c1

Towards a miniKanren with fair search strategies

KUANG-CHEN LU, Indiana University WEIXI MA, Indiana University

DANIEL P. FRIEDMAN, Indiana University

We describe fairness levels in disjunction and conjunction implementations. Specifically, a disjunction implementation can be fair, almost-fair, or unfair. And a conjunction implementation can be fair or unfair. We compare the fairness level of four search strategies: the standard miniKanren interleaving depth-first search (DFS $_i$), the balanced interleaving depth-first search (DFS $_b$ i), the fair depth-first search (DFS $_b$ i), and the standard breadth-first search (BFS $_s$ er). DFS $_b$ i and DFS $_f$ are new. And we present a new, more efficient and simpler implementation of BFS $_s$ er. Using quantitative evaluation, we argue that DFS $_b$ i and DFS $_f$ are competitive alternatives to DFS $_i$, and that our BFS $_s$ er implementation is more efficient than the current one.

ACM Reference Format:

1 INTRODUCTION

miniKanren is a family of relational programming languages. [2] Friedman et al. [3] introduce miniKanren and its implementation in *The Reasoned Schemer* and *The Reasoned Schemer*, *2nd Ed* (TRS2). Byrd et al. [1] have demonstrated that miniKanren programs are useful in solving several problems. miniKanren.org contains the seeds of many more problems and their solutions.

c2 c3 c4

A subtlety arises when a cond^e contains many clauses: not every clause has an equal chance of contributing to the result. As an example, consider the following relation repeato and its invocation.

Authors' addresses: Kuang-Chen LuIndiana University; Weixi MaIndiana University; Daniel P. FriedmanIndiana University.

Unpublished working draft. Not for distribution and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. Copyrights for components of this work owned by others than ACM must be honored. Abstracting with credit is permitted. To copy otherwise, or republish, to post on servers or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific permission and/or a fee. Request permissions from permissions@acm.org.

© 2019 Association for Computing Machinery

XXXX-XXXX/2019/5-ART \$15.00

https://doi.org/10.1145/nnnnnnn.nnnnnn

2019-05-23 11:50. Page 1 of 1-15.

, Vol. 1, No. 1, Article . Publication date: May 2019.

 $^{^{\}mathrm{c}1}$ LKC: submission deadline: Mon 27 May 2019

^{c2}DPF: Yes, that is what I mean. And furthermore, I think that changing opt to imp (for improved) makes more sense. We may be optimizing, but it seems more like an improvement. I did change some of them from optimized to improved. In my letter wrt to using BFSopt or BFSimp, it still makes more sense to me. Perhaps it should be part of the title that we have improved on the the standard BFS implementation.

 $^{^{\}mathrm{c}3}\mathit{LKC}$: Do you mean they should not come up in Abstract?

 $^{^{}c4}DPF$: When you rewrite the abstract and drop the abbreviations, remember when you are rewriting the Introduction and introducing the abbreviations, that you should explain the ser of BFSser using a reference.

```
49
50
51
52
53
54
```

```
(cond<sup>e</sup>
  ((≡ `(,x) out))
  ((fresh (res)
      (≡ `(,x . ,res) out)
      (repeat<sup>o</sup> x res)))))
> (run 4 q
      (repeat<sup>o</sup> '* q))
'((*) (* *) (* * *) (* * * *))
```

(**defrel** (repeat^o x out)

Next, consider the following disjunction of invoking repeato with four different letters.

cond^e intuitively relates its clauses with logical or. And thus an unsuspicious beginner would expect each letter to contribute equally to the result, as follows.

```
'((a) (b) (c) (d)
(a a) (b b) (c c) (d d)
(a a a) (b b b) (c c c) (d d d))
```

The cond^e in TRS2, however, generates a less expected result.

```
'((a) (a a) (b) (a a a)
(a a a a) (b b)
(a a a a a a) (b b b)
(a a a a a a a) (d))
```

The miniKanren in TRS2 implements interleaving DFS (DFS $_i$), the cause of this unexpected result. With this search strategy, each clause takes half of its received computational resources and passes the other half to its following clauses, except for the last clause that takes all resources it receives. In the example above, the a clause takes half of all resources. And the b clause takes a quarter. Thus c and d barely contribute to the result.

DFS_i is sometimes powerful for an expert. By carefully organizing the order of cond^e clauses, a miniKanren program can explore more "interesting" clauses than those uninteresting ones, and thus use computational resources efficiently. A little miniKanrener, however, may beg to differ–understanding implementation details and fiddling with clause order is not the first priority of a beginner.

There is another reason that miniKanren could use more search strategies than just DFS_i. In many applications, there does not exist one order that serves all purposes. For example, a relational dependent type checker contains clauses for constructors that build data and clauses for eliminators that use data. When the type checker is generating simple and shallow programs, the clauses for constructors had better be at the top of the cond^e expression. When performing proof searches for complicated programs, the clauses for eliminators had better be at the top of the cond^e expression. With DFS_i, these two uses cannot be efficient at the same time. In fact, to make one use efficient, the other one must be more sluggish.

The specification that gives every clause in the same cond^e equal "search priority" is fair disj. And search strategies with almost-fair disj give every clause similar priority. Fair conj, a related concept, is more subtle. We cover it in the next section.

To summarize our contributions, we

- propose and implement balanced interleaving depth-first search (DFS_{bi}), a new search strategy with almost-fair disj.
- propose and implement fair depth-first search (DFS_f), a new search strategy with fair disj.
- implement in a new way breath-first search (BFS_{ser}), a search strategy with fair disj and fair conj. And we prove formally that our BFS_{ser} implementation is semantically equivalent to BFS_{ser}. Our code runs faster in all benchmarks and we believe it is simpler.

SEARCH STRATEGIES AND FAIRNESS

In this section, we define fair disj, almost-fair disj and fair conj. Before going further into fairness, we give a short review of the terms: state, search space, and goal. A state is a collection of constraints. (Here, we restrict constraints to unification constraints.) Every answer corresponds to a state. A space is a collection of states. And a goal is a function from a state to a space.

Now we elaborate fairness by running more queries about repeato.

2.1 fair disj

95

96 97

98 99 100

101

102

103

104

105

106 107 108

109

110

111

112

113

114 115 116

117 118

119

120

121 122

123

124 125 126

127

128 129

130

131

132

133

134

135 136 137

138

Given the following program, it is natural to expect lists of each letter to constitute 1/4 in the query result. DFS_i, the current search strategy, however, results in many more lists of as than lists of other letters. And some letters (e.g. c and d) are rarely seen. The situation would be exacerbated if the cond^e would have contained more clauses.

```
\mathsf{DFS}_i (unfair disj)
 (run 12 q
      ((repeat<sup>o</sup> 'a q))
      ((repeat bq))
      ((repeat^o 'd q)))
'((a) (a a) (b) (a a a)
 (a a a a) (b b)
 (a a a a a) (c)
 (a a a a a a) (b b b)
 (a a a a a a a) (d))
```

Under the hood, the cond^e here is allocating computational resources to four trivially different search spaces. The unfair disj in DFS_i allocates many more resources to the first search space. On the contrary, fair disj would allocate resources evenly to each search space.

```
142
                                                     ;; BFS (fair disj)
        ;; DFS_f (fair disj)
143
                                                    > (run 12 q
        > (run 12 q
144
             (cond<sup>e</sup>
                                                          (cond^e)
145
                                                            ((repeat<sup>o</sup> 'a q))
                ((repeat^o 'a q))
146
                ((repeat bq))
                                                            ((repeat bq))
147
                ((repeat^{o} 'c q))
                                                            ((repeat^o 'c q))
148
                ((repeat^o 'd q)))
                                                            ((repeat^o 'd q)))
149
                                                     '((a) (b) (c) (d)
         '((a) (b) (c) (d)
150
           (a a) (b b) (c c) (d d)
                                                       (a a) (b b) (c c) (d d)
151
           (a a a) (b b b) (c c c) (d d d))
                                                       (a a a) (b b b) (c c c) (d d d))
152
153
```

Running the same program again with almost-fair disj (e.g. DFS_{bi}) gives the same result. Almost-fair, however, is not completely fair, as shown by the following example.

 DFS_{bi} is fair only when the number of goals is a power of 2, otherwise, it allocates some goals twice as many resources as the others. In the above example, where the cond^e has five clauses, DFS_{bi} allocates more resources to the clauses of b, c, and d.

We end this subsection with precise definitions of all levels of disj fairness. Our definition of *fair* disj is slightly more general than the one in Seres et al. [6]. Their definition is only for binary disjunction. We generalize it to a multi-arity one.

DEFINITION 2.1 (FAIR disj). A disj is fair if and only if it allocates computational resources evenly to search spaces produced by goals in the same disjunction (i.e., clauses in the same cond^e).

Definition 2.2 (Almost-Fair disj). A disj is almost-fair if and only if it allocates computational resources so evenly to search spaces produced by goals in the same disjunction that the maximal ratio of resources is bounded by a constant.

Definition 2.3 (unfair disj). A disj is unfair if and only if it is not almost-fair.

```
2.2 fair conj
```

185 186

154

155

156

157

158 159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174 175

176

177178

179

180

181

182 183

184

^{c1}LKC: I change '1/4 in the answer' to '1/4 in the answer list'.

Given the following program, it is natural to expect lists of each letter to constitute 1/4 in the answer list. Search strategies with unfair conj (e.g. DFS_i, DFS_{bi}, DFS_f), however, results in many more lists of as than lists of other letters. And some letters are rarely seen. The situation would be exacerbated if cond^e were to contain more clauses. Although some strategies have a different level of fairness in disj, they have the same behavior when there is no call to a relational definition in cond^e clauses (including this case).

```
;; DFS_{bi} (unfair conj)
;; DFS, (unfair conj)
                              ;; DFS_f (unfair conj)
                              > (run 12 q
                                                            > (run 12 q
> (run 12 q
     (fresh (x)
                                   (fresh (x)
                                                                 (fresh (x)
       (conde
                                     (conde
                                                                   (conde
          ((\equiv 'a x))
                                        ((\equiv 'a x))
                                                                      ((\equiv 'a x))
         ((\equiv 'b x))
                                        ((\equiv 'b x))
                                                                      ((\equiv 'b x))
         ((\equiv 'c x))
                                        ((\equiv 'c x))
                                                                      ((\equiv 'c x))
         ((\equiv 'd x)))
                                        ((\equiv 'd x)))
                                                                      ((\equiv 'd x)))
       (repeat^{o} \times q))
                                     (repeat^{o} \times q))
                                                                   (repeat^{o} \times q))
'((a) (a a) (b) (a a a)
                              '((a) (a a) (b) (a a a)
                                                             ((a) (a a) (c) (a a a)
  (a a a a) (b b)
                                (a a a a) (b b)
                                                               (a a a a) (c c)
  (a a a a a) (c)
                                (a a a a a) (c)
                                                               (a a a a a) (b)
                                (a a a a a a) (b b b)
                                                              (a a a a a a) (c c c)
  (a a a a a a) (b b b)
  (a a a a a a a) (d))
                                (a a a a a a a) (d))
                                                              (aaaaaa) (d))
```

Under the hood, the cond^e and the call to repeato are connected by conj. The cond^e goal outputs a search space including four trivially different states. Applying the next conjunctive goal, (repeato x q), produces four trivially different search spaces. In the examples above, all search strategies allocate more computational resources to the search space of a. On the contrary, fair conj would allocate resources evenly to each search space. For example,

A more interesting situation is when the first conjunct produces an unbounded number of states. Consider the following example, a naive specification of fair conj might require search strategies to produce all sorts of singleton lists, but there would not be any lists of length two or longer, which makes the strategies incomplete. A search strategy is *complete* if and only if "every correct answer would be discovered after some finite time" [6],

189

190

191 192

193 194 195

196

197

198

199

200

201

202

203

205 206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215216217

218

219

220 221

222

224

225

226

227

228

229 230

232

233

otherwise, it is *incomplete*. In the context of miniKanren, a search strategy is complete means that every correct answer has a position in large enough answer lists.

c1

Our solution requires a search strategy with *fair* conj to organize states in bags in search spaces, where each bag contains finite states, and to allocate resources evenly among search spaces derived from states in the same bag. It is up to a search strategy designer to decide by what criteria to put states in the same bag, and how to allocate resources among search spaces related to different bags.

BFS_{ser} puts states of the same cost in the same bag, and allocates resources carefully among search spaces related to different bags such that it produces answers in increasing order of cost. The *cost* of an answer is its depth in the search tree (i.e., the number of calls to relations required to find them) [6]. In the following example, every answer is a list of a list of symbols, where inner lists are the same. Here the cost of each answer is equal to the length of its inner list plus the length of its outer list.

We end this subsection with precise definitions of all levels of conj fairness.

²⁷⁷ c1 DPF: I think that should be said as directly as in your note.

 $^{^{}c2}LKC$: We never use run* in this paper because fairness is only interesting when we have an unbounded number of answers. However, it is perfectly fine to use run* with any search strategies.

^{c1} *DPF*: Next to the last line of the above paragraph the word same has too many meanings. It could be have the same cost or it could be failing to distinguish two list that would be the same if we substituted a b for an a. It needs to be clarified. It might help to work out the actual numbers

```
(define-syntax conde
  (syntax-rules ()
    ((cond^e (g ...) ...)
     (disj (conj g ...) ...))))
```

Fig. 1. implementation of $cond^e$

DEFINITION 2.4 (FAIR conj). A conj is fair if and only if it allocates computational resources evenly to search spaces produced from states in the same bag. A bag is a finite collection of states. And search strategies with fair conj should represent search spaces with possibly unbounded collections of bags.

DEFINITION 2.5 (UNFAIR conj). A conj is unfair if and only if it is not fair.

3 INTERLEAVING DEPTH-FIRST SEARCH

In this section, we review the implementation of interleaving depth-first search (DFS₁). We focus on parts that are relevant to this paper. TRS2, chapter 10 and the appendix, "Connecting the wires", provides a comprehensive description of the miniKanren implementation but limited to unification constraints (≡).

The definition of cond^e (Fig. 1) is shared by all search strategies. It relates clauses disjunctively, and goals in the same clause conjunctively.

c1 c2

283

284

285

286 287 288

294

295

296 297

298 299

300 301

302

303

304

305

306 307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316 317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

328 329

Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 show parts that are later compared with other search strategies. We follow some conventions to name variables: ss name states; gs (possibly with subscript) name goals; variables ending with $^{\infty}$ name search spaces. Fig. 2 shows the implementation of disj. The first function, disj2, implements binary disjunction. It applies the two disjunctive goals to the input state s and composes the two resulting search spaces with append $^{\infty}$. The following syntax definitions say disj is right-associative. Fig. 3 shows the implementation of conj. The first function, conj2, implements binary conjunction. It applies the first goal to the input state, then applies the second goal to states in the resulting search space. The helper function append-map^{\infty} applies its input goal to states in its input search spaces and composes the resulting search spaces. It reuses append for search space composition. The following syntax definitions say conj is also right-associative.

BALANCED INTERLEAVING DEPTH-FIRST SEARCH

Balanced interleaving DFS (DFS_{bi}) has an almost-fair disj and unfair conj. The implementation of DFS_{bi} differs from DFSi's in the disj macro. We list the new disj with its helper in Fig. 4. When there are one or more disjunctive goals, disj builds a balanced binary tree whose leaves are the goals and whose nodes are disj2s, hence the name of this search strategy. The new helper, disj+, takes two additional 'arguments'. They accumulate goals to be put in the left and right subtrees. The first clause handles the case where there is only one goal. In this case, the tree is the goal itself. When there are more goals, we partition the list of goals into two sublists of roughly equal lengths and recur on the two sublists. We move goals to the accumulators in the last clause. As we are moving two goals each time, there are two base cases: (1) no goal remains; (2) one goal remains. We handle these two new base cases in the second clause and the third clause, respectively. In contrast, the disj in DFS_i constructs the binary tree in a particularly unbalanced form.

```
330
      #| Goal × Goal → Goal |#
331
      (define (disj2 g_1 g_2)
332
         (lambda (s)
333
            (append^{\infty} (g_1 s) (g_2 s)))
334
335
      #| Space × Space → Space |#
336
      (define (append^{\infty} s^{\infty} t^{\infty})
337
         (cond
338
            ((null? s^{\infty}) t^{\infty})
339
            ((pair? s^{\infty})
340
                                                                 indition.
341
             (cons (car s^{\infty})
342
                (append^{\infty} (cdr s^{\infty}) t^{\infty})))
343
            (else (lambda ()
344
                       (append^{\infty} t^{\infty} (s^{\infty}))))))
345
346
      (define-syntax disj
347
         (syntax-rules ()
348
            ((disj) (fail))
349
            ((disj g_0 g ...) (disj+
350
351
      (define-syntax disj+
352
         (syntax-rules ()
353
354
            ((disj+g)g)
355
            ((disj+ g_0 g_1 g \ldots))
                                         (disj2 g_0 (disj+
357
                                           Fig. 2. implementation of DFS_i (Part I)
```

5 FAIR DEPTH-FIRST SEARCH

Fair DFS (DFS_f) has fair disj and unfair conj. The implementation of DFS_f differs from DFS_i's in disj2 (Fig. 5). The new disj2 calls a new and fair version of append^{∞} append^{∞} append^{∞} immediately calls its helper, loop, with the first argument, s?, set to #t, which indicates that we haven't swapped s^{∞} and t^{∞}. The swapping happens at the third cond clause in the helper, where s? is updated accordingly. The first two cond clauses essentially copy the cars and stop recursion when one of the input spaces is obviously finite. The third clause, as we mentioned above, is just for swapping. When the fourth and last clause runs, we know that both s^{∞} and t^{∞} are ended with a thunk and we have swapped them. In this case, we construct a new thunk. The new thunk swaps two spaces back in the recursive call. This is unnecessary for fairness. We do it to produce answers in a more natural order.

358 359 360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367 368

369

370 371 372

373

374

376

, Vol. 1, No. 1, Article . Publication date: May 2019.

^{c1}DPF: This came out fabulous. I think I spotted some missed opportunities later, which I will point out with additional notes.

c²*LKC*: I have turned those 'subscripts' to real subscripts.

^{c1}DPF: When or where do you swap them back? This could be still clearer.

 $^{^{}c2}LKC$: In the recursion

```
377
      #| Goal × Goal → Goal |#
378
      (define (conj2 g_1 g_2)
379
        (lambda (s)
380
           (append-map^{\infty} g_2 (g_1 s)))
381
382
      #| Goal × Space → Space |#
383
      (define (append-map^{\infty} g s^{\infty})
384
        (cond
385
           ((null? s^{\infty}) '())
386
           ((pair? s^{\infty})
387
                                                            KING diali
            (append^{\infty} (g (car s^{\infty}))
389
               (append-map^{\infty} g (cdr s^{\infty})))
390
           (else (lambda ()
391
                     (append-map^{\infty} g (s^{\infty})))))
392
393
      (define-syntax conj
394
        (syntax-rules ()
395
           ((conj) (fail))
396
           ((conj g_0 g ...) (conj+ g_0
397
398
      (define-syntax conj+
399
        (syntax-rules ()
400
401
           ((conj+ g) g)
402
           ((conj+ g_0 g_1 g ...) (conj2 g_0 (conj+ g_1 g ...))))
403
404
```

Fig. 3. implementation of DFS_i (Part II)

BREADTH-FIRST SEARCH

405 406

407 408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417 418

419

420

421

422 423

BFS_{ser} has both fair disj and fair conj. Our implementation is based on DFS_f (not DFS_i). To implement BFS_{ser} based on DFS_f, we need append-map $_{fair}^{\infty}$ in addition to append $_{fair}^{\infty}$. The only difference between append-map $_{fair}^{\infty}$ and append-map $_{fair}^{\infty}$ is that the latter calls append $_{fair}^{\infty}$ instead of append $^{\infty}$.

The implementation is improvable in two ways. First, as mentioned in subsection 2.2, BFS_{ser} puts answers in bags and answers of the same cost are in the same bag. In this implementation, however, it is unclear where this information is recorded. Second, append $_{fair}^{\infty}$ is extravagant in memory usage. It makes O(n+m) new cons cells every time, where n and m are the "length"s of input search spaces. We address these issues in the first subsection.

We prove formally our implementation is equivalent to the original one by Seres et al. [6]. The details are in the second subsection.

6.1 improved BFS

As mentioned in subsection 2.2, BFS_{ser} puts answers in bags and answers of the same cost are in the same bag. The cost information is recorded subtly—the cars of a search space have cost 0 (i.e. they are all in the same bag), and every thunk indicates an increment in cost. It is even more subtle that append_{fair} and the append-map $_{fair}^{\infty}$

```
424
      (define-syntax disj
425
         (syntax-rules ()
426
            ((disj) fail)
427
            ((disj g ...) (disj+ (g ...) () ()))))
428
429
      (define-syntax disj+
430
         (syntax-rules ()
431
            ((disj+ () () g) g)
432
            ((\operatorname{disj+} (g_l \ldots) (g_r \ldots))
433
             (disj2 (disj+ () () g_l ...)
434
                                                          on of DFS<sub>bi</sub>
435
                       (disj+ () () g_r ...)))
436
            ((\operatorname{disj+} (g_l \ldots) (g_r \ldots) g_0)
437
             (disj2 (disj+ () () g_l \dots g_0)
438
                       (disj+ () () g_r ...)))
            ((\operatorname{disj+} (g_l \ldots) (g_r \ldots) g_0 g_1 g \ldots))
440
             (\mathbf{disj+} (g_l \ldots g_0) (g_r \ldots g_1) g \ldots)))
441
442
                                               Fig. 4. implementation of DFSbi
443
444
445
      #| Goal × Goal → Goal |#
446
      (define (disj2 g_1 g_2)
447
         (lambda (s)
448
            (append^{\infty}_{fair} (g_1 s) (g_2 s)))
449
      #| Space × Space → Space |#
451
      (define (append^{\infty}_{fair} s^{\infty} t^{\infty})
452
         (let loop ((s? #t) (s^{\infty} s^{\infty})
453
               ((null? s^{\infty}) t^{\infty})
455
               ((pair? s^{\infty})
                (cons (car s^{\infty})
457
                   (loop s? (cdr s^{\infty}) t^{\infty})))
459
               (s? (loop #f t^{\infty} s^{\infty}))
460
               (else (lambda ()
461
                          (loop #t (t^{\infty}) (s^{\infty}))))))
462
463
```

Fig. 5. implementation of DFS_f

respects the cost information. We make these facts more obvious by changing the type of search space, modifying related function definitions, and introducing a few more functions.

The new type is a pair whose car is a list of answers (the bag), and whose cdr is either #f or a thunk returning a search space. A falsy cdr means the search space is obviously finite.

464 465

466 467

468

```
471
       \#| \rightarrow \text{Space } | \#|
472
       (define (none)
                                  `(()
                                             . #f))
473
474
       #| State → Space |#
475
       (define (unit s) `((,s) . #f))
476
477
       \#| (\rightarrow Space) \rightarrow Space | \#
478
       (define (step f) `(()
479
480
       #| Space × Space → Space |#
481
482
       (define (append^{\infty}_{fair} s^{\infty} t^{\infty})
                               lambda ()
(\operatorname{append}^{\infty}_{fair} (t1) (t2))))))))
\rightarrow \operatorname{Space} | \#
\operatorname{nap}^{\infty}_{fair} g s^{\infty})
(g s) t^{\infty}))
s^{\infty})))
483
          (cons (append (car s^{\infty}) (car t^{\infty}))
484
             (let ((t1 (cdr s^{\infty})) (t2 (cdr t^{\infty})))
485
                (cond
                   ((not t1) t2)
487
                   ((not t2) t1)
                    (else (lambda ()
489
490
491
       #| Goal × Space → Space |#
492
       (define (append-map^{\infty}_{fair} g s^{\infty})
493
          (foldr
494
             (lambda (s t^{\infty})
495
496
                (append^{\infty}_{fair} (g s) t^{\infty}))
             (let ((f (cdr s^{\infty})))
498
                (step (and f (lambda () (append-map_{fair}^{\infty} g (f))))))
499
             (car s^{\infty}))
500
501
       #| Maybe Nat × Space → [State]
502
       (define (take^{\infty} n s^{\infty})
503
          (let loop ((n n) (vs (car s^{\infty})))
504
             (cond
505
                ((and n (zero? n)) '())
506
                ((pair? vs)
507
508
                  (cons (car vs)
509
                     (loop (and n (sub1 n)) (cdr vs))))
510
                (else
511
                  (let ((f (cdr s^{\infty})))
512
                     (if f (take^{\infty} n (f)) '())))))
513
514
```

Fig. 6. new and changed functions in optimized BFS that implements pure features

```
518
      #| Space \times (State \times Space \to Space) \times (\to Space) \to Space |#
519
      (define (elim s^{\infty} ks kf)
520
        (let ((ss (car s^{\infty})) (f (cdr s^{\infty})))
521
           (cond
522
              ((and (null? ss) f)
523
               (step (lambda () (elim (f) ks kf))))
524
              ((null? ss) (kf))
              (else (ks (car ss) (cons (cdr ss) f)))))
526
527
      #| Goal \times Goal \times Goal \rightarrow Goal |#
528
                                                       ofking draft.
529
      (define (ifte g_1 g_2 g_3)
530
        (lambda (s)
531
           (elim (g_1 s)
532
              (lambda (s0 s^{\infty})
533
                (append-map^{\infty}_{fair} g_2
534
                   (append^{\infty}_{fair} (unit s0) s^{\infty})))
535
              (lambda () (g3 s)))))
536
537
      #| Goal → Goal |#
538
      (define (once g)
539
        (lambda (s)
540
           (elim (g s)
541
              (lambda (s0 s^{\infty}) (unit s0))
542
543
              (lambda () (none)))))
```

Fig. 7. new and changed functions in improved BFS that implement impure features

We list functions related to the pure subset in Fig. 6 (the others in Fig. 7). We compare these functions with Seres et al.'s implementation in our proof. The first three functions in Fig. 6 are search space constructors. none makes an empty search space; unit makes a space from one answer; and step makes a space from a thunk. The remaining functions are as before.

Luckily, the change in append $_{fair}^{\infty}$ also fixes the miserable space extravagance—the use of append helps us to reuse the first bag of t^{∞} .

Kiselyov et al. [4] have shown that a *MonadPlus* hides in implementations of logic programming system. Our BFS_{ser} implementation is not an exception: append-map $_{fair}^{\infty}$ is like bind, but takes arguments in reversed order; none, unit, and append $_{fair}^{\infty}$ correspond to mzero, unit, and mplus, respectively.

Functions implementing impure features are in Fig. 7. The first function, elim, takes a space s^{∞} and two continuations ks and kf. When s^{∞} contains some answers, it calls ks with the first answer and the rest of the space. Otherwise, it calls kf with no argument. Here 's' means 'succeed' and 'f' means 'fail'. This function is similar to an eliminator of search spaces, hence the name. The remaining functions are as before.

545

546547548549550

551

552

553

554

555

556

557

558

559

560

561

562

80	
81	
82	
83	
84	
85	

benchmark	size	DFS _i	DFS _{bi}	DFS_f	our BFS _{ser}	original BFS _{ser}
very-recursive ^o	100000	579	793	2131	1438	3617
	200000	1283	1610	3602	2803	4212
	300000	2160	2836	-	6137	-
append ^o	100	31	41	42	31	68
	200	224	222	221	226	218
	300	617	634	593	631	622
revers ^o	10	5	3	3	38	85
	20	107	98	51	4862	5844
	30	446	442	485	123288	132159
quine-1	1	71	44	69	-	-
	2	127	142	95	-	CX
	3	114	114	93	-	-
quine-2	1	147	112	56	&	
	2	161	123	101	- 2	-
	3	289	189	104	, - O*	-
'(I love you)-1	99	56	15	22	74	165
	198	53	72	55	47	74
	297	72	90	44	181	365
'(I love you)-2	99	242	61	16	66	99
	198	445	110	60	42	64
	297	476	146	49	186	322

Table 1. The results of a quantitative evaluation: running times of benchmarks in milliseconds

6.2 compare our implementation with the original one

In this section, we compare the pure subset of our implementation with the original one. We focus on the pure subset because the original system is pure. Seres et al. represent search spaces with streams of lists of answers, where each list is a bag.

To compare efficiency, we translate BFS_{ser}'s Haskell code into Racket (See supplements for the translated code). The translation is direct due to the similarity in both logic programming systems and search space representations. The translated code is longer and slower than our implementation. Details about differences in efficiency are in the table below.

We use Coq to show that the two implementations are semantically equivalent, (i.e., (run n ? g) produces the same result (See supplements for the formal proof).

QUANTITATIVE EVALUATION

Here we compare the efficiency of search strategies. A concise description is in Table 1. A hyphen means "running out of memory." The first two benchmarks are from TRS2. revers^o is from Rozplokhas and Boulytchev [5]. The next two benchmarks about quine are modified from a similar test case in Byrd et al. [1]. The modifications are made to circumvent the need for symbolic constraints (e.g. \neq , absent°). Our version generates de Bruijnized expressions and prevents closures from being inside a list. The two benchmarks differ in the cond^e clause order of their relational interpreters. The last two benchmarks are about synthesizing expressions that evaluate to '(I love you). This benchmark is from Byrd et al. [1]. Again, the sibling benchmarks differ in the cond^e clause order of their relational interpreters. The first one has elimination rules (i.e. application, car, and cdr) at the end, while

the other has them at the beginning. We conjecture that DFS_i would perform badly in the second case because elimination rules complicate the problem when synthesizing (i.e., our evaluation supports our conjecture.)

In general, only DFS_i and DFS_{bi} constantly perform well. DFS_f is just as efficient in all benchmarks but $very-recursive^o$. Both implementations of BFS have obvious overhead in many cases. Among the three variants of DFS, which all all have unfair conj), DFS_f is most resistant to clause permutation, followed by DFS_{bi} then DFS_i . Among the two implementation of BFS, our improved BFS_{ser} constantly performs as well or better. Interestingly, every strategy with fair disj suffers in $very-recursive^o$ and DFS_f performs well elsewhere. Therefore, this benchmark might be a special case. Fair conj imposes considerable overhead constantly except in append o . The reason might be that strategies with fair conj tend to keep more intermediate answers in the memory.

c1 c2

621 622 623

624

625

626

627

628 629

630

631

632

633

634

635

636

637

638

639

612

613 614

615

616617

618 619

620

8 RELATED WORKS

Yang [7] points out that a disjunct complex would be 'fair' if it were a full and balanced tree.

Seres et al. [6] describe a breadth-first search strategy. We present another implementation. Our implementation is semantically equivalent to theirs. But, ours is shorter and performs better in comparison with a straightforward translation of their Haskell code.

9 CONCLUSION

We analyze the definitions of fair disj and fair conj, then propose a new definition of fair conj. Our definition is orthogonal with completeness.

We devise two new search strategies (i.e. balanced interleaving DFS (DFS_{bi}) and fair DFS (DFS_f)) and devise a new implementation of BFS. These strategies have different features in fairness: DFS_{bi} has an almost-fair disj and unfair conj. DFS_f has fair disj and unfair conj. BFS_{ser} has both fair disj and fair conj.

Our quantitative evaluation shows that DFS_{bi} and DFS_f are competitive alternatives to DFS_i, the current search strategy, and that BFS_{ser} is less practical than other breadth-first strategies. c3 c4

We present another implementation of BFS_{ser} . Our implementation is semantically equivalent to the original one. But, ours is shorter and performs better in comparison with a straightforward translation of their Haskell code.

c5 c6

640641642

643

644

645

646

647

648

649

650

651 652

654

655

656

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

REFERENCES

- [1] William E Byrd, Michael Ballantyne, Gregory Rosenblatt, and Matthew Might. 2017. A unified approach to solving seven programming problems (functional pearl). *Proceedings of the ACM on Programming Languages* 1, ICFP (2017).
- [2] Daniel P. Friedman, William E. Byrd, and Oleg Kiselyov. 2005. The Reasoned Schemer. The MIT Press.
- [3] Daniel P. Friedman, William E. Byrd, Oleg Kiselyov, and Jason Hemann. 2018. The Reasoned Schemer, Second Edition.
- [4] Oleg Kiselyov, Chung-chieh Shan, Daniel P Friedman, and Amr Sabry. 2005. Backtracking, interleaving, and terminating monad transformers:(functional pearl). ACM SIGPLAN Notices 40, 9 (2005), 192–203.
- [5] Dmitri Rozplokhas and Dmitri Boulytchev. 2018. Improving Refutational Completeness of Relational Search via Divergence Test. In Proceedings of the 20th International Symposium on Principles and Practice of Declarative Programming. ACM, 18.

^{c1}DPF: appendo is not raised, though I tried.

⁶⁵³ c2 LKC: Which appendo is not raised? I couldn't find one.

^{c3}DPF: I think what I have is okay, now.

^{c4}*LKC*: other search strategies

c5 DPF: Finish this paragraph with a clarification and you may place this anywhere in the conclusion. This may require some consultation with Weixi.

⁶⁵⁷ c6 LKC: I will do it later.

[6] Silvija Seres, J Michael Spivey, and C. A. R. Hoare. 1999. Algebra of Logic Programming.. In ICLP. 184–199.

Judibited Hoteling distribution.

[7] Edward Z. Yang. 2010. Adventures in Three Monads. The Monad. Reader Issue 15 (2010), 11.