

Smart Plans in Knowledge Bases

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1 Definitions

1.1 Linear Path

Definition 1 (Linear Path). *A path is said to be linear if it can be written with n relations $r_1 \dots r_n$ and has the form $P(X_1, \dots, X_n) = r_1(X_1, X_2) \dots r_n(X_n, X_{n+1})$.*

Notation 1. *To simply, we will write $P = r_1 \dots r_n$.*

Definition 2 (Linear function). *A query or a function is said to be linear if it is a linear path. In what follows, we will always suppose that X_1 is the input of the function or the query, the other variables being the outputs.*

1.2 Smart Plans

Definition 3 (Smart Plan). *A plan P is said to be smart if, for a given query Q and for all knowledge bases K , either P gives no result on K or an answer of Q in K is among the results of calling P for K . (We consider that if Q has no answer at all on K , then a path is always smart on K).*

In what follows, we suppose that we have access to all intermediate outputs of a linear path.

Property 1. *A linear smart plan P for a linear query $Q = r_1 \dots r_n$ is of the form $P = l_1 r_1 \dots l_n r_n l_{n+1}$ where l_1, \dots, l_n, l_{n+1} are linear paths.*

1.3 Fully Categorized Knowledge Base

Definition 4 (Fully Categorized Knowledge Base). *A knowledge base K is said to be fully categorized when for all N_1, N_2 nodes in K , we have:*

$$Relations(N_1) \cap Relations(N_2) = \emptyset \text{ or } Relations(N_1) = Relations(N_2).$$

This property means that, as soon as two nodes have at least one common relation, they must have identical relations.

Definition 5 (Fully Categorized Knowledge Base Under a Set of Functions). *A knowledge base K is said to be fully categorized under a set F of functions when for all N_1, N_2 nodes in K , we have:*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Relations}(N_1) \cap \text{Relations}(N_2) &\subset \neg S \text{ or} \\ \text{Relations}(N_1) \cap S &= \text{Relations}(N_2) \cap S. \end{aligned}$$

where S is the set of all relations used in all functions in F .

It means that a knowledge base is fully categorized if we ignore all relations which are not used by functions in F .

1.4 Way-Back Lists

Definition 6 (Way-Back List 1). *A way-back list is a list recognized by the following algorithm.*

Algorithm 1: Way-Back Algorithm

Data: a list l of relations
Result: whether l is a way-back list or not

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1  $\sigma$  = empty stack;
2 for  $c$  in  $l$  do
3   if  $c == \text{head}(\sigma)^{-1}$  then
4     pop( $\sigma$ );
5   end
6   else
7     push( $\sigma, c$ );
8   end
9 end
10 if  $\sigma$  is empty then
11   return  $l$  is a way-back list.
12 end
13 else
14   return  $l$  is not a way-back list.
15 end
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Definition 7 (Way-Back List 2). *The way-back lists can be defined by the following context-free grammar:*

- *Terminals:* all possible relations r in a knowledge base and their opposite r^{-1} .
- *Non-Terminals:* C
- *Start Symbol:* S
- *Relations:*
 - $S \rightarrow C$
 - For all r in the relations, $C \rightarrow CrCr^{-1}C$
 - $C \rightarrow \epsilon$

Definition 8 (Way-Back List 3). *The way-back lists can be defined by the following indexed grammar:*

- *Terminals:* all possible relations r in a knowledge base and their opposite r^{-1} .
- *Non-Terminals:* C
- *Start Symbol:* S

- *Relations:*
 - $S \rightarrow C[]$
 - $C[] \rightarrow \epsilon$
 - *For all r in the relations:*
 - * $C[\sigma] \rightarrow C[\sigma r^{-1}]r$
 - * $C[\sigma] \rightarrow C[\sigma]rC[r^{-1}]$
 - * $C[\sigma] \rightarrow rC[r^{-1}\sigma]$
 - * $C[\sigma] \rightarrow C[r^{-1}]rC[\sigma]$
 - * $C[r\sigma] \rightarrow rC[\sigma]$

Theorem 1. *The definitions 6, 7 and 8 are equivalent.*

Proof. Let's call L_1, L_2 and L_3 the languages generated by definitions 6, 7 and 8.

Let l be a list recognized by definition 6. To find the associated rules that generate l using definition 8, we say that when an element r is pushed on the stack, we use the rule $C[\sigma] \rightarrow rC[r^{-1}\sigma]$ and when an element is pulled from the stack, we use the rule $C[r\sigma] \rightarrow rC[\sigma]$. As at the end, the stack is empty, it also means that the stacks in the grammar are also empty (everything went out thanks to the last rule) and we can finish by doing $C[] \rightarrow \epsilon$. So, we have $L_1 \subseteq L_3$.

In the same way, we can transform the grammar rules into push/pop operations:

1. $C[\sigma] \rightarrow C[\sigma r^{-1}]r$: r^{-1} was pushed and now we pop it, leaving the other operations on the left.
2. $C[\sigma] \rightarrow C[\sigma]rC[r^{-1}]$: we push r and in the future we will pop it, leaving the other operations on the left.
3. $C[\sigma] \rightarrow rC[r^{-1}\sigma]$: we push r and in the future we will pop it, leaving the other operations on the right.
4. $C[\sigma] \rightarrow C[r^{-1}]rC[\sigma]$: r^{-1} was pushed and now we pop it, leaving the other operations on the right.
5. $C[r\sigma] \rightarrow rC[\sigma]$ allows the individual past and future pops and pushes.

For example, if we consider the sequence:

$$\begin{aligned}
& C[] \xrightarrow{1} C[a^{-1}]a \\
& \xrightarrow{2} C[a^{-1}]bC[b^{-1}]a \\
& \xrightarrow{5} a^{-1}bC[b^{-1}]a \\
& \xrightarrow{3} a^{-1}bC[c^{-1}b^{-1}]a \\
& \xrightarrow{4} a^{-1}bC[d^{-1}]dC[c^{-1}b^{-1}]a \\
& \xrightarrow{3*5} a^{-1}bcd^{-1}dc^{-1}b^{-1}a
\end{aligned}$$

where \rightarrow^i is the call to the i^{th} rule in the grammar. The sequence can be transformed into:

$$\begin{aligned}
& push_{TODO}(a^{-1}), pop(a) \\
& push_{TODO}(a^{-1}), push(b), pop_{TODO}(b^{-1}), pop(a) \\
& push(a^{-1}), push(b), pop_{TODO}(b^{-1}), pop(a) \\
& push(a^{-1}), push(b), push(c), pop_{TODO}(c^{-1}), pop_{TODO}(b^{-1}), pop(a) \\
& push(a^{-1}), push(b), push(c), push_{TODO}(d^{-1}), pop(d), pop_{TODO}(c^{-1}), \\
& pop_{TODO}(b^{-1}), pop(a) \\
& push(a^{-1}), push(b), push(c), push(d^{-1}), pop(d), pop(c^{-1}), pop(b^{-1}), pop(a)
\end{aligned}$$

At the end, the stack is empty because for all elements, we plan to pop it. It cannot get stuck (impossible to pop) by construction. So, we have $L_3 \subseteq L_1$ and

then $L_1 = L_3$.

The same way, we can prove $L_1 = L_2$ by transforming the rules into push/pop operation on the stack. \square

Property 2. *We have the following properties.*

1. *The way-back lists are closed under concatenation: if l_0 and l_1 are way-back lists, then l_0l_1 is also a way-back list.*
2. *All list of relation l can be written $l = l_0l_1...l_n$ where l_i are alternatively way-back and not way back lists.*

Theorem 2. *Let l be a way-back list with parameters $X_1, ..., X_n$. For all fully categorized knowledge bases K , if l admits results, then $X_n = X_1$ is one of them.*

Lemma 1. *If l is a way-back list, then its length is $2 * n$ with $n >= 0$.*

Proof of the theorem. Let K be a fully categorized knowledge base. By induction we have:

If $|l| = 0$, nothing to say.

If $|l| = 2$, there exists a relation r such that $l = rr^{-1}$ and then either r is not a relation for X_0 and in this case l admits no result or $X_0 = X_2$ is one of the solution.

If $|l| = 2 * n$ and we suppose the theorem true for all lists l' with a length strictly less than $2 * n$. We remove the last element of l and call it c . From the grammar definition of way-back lists, we can say that l can be written $l = l_0c^{-1}l_1c$ where l_0 and l_1 are way-back lists. Using the theorem, we have, if X_i is the output of l_0 : $X_0 = X_i$ (from l_0) and $X_{i+1} = X_{2*n-1}$ (from l_1). So, the problem can be reduced to $l = c^{-1}c$ where we have a set of inputs with X_0 among them. If c is a relation of X_0 , then we have $X_0 = X_{2*n}$ (see the case $|l| = 2$). If c is not a relation of X_0 then, as K is a fully categorized knowledge base, c is not a relation for any of the inputs of c (as all inputs share the relation before c) so l admits no result. \square

Theorem 3. *A plan $P = lQ$ (for a query Q composed of one relation) is smart on fully categorized knowledge bases if and only if l is a way-back list.*

Proof. Let's suppose we have a way-back list l . Let K be a fully categorized knowledge base where Q has an answer on a node X . From theorem 2, we know that if we apply l on X , either we have no result or X is among results. If we have no result, we are done. If we do have results, if we apply Q to these results, it be also applied to X and so the result of calling Q on X is among results. We conclude that we have a smart plan.

Let's suppose now we have a list l which is not a way-back list. From property 2 about way-back lists, we can decompose l into sublists. We write $l = l_0l_1...l_n$ where $n > 0$ (as l is not a way-back list). w.l.o.g. we can suppose that all l_i where i are even are way-back lists whereas all l_i where i are odd are not way-back lists. One can build a knowledge base where, starting from a node X , all way-back lists come back only to the starting node and non way-back lists only go to new nodes. In such a knowledge base, $P = lQ$ is not a smart plan. \square

Corollary 1. *A plan $P = l_1r_1...l_nr_n$ (for a query $Q = r_1...r_n$) is smart on fully categorized knowledge bases if and only if $l_1, ..., l_n$ are way-back lists.*

2 Smart Plans with Functions

2.1 Rules

Definition 9 (Left Rules). *A left rule will consume the beginning of a function. Let $f = r_1 \dots r_n$ be a linear function. We call left rules extracted from f the production rules (for an indexed grammar):*

- $C[r_1 \dots r_n \sigma] \rightarrow r_1 \dots r_n C[\sigma]$
- $C[r_1 \dots r_{n-1} \sigma] \rightarrow r_1 \dots r_n C[r_n^{-1} \sigma]$
- ...
- $C[r_1 \sigma] \rightarrow r_1 \dots r_n C[r_n^{-1} \dots r_2^{-1} \sigma]$
- $C[\sigma] \rightarrow r_1 \dots r_n C[r_n^{-1} \dots r_1^{-1} \sigma]$

where σ represents the stack.

Proof. These are allowed indexed grammar rules. See 2.2.1. □

Definition 10 (Right Rules). *A right rule will consume the end of a function. Let $f = r_1 \dots r_n$ be a linear function. We call right rules extracted from f the production rules (for an indexed grammar):*

For all $i \in [2, n]$, $C[r_i \dots r_n \sigma] \rightarrow C[r_{i-1}^{-1} \dots r_1^{-1}] r_1 \dots r_n C[\sigma]$ and $C[\sigma] \rightarrow C[r_n^{-1} \dots r_1^{-1}] r_1 \dots r_n C[\sigma]$

where σ represents the stack.

Proof. These are allowed indexed grammar rules. See 2.2.2. □

2.2 Reduced Form Rules

Although the rules are easier to understand with definitions 9 and 10, it is more practical for algorithmic purposes to transform the rules into a reduce form.

2.2.1 Reduced Left Rules

Let $i \in [1; n]$. The associated rule is $C[r_1 \dots r_i \sigma] \rightarrow r_1 \dots r_n C[r_n^{-1} \dots r_{i+1}^{-1} \sigma]$. Let's transform it into reduced rules:

- $C[r_1 \sigma] \rightarrow B_1[\sigma]$
- $B_1[\sigma] \rightarrow A_1[\sigma] C_2[\sigma]$
- $A_1[\sigma] \rightarrow r_1$
- $C_2[r_2 \sigma] \rightarrow B_2[\sigma]$
- $B_2[\sigma] \rightarrow A_2[\sigma] C_3[\sigma]$
- $A_2[\sigma] \rightarrow r_2$
- ...
- $C_i[r_i \sigma] \rightarrow B_i[\sigma]$
- $B_i[\sigma] \rightarrow A_i[\sigma] C^{i+1}[\sigma]$
- $A_i[\sigma] \rightarrow r_i$
- $C_{i+1}[\sigma] \rightarrow A_{i+1}[\sigma] C_{i+2}[\sigma]$
- $A_{i+1}[\sigma] \rightarrow r_{i+1}$
- ...
- $C_n[\sigma] \rightarrow A_n[\sigma] C^{back}[\sigma]$
- $A_n[\sigma] \rightarrow r_n$
- $C^{back}[\sigma] \rightarrow C_{i+1}^{back}[\sigma] T[\sigma]$

- $C_{i+1}^{back}[\sigma] \rightarrow C_{i+2}^{back}[c_{i+2}^{-1}\sigma]$
- ...
- $C_n^{back}[\sigma] \rightarrow C_{n+1}^{back}[c_n^{-1}\sigma]$
- $C_{n+1}^{back}[\sigma] \rightarrow C[\sigma]T[\sigma]$
- $T[\sigma] \rightarrow \epsilon$

Here, we have a total of $4 * n - i + 1$ rules.

2.2.2 Reduced Right Rules

Let $i \in [2; n]$. The associated rule is $C[r_i \dots r_n \sigma] \rightarrow C[r_{i-1}^{-1} \dots r_1^{-1}]r_1 \dots r_n C[\sigma]$. Let's transform it into reduced rules:

- $C[c_i \sigma] \rightarrow B[\sigma]$
- $B[\sigma] \rightarrow A_1[\sigma]D[\sigma]$
- For all relations r , $A_1[r\sigma] \rightarrow A_1[\sigma]$ (the stack is emptied).
- $A[] \rightarrow A_0^{back}[\sigma]$
- $A_0^{back}[\sigma] \rightarrow A_1^{back}[r_1^{-1}\sigma]$
- ...
- $A_{i-2}^{back}[\sigma] \rightarrow C[r_{i-1}^{-1}\sigma]$
- $D[\sigma] \rightarrow E_1[\sigma]C_{i+1}[\sigma]$
- $C_{i+1}[r_{i+1}\sigma] \rightarrow C_{i+2}[\sigma]$
- ...
- $C_n[r_n \sigma] \rightarrow C[\sigma]$
- $E_1[\sigma] \rightarrow F_1[\sigma]E_2[\sigma]$
- ...
- $E_n[\sigma] \rightarrow F_n[\sigma]E_{n+1}[\sigma]$
- $E_{n+1}[\sigma] \rightarrow \epsilon$
- $F_1[\sigma] \rightarrow r_1$
- $F_n[\sigma] \rightarrow r_n$

Here, we have a total of (Number relations + $3 * n + 4$) rules.

2.2.3 Total Number of Rules

Let $f_1 \dots f_k$ be k linear functions with respectively n_1, \dots, n_k relations. Let R be the set of all relations (it can be reduced to the set of relations used by the f_i s as only them can be pushed on the stack). For $i \in [0; k - 1]$,

- f_i has n_i left rules, so a total after reducing of $\sum_{j=1}^n [4 * n_i - j + 1] = \mathcal{O}(n_i^2)$
- f_i has $n_i - 1$ right rules so a total after reducing of $\mathcal{O}(n_i * |R| - |R| + n_i^2)$

At the end, if we sum for all functions and we have $n = n_1 = \dots = n_k$, we have $\mathcal{O}(k * (n^2 + n * |R|))$ relations. If $|R| = \mathcal{O}(n)$ then we have $\mathcal{O}(k * n^2)$ relations.

2.3 Problem

Given a set of linear functions F , is it possible to know whether there exists a smart plan which only uses functions in F .
(give further explanations, examples...)

Hypothesis 1. *In what follows, we assume that if we can call a linear function $f = r_1 \dots r_n$ then we can also call the functions $f_i = r_1 \dots r_i$ for $i \in [1; n]$.*

2.4 Algorithm

Algorithm 2: Algorithm Smart Plan From a Set of Functions

Data: A set of functions F and a linear query q

Result: whether there exists a smart plan composed only of calls to functions in F

- 1 Replace all functions f in F by a their subfunctions as describe in hypothesis 1;
- 2 Create an indexed grammar as follows:
 - $S \rightarrow C[q]$
 - $C[] \rightarrow \epsilon$
 - For all functions $f \in F$, derive the left rules and right rules in their reduced form as describes in 2.2.1 and 2.2.2 (the C is common to all rules).

return Whether $L(G) = \emptyset$ or not using the algorithm described in [1]

Proof. Correctness: Let's show that only smart plans are generated. To do so, we can transform left and right rules into way-back list rules as shown in definition 8. We will prove the case of left rules.

Let n be an integer, $i \in [1, n]$ and let's consider the left rule $C[r_1 \dots r_i \text{ sigma}] \rightarrow r_1 \dots r_n C[r_n^{-1} \dots r_{i+1}^{-1} \sigma]$. The rule can be transformed into:

- $C[r_1 \sigma] \rightarrow r_1 C_2[\sigma]$
- ...
- $C_i[r_i \sigma] \rightarrow r_i C_{i+1}[\sigma]$
- $C_{i+1}[\sigma] \rightarrow r_{i+1} C_{i+1}[r_{i+1}^{-1} \sigma]$
- ...
- $C_n[\sigma] \rightarrow r_n C[r_n^{-1} \sigma]$

Let n be an integer, $i \in [1, n]$ and let's consider the right rule $C[r_i \dots r_n \text{ sigma}] \rightarrow C[r_{i-1}^{-1} \dots r_1^{-1}] r_1 \dots r_n C[\sigma]$. The rule can be transformed into:

- $C[\sigma] \rightarrow C_1[r_{i-1}^{-1}] r_{i-1} C'_1[\sigma]$
- $C_1[\sigma] \rightarrow C_2[\sigma r_{i-2}^{-1}] r_{i-2}$
- ...
- $C_{i-1}[\sigma] \rightarrow C[\sigma r_1^{-1}] r_1$
- $C_1[r_i \sigma] \rightarrow r_i C'_2[\sigma]$
- ...
- $C_{n-i+1}[\sigma] \rightarrow r_n C[\sigma]$

As both left and right rules can be written as rules which are rules extracted from definition 8, we conclude that we will generate plans $P = l$ where l is a way-back list and if q is composed of no relation.

Lemma 2. $C[r_1 \dots r_n]$ will generate lists of the form $l_0 r_1 l_1 \dots r_n l_n$ where l_0, \dots, l_n are way-back lists.

Proof. Let's say we modify the starting symbol to $S \rightarrow r_1^{-1} \dots r_n^{-1} C[r_1 \dots r_n]$. This way, we have a way-back list rule. So, we will generate way-back lists beginning by $r_1^{-1} \dots r_n^{-1}$, it means that it generates words of the form $r_1^{-1} \dots r_n^{-1} l_0 r_1 l_1 \dots r_n l_n$ and so $C[r_1 \dots r_n]$ generates lists of the form $l_0 r_1 l_1 \dots r_n l_n$. \square

So by calling $C[q_1 \dots q_n]$, we have results of the form $P = l_0 q_1 l_1 \dots q_n l_n$ and by using hypothesis 1, we have access to all the required q_i . As shown in theorem 3, if we have a fully categorized knowledge base, P is a smart plan.

Completeness: The grammar can be seen as an exhaustive search: at each production rule call, we try to call all functions. These functions can either consume relations which were required and give additional ones or asked in the future for given relations to be able to be called. Notice that function can be called even if nothing is required with $C[\sigma] \rightarrow r_1 \dots r_n C[r_n^{-1} \dots r_1^{-1} \sigma]$ and $C[\sigma] \rightarrow C[r_n^{-1} \dots r_1^{-1}] r_1 \dots r_n C[\sigma]$ in order to be exhaustive. \square

2.5 Reducing Constraints

As we saw before, a fully categorized knowledge base is required to be able to apply the results. However, when using functions calls, not all constraints are needed as some relations are never used. So, a fully categorized knowledge base under the given set of functions can be used.

One can also notice that relations cannot be called in any order. This order is determined by the set of functions. So, it is possible to extract axioms from a set of functions which need to be true in the knowledge base.

Let $F = f_1 \dots f_n$ a set of linear functions. Let $f \in F$ be a linear function with $f = a_1 \dots a_n$, $n > 1$. We can deduce the following axioms:

- For all $i \in [1, n - 1]$, $a_i \Leftrightarrow a_{i+1}$ is true for all nodes or is false for all nodes (i.e. $a_i \Leftrightarrow \neg a_{i+1}$ is true for all nodes).
- Let $f_1 = a_1 \dots a_n$ and $f_2 = b_1 \dots b_m$ be two functions from F ($n \geq 1$ and $m \geq 1$). We have: $a_n \Leftrightarrow b_1$ is true for all nodes or is false for all nodes (i.e. $a_n \Leftrightarrow \neg b_1$ is true for all nodes).

These axioms can be reduced even more, without having to assume the transition between functions.

Hypothesis 2. *Given a set of function F and a knowledge base K , we suppose we have for all $f \in F$, $f = a_1 \dots a_n$, $n > 1$:*

For all $i \in [1, n - 1]$, $a_i^{-1} \Leftrightarrow a_{i+1}$ is true for all nodes in K or is false for all nodes in K (i.e. $a_i^{-1} \Leftrightarrow \neg a_{i+1}$ is true for all nodes in K).

Theorem 4. *With hypothesis 2, the algorithm 2 gives whether there exists a smart plan or not (but the grammar used in algorithm 2 might generate non-smart plans).*

Proof.

Definition 11 (Function Loop). *Let \mathcal{F} be a set of linear functions and $l = f_1 \dots f_n$ (f_1, \dots, f_n are functions in \mathcal{F}) be a list of relations built with \mathcal{F} . We call a function loop a sequence of function from l , $f_i \dots f_j$ ($i < j$) such that $f_i \dots f_j$ is a way-back list.*

Lemma 3. *If the grammar used in algorithm 2 generates a non-empty answer, there exists at least one solution without a function loop.*

Proof. Let lq be the shortest (in term of number of relations) non-empty word of the grammar in the algorithm 2 for a query q (of length 1 to simplify). We saw that l is a way-back list. l can be written $l = f_1 \dots f_n a_1 \dots a_k$ (a_1, \dots, a_k are the first relations of the last function $f_{n+1} = a_1 \dots a_k q$). l does not strictly contain function loops, meaning that there exists no $i, j \in [1, n], i < j$ such that $f_i \dots f_j$ is a way-back list. Otherwise, the shortest word would be $l = f_1 \dots f_{i-1} f_{j+1} \dots f_n$. \square

Lemma 4. *Let K be a knowledge base, \mathcal{F} a set of linear functions and $l = f_1 \dots f_n$ (f_1, \dots, f_n are functions in \mathcal{F}) be a way-back list built with \mathcal{F} without a function loop different from l . Let r be a relation from l such that $l = l_0 r l_1 r^{-1} l_2$. Let \mathcal{N}_1 be the set of nodes obtained by calling l_0 on K and \mathcal{N}_1^r the set of nodes in \mathcal{N}_1 which have a r relation. Let \mathcal{N}_2 be the set of nodes obtained after calling $l_0 r l_1 r^{-1}$. Then, under hypothesis 2, we have $\mathcal{N}_1^r \subseteq \mathcal{N}_2$ or $\mathcal{N}_2 = \emptyset$.*

Proof. Let's prove the lemma by induction on the number n of relations between r and r^{-1} .

For $n = 0$, we have rr^{-1} and the result is obvious.

Let $n > 0$. We consider that the lemma is true for all $k < n$. We write $l = l_0 r r_1 l_1 r_1^{-1} r_2 l_2 r_2^{-1} \dots r_k l_k r_k^{-1} r^{-1} l_{k+1}$ (l_0, \dots, l_k are way-back lists by construction) where we have n relations between r and r^{-1} . We call \mathcal{N}^i the set of nodes obtained before calling r_i and \mathcal{N}^{k+1} the set of nodes obtained before calling r^{-1} .

Let's prove that $\mathcal{N}^{1, r_1} \subseteq \mathcal{N}^{k+1, r^{-1}}$ (\mathcal{N}^{1, r_1} is the subset of \mathcal{N}^1 with the relation r_1 and $\mathcal{N}^{k+1, r^{-1}}$ the subset of \mathcal{N}^{k+1} with the relation r^{-1}).

If a function stops on r , no function (used in l) can stop on r_1^{-1} nor on any r_i^{-1} (otherwise there would be a loop as $r_1 l_1 r_1^{-1}$ and all the $r_1 l_1 r_1^{-1} \dots r_i l_i r_i^{-1}$ are way-back lists). With the induction hypothesis, we have $\mathcal{N}^{i, r_{i+1}} \subseteq \mathcal{N}^{i+1}$ for all $i > 1$. As we do not stop as described before, we have $\mathcal{N}^i = \mathcal{N}^{i, r_{i+1}}$. So, we have $\mathcal{N}^{1, r_1} \subseteq \mathcal{N}^{k+1, r^{-1}}$.

Now we suppose we do not stop on r but a function stops on r_j^{-1} with $1 < j < k$. For the same reasons than before, no function can stop on any r_i^{-1} ($i \neq j$). It means that, for $i \neq j$, we have at least one function which contains $r_i^{-1} r_{i+1}$ and $r_k^{-1} r^{-1}$. So, from hypothesis 2, we have for $i \neq j$, $r_i \Leftrightarrow r_{i+1}$, $r_k \Leftrightarrow r^{-1}$ and $r^{-1} \Leftrightarrow r_1$ (no stop on r_1). If one of the axioms is that $a_i^{-1} \Leftrightarrow \neg a_{i+1}$ is true for all nodes in K , then we have no result at all, i.e. $\mathcal{N}_2 = \emptyset$. We consider it is not the case. By transitivity, we also have $r_j \Leftrightarrow r_{j+1}$ and we have the transition $r_j^{-1} r_{j+1}$ for all nodes. Using the same arguments than before, $\mathcal{N}^{1, r_1} \subseteq \mathcal{N}^{k+1, r^{-1}}$.

Then, we can conclude that $\mathcal{N}_1^r \subseteq \mathcal{N}_2$. \square

Corollary 2. *Let K be a knowledge base, \mathcal{F} a set of linear functions and $l = f_1 \dots f_n$ (f_1, \dots, f_n are functions in \mathcal{F}) be a way-back list built with \mathcal{F} without*

a function loop different from l . Then, either l gives no result on K or the input is also among the outputs of l .

We know that if there are words in the grammar in algorithm 2, then there are words without function loop in them and we proved with corollary 2 that a word without a loop is a smart plan. So there is at least one smart plan among the words. In addition, as all smart plans are way-back lists, all of them are in the grammar. So, the algorithm 2 still gives us whether there exist smart plans or not. □

3 Reducing the Grammar

3.1 Remove Forced Loops

As we proved in theorem 4, one could remove all the loops and still obtain the same result after algorithm 2. Then, would it be possible to remove rules from the grammar that add nothing but function loops? By doing so, we hope to reduce the computation time of algorithm 4 and of the exploration to find a plan. However, we might lose the completeness of the grammar but it does not change the result of the algorithm 2.

Theorem 5. *By removing the rules:*

- $C[\sigma] \rightarrow r_1 \dots r_n C[r_n^{-1} \dots r_1^{-1} \sigma]$
- $C[\sigma] \rightarrow C[r_n^{-1} \dots r_1^{-1}] r_1 \dots r_n C[\sigma]$

only plans with function loops are removed.

Proof. Let consider the rule $C[\sigma] \rightarrow r_1 \dots r_n C[r_n^{-1} \dots r_1^{-1} \sigma]$. This rule means that a function is called without using anything on the stack. Using this rule may generate a loop between r_1 and b , where b was the symbol at the top of the stack when the rule was called. Let suppose it is not the case. It means that a function will be called such that ab (where a is a relation) is a part of that function. Let's call this function $f = x_1 \dots x_k a b y_1 \dots y_l$.

Instead of calling $C[\sigma] \rightarrow r_1 \dots r_n C[r_n^{-1} \dots r_1^{-1} \sigma]$, we call the rule associated with f : $C[by_1 \dots y_k]$. Using lemma 2 and completeness, we know we get all possible words of the form $r_1 \dots r_n l_0 r_1 l_1 \dots r_n l_n b y_1 l_1^2 \dots y_k l_k^2$ which are makable and in particular, what should have appeared with the rule we have just erased. If we still obtain a rule of the form $C[\sigma] \rightarrow r_1 \dots r_n C[r_n^{-1} \dots r_1^{-1} \sigma]$, we redo the same operation and it will end as f is finite.

Then, all rules of the form $C[\sigma] \rightarrow r_1 \dots r_n C[r_n^{-1} \dots r_1^{-1} \sigma]$ which do not create loops can be erased by deleting first the outer ones so the procedure ends.

For the rule $C[\sigma] \rightarrow C[r_n^{-1} \dots r_1^{-1}] r_1 \dots r_n C[\sigma]$, only results with function loops are created as a function ends on r_n , $C[r_n^{-1} \dots r_1^{-1}]$ generate lists of the form $r_n^{-1} l_n \dots r_1^{-1} l_1$ ($l_1 \dots l_n$ are way-back lists) and $r_n^{-1} l_n \dots r_1^{-1} l_1 r_1 \dots r_n$ is a way-back list.

We conclude only plans with function loops are removed. □

3.2 Introduce End Symbol

By introducing an end symbole, that we will call *end*, it is possible to reduce the number of rules used in the reduced form for right rules.

3.2.1 Initialization Rules

As we introduce an end symbol, we have to modify the initialization rules. The new ones are:

- $S[\sigma] \rightarrow C_0[end \ \sigma]$
- $C_0[\sigma] \rightarrow C[q \ \sigma]$
- $C[end \ \sigma] \rightarrow \epsilon$

Here, we simply add the end symbol before everything else to know where to stop and the say that when an end symbol is met, then it is the end.

3.2.2 Reduced Right Rules

For the right rules, we replace the first rules presented in 2.2.2:

- $C[c_i\sigma] \rightarrow B[\sigma]$
- $B[\sigma] \rightarrow A_{-1}^{back}[\sigma]D[\sigma]$
- $A_{-1}^{back}[\sigma] \rightarrow A_0^{back}[end \ \sigma]$
- $A_0^{back}[\sigma] \rightarrow A_1^{back}[r_1^{-1}\sigma]$
- ...

Here, by adding the end symbol on the stack, we obtain the same result as emptying the stack.

3.2.3 Number of Rules

Now, we always have $\mathcal{O}(k * n^2)$ rules.

4 Algorithm

4.1 Introduction

The algorithm presented in [1] has a disadvantage: a set of rules is generated before actually applying the algorithm. The size of this set is exponential. So, at the end the algorithm has an exponential complexity even in the best case. For computational purposes, it is great to lower this bound, even if the upper bound is still exponential.

We propose here to generate the rules on the fly so we do not generate useless rules. To apply the algorithm, as in [1], we need rules in their reduced form. More precisely, they should be either a production, a consumption, a duplication or an end rule.

Definition 12 (Production Rule). *We call "production rules" rules of the form:*

$$A[\sigma] \rightarrow B[f\sigma]$$

where A and B are non-terminals, f is a production symbol (here production symbols are the terminals) and σ is the stack.

Definition 13 (Consumption Rule). We call "consumption rules" rules of the form:

$$A[f\sigma] \rightarrow B[\sigma]$$

where A and B are non-terminals, f is a production symbol (here production symbols are the terminals) and σ is the stack.

In what follows, we call $\text{Cons}(f)$ the set of all the consumption rules which use f as a production symbol.

Definition 14 (Duplication Rule). We call "duplication rules" rules of the form:

$$A[\sigma] \rightarrow B[\sigma]C[\sigma]$$

where A , B and C are non-terminals and σ is the stack.

Definition 15 (End Rule). We call "end rules" rules of the form:

$$A[\sigma] \rightarrow a$$

where A is a non-terminals, a is a terminal and σ is the stack.

4.2 Initialization

Instead of writting all the rules presented in [1], we keep track of all marked sets. We initialize the algorithm as follows:

1. $\text{marked} \leftarrow \text{dictionary}()$, marked gives for all non-terminal the sets which are marked.
2. For all non-terminals A , $\text{marked}[A] = \text{List}()$
3. For all non-terminals A , $\text{marked}[A].\text{append}(\text{set}(A))$
4. For all end rules $A[\sigma] \rightarrow a$, $\text{marked}[A].\text{append}(\text{set}())$

Then, we will loop on the rules until no more new sets are marked. During the loop, we process duplication and production rules differently.

4.3 Duplication Rule Processing

For the duplication rule $A[\sigma] \rightarrow B[\sigma]C[\sigma]$, we mark for A all the $N_B \cup N_C$ where N_B is marked for B and N_C is marked for C .

4.4 Production Rule Processing

For the production rule $A[\sigma] \rightarrow B[f\sigma]$:

1. If there exists a rule of the form $B[f\sigma] \rightarrow C[\sigma]$ (where C is a non-terminal) in $\text{Cons}(f)$ then:
 - (a) For A , mark all the N_B where N_B is marked for B .
 - (b) If the empty set is marked for B , for all rules $D[f\sigma] \rightarrow E[\sigma]$, mark for A all the N_E where N_E is a set marked for E .
2. For all marked sets for B $N_B = \{C_1, C_2, \dots, C_r\}$, for all combinations of rules from $\text{Cons}(f)$ $C_1[f\sigma] \rightarrow D_1[\sigma], \dots, C_r[f\sigma] \rightarrow D_r[\sigma]$ (we need exactly only rule for each C_i), mark for A $N = \cup_{i=1}^r N_{D_i}$ for all N_{D_i} marked for D_i ($1 \leq i \leq r$)

4.5 Final Algorithm

Algorithm 3: Algorithm Emptiness Indexed Grammar

Data: a set of rules in reduced form (4.1)
Result: whether the grammar is empty or not

```

1 Initialize the algorithm (4.2);
2 while new sets are marked do
3   for each rule do
4     if the rule is a duplication rule then
5       | do the processing for duplication rule (4.3);
6     end
7     else if the rule is a production rule then
8       | do the processing for production rule (4.4);
9     end
10  end
11 end
12 return the grammar is not empty if and only if the empty set is marked
    for S

```

5 Introduce Rules

Often, in knowledge bases, different paths can have the same or the meaning. For example, the child relation has the same meaning that the opposite of the parent relation. However, some functions may consider only one path and ignore all others which are equivalent. So, the rules must be introduced in the grammar.

Definition 16 (Equivalence Rule). Let r_1, \dots, r_N be N binary relations, X_1, \dots, X_{N+1} be $N+1$ variables, l_1, \dots, l_K be K binary relations and Y_1, \dots, Y_{K+1} be $K+1$ variables. A equivalence rule is a rule of the form: $r_1(X_1, X_2) \wedge \dots \wedge r_N(X_N, X_{N+1}) \Leftrightarrow l_1(Y_1, Y_2) \wedge \dots \wedge l_K(Y_K, Y_{K+1})$ where $X_1 = Y_1$ and $X_{N+1} = Y_{K+1}$.

Notation 2. We write $r_1 \dots r_N \Leftrightarrow l_1 \dots l_K$ instead of $r_1(X_1, X_2) \wedge \dots \wedge r_N(X_N, X_{N+1}) \Leftrightarrow l_1(Y_1, Y_2) \wedge \dots \wedge l_K(Y_K, Y_{K+1})$ where $X_1 = Y_1$ and $X_{N+1} = Y_{K+1}$.

Hypothesis 3. If we have the rule of $r_1 \dots r_N \Leftrightarrow l_1 \dots l_K$, then the existence of the path $r_1 \dots r_N$ is equivalent to the existence of the path $l_1 \dots l_K$.

Property 3. Let's suppose we have a rule $r_1 \dots r_N \Leftrightarrow l_1 \dots l_K$. We introduce the four rules:

- $C[r_1 \dots r_N \sigma] \rightarrow C[l_1 \dots l_K \sigma]$
- $C[l_1 \dots l_K \sigma] \rightarrow C[r_1 \dots r_N \sigma]$
- $C[r_N^{-1} \dots r_1^{-1} \sigma] \rightarrow C[l_K^{-1} \dots l_1^{-1} \sigma]$
- $C[l_K^{-1} \dots l_1^{-1} \sigma] \rightarrow C[r_N^{-1} \dots r_1^{-1} \sigma]$

in the grammar from the algorithm 2. Then, under hypothesis 3 and 2, the grammar produces words of the form lq where q is the query and where if l is called on a knowledge base, its input is also among outputs.

Proof. TODO □

6 Multiple Inputs Functions

6.1 Tree-Like Function

6.2 Linear Multiple Inputs Functions

References

- [1] Alfred V. Aho. Indexed grammars : An extension of context-free grammars.
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