{S} \cup \{q_1, \dots, q_n\}$, s.t. $q_n = q$ and for every $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, there exists a rule $r_i \in \mathcal{C}$ with $body(r_i) \subseteq \mathcal{S} \cup \{q_1, \dots, q_{i-1}\}$ and $head(r_i) = q_i$. Hence, a subset $\mathcal{S} \subseteq H$ is a solution of the PAP \mathcal{P} iff $\perp \notin \mathcal{S}^+$ and $M \subseteq \mathcal{S}^+$. Our #HORN-ABDUCTION program searches for the number of solutions $\mathcal{S} \subseteq H$ by applying precisely this criterion. The predicate $solve(v, S, i, C^o, RC, \Delta C, RO, j)$, which is at the heart of the #HORN-ABDUCTION program, has the following intended meaning: v denotes a node in the tree decomposition \mathcal{T} . S is the projection of a solution \mathcal{S} onto $Hyp(v)$ and C^o is the projection of $\mathcal{S}^+ \setminus \mathcal{S}$ onto $Var(v)$. We consider $\mathcal{S}^+ \setminus \mathcal{S}$ as well as C^o as ordered (which is indicated by the superscript o) w.r.t. some derivation sequence of \mathcal{S}^+ from \mathcal{S} . The arguments RC , ΔC , and RO are used to check that C^o is indeed the projection of $\mathcal{S}^+ \setminus \mathcal{S}$ onto $Var(v)$. Informally, the arguments RC and ΔC ensure that C^o is not too big, while RO ensures that C^o is not too small. These tasks are accomplished as follows: RC contains those rules in v which are used in the above derivation sequence. Furthermore, the set ΔC contains those variables of C^o , for which we have already found the corresponding derivation rule. Of course, in the bottom-up traversal of the tree decomposition, every element of C^o ultimately has to end up in ΔC . On the other hand, RO contains those rules r in the bag of v which do not constitute a contradiction with the closedness of \mathcal{S}^+ , i.e., either the head of r is contained in \mathcal{S}^+ anyway or we have already encountered in $Var(\mathcal{T}_v)$ a variable in $body(r)$ which is not contained in \mathcal{S}^+ . The last argument j is used to count the number of different solutions.

In the program, we again use \cup and \uplus to denote ordinary union resp. disjoint union. By $C^o \uplus \{x\}$, we mean that x is arbitrarily “inserted” into C^o , leaving the order of the

```

Program #HORN-ABDUCTION
/* leaf node. */
solve(v, S, 0, Co, RC, ΔC, RO1 ∪ RO2, 1) ← leaf(v), bag(v, X, R), S ∩ Co = ∅,
  Co ⊆ X, RC ⊆ R, svar(v, S), explains(v, S ∪ Co), consistent(RC, S, Co, X),
  derived(ΔC, Co, RC), outside(RO1, R, X \ (S ∪ Co)), inside(RO2, R, S ∪ Co).
/* variable removal node. */
aux(v, S, i, 0, Co, RC, ΔC, RO, j) ← bag(v, X, R), child1(v1, v), bag(v1, X ⊕ {x}, R),
  solve(v1, S ⊕ {x}, i, Co, RC, ΔC, RO, j).
aux(v, S, i, 1, Co, RC, ΔC, RO, j) ← bag(v, X, R), child1(v1, v), bag(v1, X ⊕ {x}, R),
  solve(v1, S, i, Co ⊕ {x}, RC, ΔC ⊕ {x}, RO, j).
aux(v, S, i, 1, Co, RC, ΔC, RO, j) ← bag(v, X, R), child1(v1, v), bag(v1, X ⊕ {x}, R),
  solve(v1, S, i, Co, RC, ΔC, RO, j), x ∉ S, x ∉ Co.
/* rule removal node. */
solve(v, S, i, Co, RC, ΔC, RO, j) ← bag(v, X, R), child1(v1, v), bag(v1, X, R ⊕ {r}),
  solve(v1, S, i, Co, RC ⊕ {r}, ΔC, RO ⊕ {r}, j).
solve(v, S, i, Co, RC, ΔC, RO, j) ← bag(v, X, R), child1(v1, v), bag(v1, X, R ⊕ {r}),
  solve(v1, S, i, Co, RC, ΔC, RO ⊕ {r}, j).
/* variable introduction node. */
solve(v, S ⊕ {x}, i, Co, RC, ΔC, RO, j) ← bag(v, X ⊕ {x}, R), child1(v1, v),
  bag(v1, X, R), solve(v1, S, i, Co, RC, ΔC, RO, j), hyp(x).
solve(v, S, i, Co ⊕ {x}, RC, ΔC, RO, j) ← bag(v, X ⊕ {x}, R), child1(v1, v),
  bag(v1, X, R), solve(v1, S, i, Co, RC, ΔC, RO, j),
  consistent(RC, S, Co ⊕ {x}, X ⊕ {x}).
solve(v, S, i, Co, RC, ΔC, RO1 ∪ RO2, j) ← bag(v, X ⊕ {x}, R), child1(v1, v),
  bag(v1, X, R), solve(v1, S, i, Co, RC, ΔC, RO1, j), not man(x),
  outside(RO2, R, {x}), consistent(RC, S, Co, X ⊕ {x}).
/* rule introduction node. */
solve(v, S, i, Co, RC ⊕ {r}, ΔC ⊕ {x}, RO ⊕ {r}, j) ← bag(v, X, R ⊕ {r}), child1(v1, v),
  bag(v1, X, R), solve(v1, S, i, Co, RC, ΔC, RO, j), consistent(RC ⊕ {r}, S, Co, X),
  pos(x, r), x ∉ ΔC, x ≠ ⊥.
solve(v, S, i, Co, RC, ΔC, RO1 ∪ RO2 ∪ RO3, j) ← bag(v, X, R ⊕ {r}), child1(v1, v),
  bag(v1, X, R), solve(v1, S, i, Co, RC, ΔC, RO1, j),
  outside(RO2, R ⊕ {r}, X \ (S ⊕ Co)), inside(RO3, R ⊕ {r}, S ⊕ Co).
/* branch node. */
aux(v, S, i1, i2, Co, RC, ΔC1 ⊕ ΔC2, RO1 ⊕ RO2, j1 * j2) ← bag(v, X, R),
  child1(v1, v), bag(v1, X, R), solve(v1, S, i1, Co, RC, ΔC1, RO1, j1),
  child2(v2, v), bag(v2, X, R), solve(v2, S, i2, Co, RC, ΔC2, RO2, j2),
  derived(ΔC, Co, RC), ΔC1 ∩ ΔC2 = ΔC.
/* variable removal and branch node: aux ⇒ solve */
solve(v, S, i, Co, RC, ΔC, RO, j) ← aux(v, S, i1, i2, Co, RC, ΔC, RO, j'),
  reduce(v, S, i, i1, i2, j).
/* result (at the root node). */
count(SUM(j)) ← root(v), bag(v, X, R), solve(v, S, i, Co, RC, ΔC, RO, j),
  Co = ΔC, RO = R, not unsuccess(S, i, Co).
unsuccess(S, i, C1o) ← root(v), bag(v, X, R), solve(v, S, i, C2o, RC, ΔC, RO, j),
  C2o = ΔC, RO = R, C2o < C1o.

```

Fig. 5. #HORN-ABDUCTION program.

remaining elements unchanged. Analogously to the #CIRCUMSCRIPTION program, we need an index i in order to distinguish between different derivation sequences leading to different orderings on the elements in $S^+ \setminus S$. Moreover, we need an *aux*-predicate maintaining pairs of indices in case of variable removable and branch nodes. Moreover, we also need a *reduce*-predicate to contract *aux*-facts $aux(v, S, i_1, i_2, \dots)$ and $aux(v, S, i'_1, i'_2, \dots)$ for partial solutions which are indistinguishable by the *aux*-facts in the lfp. The actual counting and summation is again done in the *reduce*-predicate.

Formally, the correctness of the #HORN-ABDUCTION program can be shown via the Property C defined below. Let $Hyp(v)$, $Man(v)$, $Hyp(\mathcal{T}_v)$, and $Man(\mathcal{T}_v)$ denote the restriction of H and M to the variables in the bag of v or in any bag in \mathcal{T}_v , respectively. For arbitrary values of $v, S, C^o, RC, \Delta C$, and RO , we define the following set of extensions \bar{S} of S to $Hyp(\mathcal{T}_v)$:

$$Sol(v, S, C^o, RC, \Delta C, RO) = \{ \bar{S} \mid S \subseteq \bar{S} \subseteq Hyp(\mathcal{T}_v) \text{ and } \exists \bar{C}^o \exists \bar{RC} \text{ with } \\ C^o \subseteq \bar{C}^o \subseteq Var(\mathcal{T}_v) \text{ and } RC \subseteq \bar{RC} \subseteq Cl(\mathcal{T}_v), \text{ s.t.}$$

1. $\bar{S} \cap \bar{C}^o = \emptyset$, $\perp \notin \bar{C}^o$, and $Man(\mathcal{T}_v) \subseteq \bar{S} \cup \bar{C}^o$.
2. $\forall r \in \bar{RC}$, $head(r) \in \bar{C}^o$ and $\forall p \in body(r) \cap Var(\mathcal{T}_v)$: either $p \in \bar{S}$ or $p \in \bar{C}^o$ with $p < head(r)$.
3. $RO = \{r \in Cl(v) \mid body(r) \cap Var(\mathcal{T}_v) \not\subseteq \bar{S} \cup \bar{C}^o\} \cup \{r \in Cl(v) \mid head(r) \in S \cup C^o\}$ and $\forall r \in Cl(\mathcal{T}_v) \setminus Cl(v)$, if $head(r) \notin \bar{S} \cup \bar{C}^o$ then $body(r) \not\subseteq \bar{S} \cup \bar{C}^o$.
4. $\Delta C = \{p \in C^o \mid r \in \bar{RC}, head(r) = p\}$ and $\forall p \in C^o \setminus \Delta C$, $\exists r \in \bar{RC}$ with $head(r) = p$.

Then, occurrences of the ground facts $solve(v, S, i, C^o, RC, \Delta C, RO, j)$ in the lfp of #HORN-ABDUCTION are determined as follows:

Property C. If $Sol(v, S, C^o, RC, \Delta C, RO) = \emptyset$ then no atom $solve(v, S, -, C^o, RC, \Delta C, RO, -)$ is in the lfp of #HORN-ABDUCTION. On the other hand, if $Sol(v, S, C^o, RC, \Delta C, RO) \neq \emptyset$ then the following conditions are fulfilled:

(a) A fact $solve(v, S, -, C^o, RC, \Delta C, RO, j)$ is in the lfp of #HORN-ABDUCTION iff $|Sol(v, S, C^o, RC, \Delta C, RO)| = j$.

(b) For any further tuple of values $(C_1^o, RC_1, \Delta C_1, RO_1)$ we have $Sol(v, S, C^o, RC, \Delta C, RO) = Sol(v, S, C_1^o, RC_1, \Delta C_1, RO_1)$ iff there exists an index i and a value j , s.t. there are facts $solve(v, S, i, C^o, RC, \Delta C, RO, j)$ and $solve(v, S, i, C_1^o, RC_1, \Delta C_1, RO_1, j)$ in the lfp of #HORN-ABDUCTION.

The other predicates have the following intended meaning: $svar(v, S)$ is used to select sets of hypotheses. It is true for every subset $S \subseteq Hyp(v)$. A fact $explains(v, X)$ is in the lfp iff $Man(v) \subseteq X$. These two predicates are only used to ease the notation at the leaf nodes of \mathcal{T} . The remaining predicates *consistent*, *outside*, *inside*, and *derived* take care of the conditions 2 – 4 of the definition of $Sol(v, S, C^o, RC, \Delta C, RO)$ in the following way: A fact $consistent(RC, S, C^o, X)$ is in the lfp iff $\forall r \in RC$ we have $head(r) \in C^o$ and $\forall p \in body(r) \cap X$ it holds that either $p \in S$ or $p \in C^o$ with $p < head(r)$, i.e. the rules in RC are only used to derive greater variables from smaller ones (plus variables from S), cf. condition 2 above. A fact $outside(RO, R, X)$ is in the lfp iff $RO = \{r \in R \mid body(r) \cap X \neq \emptyset\}$. Hence, for $X \subseteq V \setminus S^+$, the rules in RO do not constitute a contradiction with the closedness of S^+ because their bodies have a variable of X (and, therefore, outside S^+) in their body. A fact $inside(RO, R, X)$ is in the lfp iff $RO = \{r \in R \mid head(r) \in X\}$. Hence, for $X \subseteq S^+$, the rules in RO do not constitute a contradiction with the closedness of S^+ because their head is inside

this set. A fact $derived(\Delta C, C^o, RC)$ means that ΔC contains those variables of C^o for which RC already contains the rule which is used in the last step of the derivation, i.e., $\Delta C = \{q \in C^o \mid r \in RC, q = head(r)\}$. Analogously to Theorems 2 and 3, the #HORN-ABDUCTION-program in Figure 5 has the following properties:

Theorem 4. *Let $\mathcal{P} = \langle V, H, M, C \rangle$ be an instance of #HORN-ABDUCTION, encoded by a τ_{td} -structure \mathcal{A}_{td} . Then, $count(j)$ with $j \geq 1$ is in the lfp of the #HORN-ABDUCTION-program evaluated on \mathcal{A}_{td} iff the PAP \mathcal{P} is solvable and has j solutions. Moreover, both the construction of the τ_{td} -structure \mathcal{A}_{td} and the evaluation of the program take time $\mathcal{O}(f(tw(\mathcal{P})) * \|\mathcal{P}\|)$ for some function f , if we assume constant runtime for the arithmetic operations.*

6 Experimental Evaluation

A practical evaluation of the monadic datalog approach presented in earlier work [7] is still missing. So far, datalog programs (like the ones established in [7, 8]) only served as a “specification” for an implementation in C++, rather than being used as a method of its own for solving the problem. However, using the datalog approach directly would be very appealing, for instance, for rapid prototyping. Below we report on some first lessons learned when experimenting with implementations of the #SAT program.

When evaluating the #SAT-program on a datalog engine, several obstacles have to be overcome: First, encodings for the non-standard datalog operations, especially those for set arithmetic, are non-trivial and must be done very carefully (avoiding the introduction of cycles, etc.). A recent extension of the DLV-system [11], which is called DLV-Complex (see <http://www.mat.unical.it/dlv-complex>), provides special built-in predicates for set arithmetic. Our experiments showed that such built-ins normally lead to a better performance than a direct realization of the #SAT-program in “pure” datalog. Another interesting observation was that the DLV-system did not recognize that the $solve()$ -predicate can be evaluated without any cycles by a bottom-up traversal of the tree-decomposition. We therefore relaxed the separation of the program and the data and generated the programs using predicates $solve_v()$, for each node v in the tree-decomposition instead of having v as an argument in $solve()$ – thus making the acyclicity explicit. This led to a significant speed-up. Note that we could have put more and more computation tasks into the generation of the datalog program. However, to keep the method generic (w.r.t. different problems) we restricted ourselves to exploit only *structural information*, i.e. the shape of the tree decomposition. Further, DLV is handicapped in the way that no values bigger than 10^{10} can be processed.

We carried out experiments with two implementations of our #SAT program: one executing the datalog program directly on DLV-complex (compiling the tree structure into the program as discussed above) and one using a general-purpose, Turing complete programming language (in contrast to [7, 8], we used Haskell rather than C++, because we found it more convenient). Table 1 shows a glimpse of our results for various values of the treewidth (tw), number of variables ($\# vars$), clauses ($\# clauses$) and nodes in the tree decomposition ($\# nodes$). The experiments were done on a recent Core2Duo processor with 2GB of RAM and two cores at 1.86 GHz. The time was measured with the Unix tool “time”. DLV was called with the default optimization parameters. Haskell was compiled with increased optimization levels. Comparing a compiled program with an interpreted program might be “unfair”, but the Haskell program does not need to be

tw	# vars	# clauses	# nodes	# models	Haskell	datalog
3	75	25	220	2.1E13	0.00	5.67
3	150	50	439	2.2E25	0.00	22.22
3	300	100	949	4.6E54	0.00	177.90
4	75	25	214	9.8E11	0.00	6.07
4	150	50	453	9.0E28	0.00	22.72
4	300	100	950	2.6E52	0.01	233.24
5	300	100	913	2.3E51	0.01	166.72
6	300	100	981	1.7E53	0.02	141.20
7	300	100	979	3.6E52	0.04	259.97
10	309	103	1044	5.1E48	4.12	2841.10

Table 1. Processing Time in sec. for #SAT.

recompiled when the tree changes whereas the DLV program has to be generated for each instance.

In theory, our #SAT algorithm specified in terms of a datalog program is fixed-parameter linear whenever the program is evaluated in an “optimal” way. This is what our Haskell implementation does. For the time being, it is unclear how the design of the datalog program (or the underlying datalog engine) has to be changed such that the datalog engine yields similar results. This is subject of ongoing research. Nevertheless the datalog approach scales reasonably for instances of medium size. Therefore, already now, datalog engines can be employed as tools for rapid prototyping and to verify specifications, which are planned to be realized by a program in another language.

7 Conclusion

We have shown that the monadic datalog approach of [7] can be extended to counting problems defined via MSO. It should be noted that – as opposed to [13, 14] – our ultimate goal is not an efficient algorithm for the #SAT problem. Instead we are aiming at a general-purpose method which allows us to systematically turn theoretical tractability results based on Courcelle’s Theorem and generalizations thereof into efficient computations. The experiments with our proof-of-concept implementation demonstrate that our goal is realistic even though there is still a lot of work ahead of us.

Analogously to [13, 14], our datalog programs ultimately follow a dynamic programming approach. This is not surprising if we keep the crucial observation underlying Courcelle’s Theorem in mind: Consider a structure \mathcal{A} with tree decomposition \mathcal{T} and some node s in \mathcal{T} . If a domain element a in some bag above s and an element b below s jointly occur in some tuple in \mathcal{A} then – by the definition of tree decompositions – b also occurs in the bag of s . Hence, the essential properties of the substructure induced by the subtree rooted at s can be described in terms of the elements in the bag of s – without taking the concrete form of the subtree rooted at s into account. Indeed, our #SAT program behaves very similar to the dynamic programming algorithm in [14] for the incidence graph. Nevertheless, we find the declarative style of datalog appealing and it has proved convenient in tackling not only #P problems but also the #NP-problem #CIRCUMSCRIPTION. Moreover, the use of datalog allows us to take advantage of all future improvements of datalog engines, which is a very active research area [17].

As future work in this area, we are planning to prove a general expressivity result as to how monadic datalog has to be extended in order to be applicable to any MSO-based counting problem over structures with bounded treewidth. Moreover, we also want to integrate further extensions of Courcelle’s Theorem (like sum, minimum, and maximum, which are studied in [3]) into the monadic datalog approach of [7]. As far as our implementation on top of DLV is concerned, we have already identified some directions of future work in Section 6. Note that we have so far used DLV only as a “black box” by converting a #SAT problem instance plus the extended datalog program for #SAT into the DLV syntax. Integrating some of the extensions into the datalog system itself (e.g., an efficient implementation of the *reduce*-predicate in Figures 4 and 5 via hash tables) would clearly help to improve the performance.

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