CS5126: Logic Programming and Constraints

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Searching a Derivation Tree

Rule Order

Does not affect the answers, only in the sequence they are discovered. However, it can

- affect how quickly an answer is found,
- determine if an answer is ever found

Literal Order

A selection derivation step $(\mathcal{G}_1 | \mathcal{C}_1) \Longrightarrow (\mathcal{G}_2 | \mathcal{C}_2)$, is defined as follows. Suppose \mathcal{G}_1 is of the form $L_1, \dots, L_i, \dots, L_n$ where L_i is selected.

- ▶ L_i is a constraint: \mathscr{G}_2 is L_2, \dots, L_n and \mathscr{C}_2 is $\mathscr{C}_1 \land L_i$. If *solve*(\mathscr{C}_2) ≡ *false*, then ($\mathscr{G}_2 | \mathscr{C}_2$) is a *false* state.
- L_i is an atom:

 \mathscr{C}_2 is \mathscr{C}_1 , and \mathscr{G}_2 is a rewriting of \mathscr{G}_1 at L_i using some rule R.

The variables in \mathscr{G}_2 are renamed away from $(\mathscr{G}_1 | \mathscr{C}_1)$. If there is no such *R*, then then $(\mathscr{G}_2 | \mathscr{C}_2)$ is a *false* state.

If the solver were *complete*, then computing answers is is *independent* of literal order. Otherwise, we can get infinite derivations when in fact the constraints are unsatisfiable.

Any answer constraint is *always correct* (it never describes an error state) regardless of the solver.

Modes of Usage

A *mode of usage* for a predicate *p* is a description of the arguments of *p* encountered at runtime.

A goal G satisfies a mode of usage if for every state in the derivation tree for G of the form:

$$p(s_1,\cdots,s_n),L_1,\cdots,L_m \mid C$$

the effect of the constraint store *C* on the arguments s_1, \dots, s_n of *p* is correctly described by the mode of usage.

Examples of Descriptions

boundedness

"the second argument is bound"

- eg. bound to anything: $p(X, Y) \mid Y = [Head | Tail]$
- eg. bound to a fixed length list: $p(X, Y) | Y = [Z_1, Z_2, Z_3]$

groundness

"the second argument is ground"

- eg. equal to anything: $p(X, Y) \mid Y = 3$.
- eg. equal to some specific value: p(X, Y) | Y = 3.
- constrained

"the second argument satsifies a certain constraint: $p(X, Y) \mid 1 \le Y \le 9$.

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Example

sumlist([], 0).sumlist([N | L], N + S) :- sumlist(L, S).

Mode of Usage: first argument is grounded to a list of numbers

In this mode of usage, the derivation tree is *linear* in the size of the input list.

Note: When considering tree, an important factor is whether one (or a few) solutions are sought, or if *all* solutions are sought.

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Example

(1) sum(N, S + N) :- sum(N - 1, S).(2) sum(0, 0).

A classic example of wrong rule order: $sum(1, S) \mid true$ $sum(0, S_1) \mid S = 1 + S_1 \qquad \Box \mid 1 = 0 (false)$ $sum(-1, S_2) \mid S = 1 + S_2 \qquad \Box \mid S = 1$ $sum(-2, S_3) \mid S = 1 + S_3 \qquad \Box \mid -1 = 1 (false)$

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Example - attempt 2

(3) sum(0, 0). (4) sum(N, S + N) :- sum(N - 1, S).

We have reversed the rule order, but still:

```
sum(1,0) | true
sum(0,-1) | true
sum(-1,-1) | true
sum(-2,0) | true
sum(-3,2) | true
\downarrow
\vdots
```

Clearly the intended mode of usage is that the first argument is non-negative.

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Example - attempt 3

(5) sum(0, 0).
(6) sum(N, S + N) :- sum(N - 1, S), N >= 1.

Note that the (new) constraint $N \ge 1$ is *redundant*.

$$sum(1,0) \mid true$$

$$sum(0,-1), 0 \ge 1 \mid true$$

$$sum(-1,-1) - 1 \ge 1, 0 \ge 1 \mid true$$

$$sum(-2,0) - 2 \ge 1, -1 \ge 1, 0 \ge 1 \mid true$$

$$sum(-3,2) - 3 \ge 1, -2 \ge 1, -1 \ge 1, 0 \ge 1 \mid true$$

$$\bigcup$$

$$\vdots$$

The problem is that the new constraint is reachable only after the recursive call because of left-to-right selection.

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Example - final attempt 4

- (7) sum(0, 0).
- (8) $sum(N, S + N) :- N \ge 1$, sum(N 1, S).

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- > ?- sum(0, 1) is finitely failed
- ?- sum(1, S) returns S = 1

Literal Ordering

A general guidline:

ensure failure occurs as soon as possible, and delay choices to as late as possible.

We have seen examples of early failure.

Example of Late Choice: run goals with ONE answer first.

A tree is deterministic if it is finite and each node has at most one descendant which is not failed. A predicate is deterministic (for a mode of usage) if for any goal $p(\dots)$ (satisfying the mode), the tree is deterministic.

For the mode $\textit{sum}(\cdots)$ where the first argument is ground, the predicate sum is not deterministic in:

```
(5) sum(0, 0).
(6) sum(N, S + N) :- sum(N - 1, S), N >= 1.
```

but is deterministic in:

```
(7) sum(0, 0).
(8) sum(N, S + N) :- N >= 1, sum(N - 1, S).
```

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Deterministic Predicates

```
father(a, b).
...
mother(b, c).
...
grandfather(Z, X) :- father(Z, Y), father(Y, X).
grandfather(Z, X) :- father(Z, Y), mother(Y, X).
```

Consider the mode of grandfather (Z, X) where X is ground (who is the grandfather of X?).

Note that the first literal in both rules are NOT deterministic.

Now swap literals so that deterministic ones come first:

```
gradfather(Z, X) :- father(Y, X), father(Z, Y).
gradfather(Z, X) :- mother(Y, X), father(Z, Y).
```

This is nore efficient. (Why?)

Deterministic Predicates

As a natural extension to determinism is the guideline: run predicates with *fewer* answers first.

```
parent(Y, X) :- father(Y, X).
parent(Y, X) :- mother(Y, X).
grandfather(Z, X) :- father(Z, Y), parent(Y, X).
```

Consider the mode of ${\tt grandfather}\,({\tt Z}\,,\,\,{\tt X})$ where {\tt X} is ground (who is the grandfather of X?).

The above is not efficient. Much better is:

grandfather(Z, X) :- parent(Y, X), father(Z, Y).

(Why?)

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If-Then-Else and Once

If-Then-Else

 $(G \longrightarrow G_t; G_e) \mid C$ executes as follows: if $(G \mid C)$

- succeeds with answer C_1 , then we derive $(G_t | C_1)$
- finitely fails, then we derive $(G_e | C)$

Example:

abs(X, Y) :- $(X \ge 0 -> Y = X; Y = -X)$.

Once

 $(once(G), \tilde{L}) \mid C$ executes as follows: if $(G \mid C)$

• succeeds with answer C_1 , then we derive $(\tilde{L} | C_1)$

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finitely fails, then we obtain finite failure.

Adding Redundant Constraints

Two kinds of redundancy in adding a constraint to a rule/goal:

Answer redundancy

This is when we add a constraint that is redundant because it does not change the *answers* of the program

Solver redundancy

This is when we add a constraint that is redundant because it does not change the *answers* of the constraint solver



Answer Redundancy

(1)
$$\sup(0, 0)$$
.
(2) $\sup(N, S + N) :- N \ge 1$, $\sup(N - 1, S)$
 $sum(N,7) | true$
 $sum(N_1,S_1) | N = N_1 + 1, S_1 = 6 - N_1, N_1 \ge 0$
 $sum(N_2,S_2) | N = N_2 + 2, S_2 = 4 - 2 * N_2, N_2 \ge 0$
 $sum(N_3,S_3) | N = N_3 + 3, S_3 = 1 - 3 * N_3, N_3 \ge 0$
 $sum(N_4,S_4) | N = N_4 + 4, S_4 = -3 - 4 * N_4, N_4 \ge 0$
 \downarrow
...

Problem: none of the constraints above are unsatisfiable.

Solution:

(3) sum(0, 0).
(4) sum(N, S + N) :- N >= 1, S >= 0, sum(N - 1, S).

Note that this change does not change the answers.

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Solver Redundancy

A constraint is *solver redundant* if it is entailed by the constraint store.

Adding (solver) redundant constraints can be useful when it makes explicit information which an incomplete solver is incapable of determining.

```
(1) fact(0, 1).
(2) fact (N, N*F) :- N >= 1, F >= 1, fact (N - 1, F).
(Note: F \ge 1 is answer-redundant)
The goal fact (N, 7) runs forever.
                            fact(N.7) | true
               fact(N-1,F_1) \mid F_1 \geq 1, N \geq 1, 7 = N * F_1
           \underset{fact(N-2,F_2)}{\Downarrow} \mid F_2 \geq 1, N \geq 2, 7 = N * (N-1) * F_2 
     fact(N-3, F_3) | F_3 > 1, N > 3, 7 = N * (N-1) * (N-2) * F_3
fact(N-4, F_4) | F_4 \ge 1, N \ge 4, 7 = N * (N-1) * (N-2) * (N-3) * F_4
```

Solver Redundancy

In the previous state:

$$fact(N-4, F_4) | F_4 \ge 1, N \ge 4, 7 = N * (N-1) * (N-2) * (N-3) * F_4$$

in fact, the expression $N * (N-1) * (N-2) * (N-3) * F_4$ must be greater than 24. However, many constraint solvers may not be be able to determine this.

Now add the fact that the factorial of N is always larger than N:

```
(3) fact (0, 1).

(4) fact (N, FN) :-

FN = F \star N, N >= 1, F >= 1, N <= FN,

fact (N - 1, F).
```

The goal fact (N, 7) now will in fact terminate (finitely fail).

Optimization

Running a goal derives one more answers. Optimization involves deriving the best answer.

Recall the "Options Trading" Example and the *butterfly* combination bets that a stock price remains in a certain range and bounds the loss.

call_option(B, S, C, E, P) :- 0 ≤ S, S ≤ E/100, P = -C*B. call_option(B, S, C, E, P) :- S ≥ E/100, P = (100*S - E - C) * B. put_option(B, S, C, E, P) :- 0 ≤ S, S ≤ E/100, P = (E-100*S-C) * B. put_option(B, S, C, E, P) :- S ≥ E/100, P = -C * B. butterfly(S, P1 + 2*P2 + P3) :-Buy = 1, Sell = -1, call_option(Buy, S, 100, 500, P1), call_option(Sell, S, 200, 300, P2), call_option(Buy, S, 400, 100, P3).

Optimization would be to discover the *maximum* P for ?- butterfly(S, P). (S = 3, P = 100).

Simple Optimization

solve(X, C):find one solution X with cost C
try(soln1, soln2):given soln1, find a better soln2.

```
try(soln(X0, C0), soln(X, C)) :-
C1 < C0,
solve(X1, C1),
try(soln(X1, C1), soln(X, C)).
try(soln(X, C), soln(X, C)).
```

- Needs an initial call to solve to obtain a first value of C
- The search process implements a basic branch-and-bound strategy

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In what follows, we study more advanced techniques of search, for both feasible solutions as well as optimal solutions.