The 25th International Symposium on Practical Aspects of Declarative Languages

Linear Algebraic Abduction with Partial Evaluation

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January 17th, 2023

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Outline

- Overview and Preliminaries
- 2 Linear Algebraic Computation of Abduction
- Operation Partial evaluation
- Experimental Results



Outline

Overview and Preliminaries

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inference to the best explanation starting from a set of observations.



Applications: Model-based diagnosis, belief revision, automated reasoning,

 $P \Rightarrow Q$

Definition (Propositional Horn Clause Abduction Problem (PHCAP))

A PHCAP can be modeled as a quadruple \langle $\mathscr{L}, \mathbb{H}, \mathbb{O}, \mathsf{P}$ $\rangle.$ Where:

- $\bullet \ {\mathscr L}$ is the set of all propositional variables.
- \mathbb{H} is the set of all hypotheses.
- \bullet $\mathbb O$ is the set of observations.
- P is a logic program (set of Horn clauses).
- Goal: find the set of minimal explanations ${\mathbb E}$ that satisfies:

Definition (Explanation of PHCAP)

- A set $E \subseteq \mathbb{H}$ is an *explanation* of a PHCAP $\langle \mathscr{L}, \mathbb{H}, \mathbb{O}, \mathsf{P} \rangle$ if $\mathsf{P} \cup E \vDash \mathbb{O}$ and $\mathsf{P} \cup E$ is consistent.
- An explanation E of \mathbb{O} is *minimal* if there is no explanation E' of \mathbb{O} such that $E' \subset E$.

• Example 1: An example of PHCAP

$$\begin{aligned} \mathscr{L} &= \{p, q, r, s, h_1, h_2, h_3\}, \\ \mathbb{H} &= \{h_1, h_2, h_3\}, \\ \mathbb{O} &= \{p\}, \end{aligned} \qquad P = \{p \leftarrow q \land r, \\ q \leftarrow h_1 \lor s, \\ r \leftarrow s \lor h_2, \\ s \leftarrow h_3\} \end{aligned}$$

Set of minimal explanations: $\mathbb{E} = \{ \{h_1, h_3\}, \{h_2, h_3\} \}$

• Deciding if there is a solution of a PHCAP is NP-complete [1], [2].

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^[1] Selman and Levesque, "Abductive and Default Reasoning: A Computational Core", 1990.

^[2] Eiter and Gottlob, "The complexity of logic-based abduction", 1995.

- In this work, we focus on PHCAP with P is an acyclic program [3].
- For convenience, P is partitioned into $P_{And} \cup P_{Or}$ where:
 - P_{And} is a set of And-rule (including facts) and
 - P_{Or} is a set of Or-rule.

And-rule
$$h \leftarrow b_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge b_m$$
 $(m \ge 0)$ Or-rule $h \leftarrow b_1 \vee \cdots \vee b_n$ $(n > 1)$

• Standardized program: is a definite program such that there is **no duplicate head atom**.

[3] Apt and Bezem, "Acyclic Programs", 1991.

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Definition (Program matrix of PHCAP [4])

Let P be a standardized program and $\mathscr{L} = \{p_1, \ldots, p_n\}$. Then P is represented by a matrix $M_P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that for each element a_{ij} $(1 \le i, j \le n)$ in M_P ,

2
$$a_{ij_k} = 1$$
 $(1 \le k \le l; 1 \le i, j_k \le n)$ if $p_i \leftarrow p_{j_1} \lor \cdots \lor p_{j_l}$ (*Or*-rule) is in P;

$$a_{ii} = 1 \text{ if } p_i \leftarrow (\text{fact}) \text{ is in } P \text{ or } p_i \in \mathbb{H} \text{ (abducible)};$$

• $a_{ij} = 0$, otherwise.

• Any Horn program can be transformed into a standardized program in linear time.

• Horn program $\xrightarrow{\text{standardization}}$ standardized program $\xrightarrow{\text{tensorization}}$ program matrix M_P .



(4) (2) (4) (4) (4)

Definition (Abductive matrix of PHCAP)

Suppose a PHCAP has P with its *program matrix* M_P . The *abductive matrix* of P is the transpose of M_P represented as M_P^T .

Example 1 (continue...): $\mathscr{L} = \{p, q, r, s, h_1, h_2, h_3\}, \mathbb{H} = \{h_1, h_2, h_3\}, \mathbb{O} = \{p\}, \mathsf{P} = \{p \leftarrow q \land r\}, q \leftarrow h_1 \lor s\}, r \leftarrow s \lor h_2, s \leftarrow h_3\}.$



• Every subset of $\mathscr{L} = \{p, q, r, s, h_1, h_2, h_3\}$ can be represented by a vector.

$$\begin{array}{c} p \\ q \\ r \\ s \\ h_1 \\ h_2 \\ h_3 \end{array} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \leftrightarrow \mathbb{H} = \{h_1, h_2, h_3\} \qquad \qquad \begin{array}{c} p \\ q \\ r \\ s \\ h_1 \\ h_2 \\ h_3 \end{array} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ p \\ r \\ h_2 \\ h_3 \end{array} \end{pmatrix} \leftrightarrow \mathbb{O} = \{p\}$$

Vector of hypotheses

Observation vector

- Linear algebraic computation is a set of transformations converting observation vector \mathbb{O} into a vector representing a subset of \mathbb{H} . Each transformation step is an 1-step abduction.
- We refer to the vector representing explanations as explanation vector. An explanation vector v reaches an answer E if $v \subseteq \mathbb{H}$.

• If the explanation vector v does not contain head of any *Or*-rule, the abduction step is realized by *matrix multiplication* $M_P^T \times v$.



To explain p, we have to explain both q and r.

• Initial condition:
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} v[i] = 1$$
. A vector is *unexplainable* if $\sum_{i=1}^{n} v[i] < 1$.

• If the correspondent vector contains head of any *Or*-rule, the abduction step is realized by *solving a Minimal Hitting Sets (MHS) problem* [5].

To explain q and r, we have 2 Or-rules: $q \leftarrow h_1 \lor s$, $r \leftarrow s \lor h_2$. Solving a MHS problem: $\{\{h_1, s\}, \{s, h_2\}\}$. Answer: $\{\{s\}, \{h_1, h_2\}\}$. To explain q and r, we either need to explain s or to explain both h_1 and h_2 .

^[5] Gainer-Dewar and Vera-Licona, "The minimal hitting set generation problem: algorithms and computation", 2017 🗆 🕨 👍 🕨 🤙 🕨 🤙 👘 🖓 🔍 🕐

Definition (Or-computable and And-computable)

- **(**) A vector v is *Or*-computable iff $v \cap head(P_{Or}) \neq \emptyset$.
- **2** A matrix *M* is *Or*-computable iff $\exists v \in M$, *v* is *Or*-computable.
- S A vector v is And-computable iff v is not Or-computable.
- **(**) A matrix *M* is *And*-computable iff $\forall v \in M$, *v* is not *Or*-computable.
 - For *And*-computable vector/matrix, we can compute the explanations by performing matrix multiplication.
- For *Or*-computable vector/matrix, we can find the explanations by enumerating MHSs.

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Example 2: Consider a program:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathscr{L} &= \{obs, \ e_1, \ e_2, \ e_3, \\ e_4, \ e_5, \ e_6, \ H_1, \ H_2, \ H_3 \}, \\ \mathbb{H} &= \{H_1, \ H_2, \ H_3 \}, \\ \mathbb{O} &= \{obs\}, \end{aligned}$$

$$P = \{obs \leftarrow e_1, \\ e_1 \leftarrow e_2 \land e_3, \\ e_2 \leftarrow e_4 \land e_5, \\ e_2 \leftarrow e_5 \land e_6, \\ e_3 \leftarrow e_5, \\ e_4 \leftarrow H_1, \\ e_5 \leftarrow H_2, \\ e_6 \leftarrow H_3\}.$$

$$P' = \{obs \leftarrow e_1 \\ e_1 \leftarrow e_2 \land e_3, \\ e_2 \leftarrow x_1 \lor x_2, \\ e_3 \leftarrow e_5, \\ e_4 \leftarrow H_1, \\ e_5 \leftarrow H_2, \\ e_6 \leftarrow H_3, \\ x_1 \leftarrow e_4 \land e_5, \\ x_2 \leftarrow e_5 \land e_6\}.$$



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Example 2 (continue...):



Example 2 (continue...):

• Iteration 1:

- $M^{(1)} = \theta(M_P^T \times M^{(0)})$, where $M^{(0)} = \mathbb{O}$:



(*) Vector/matrix can be represented in sparse format : Coordinate (COO) / Compressed Sparse Row (CSR) / Compressed Sparse Column (CSC).

Example 2 (continue...):

- Iteration 2:
- $M^{(2)} = \theta(M_P^T \times M^{(1)})$



- Solving MHS: { $\{x_1, x_2\}, \{e_3\}$ }. MHS solutions: { $\{e_3, x_1\}, \{e_3, x_2\}$ } = $M^{(3)}$.

Example 2 (continue...):

• Iteration 3:

- $M^{(4)} = \theta(M_P^T \times M^{(3)})$



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Example 2 (continue...):

- Iteration 4:
- $M^{(4)} = \theta(M_P^T \times M^{(3)})$



• The algorithm stops. Found minimal explanations: $\{ \{H_1, H_2\}, \{H_2, H_3\} \}$.

Definition (Reduct abductive matrix)

We can obtain a *reduct abductive matrix* $M_P(\mathsf{P}^r_{And})^T$ from the abductive matrix M_P^T by:

- Removing all columns w.r.t. Or-rules in P_{Or}.
- **2** Setting 1 at the diagonal corresponding to all atoms which are heads of *Or*-rules.

Consider the PHCAP in *Example 2*:



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Definition (Partial evaluation in abduction)

Let a PHCAP $\langle \mathscr{L}, \mathbb{H}, \mathbb{O}, \mathsf{P} \rangle$ where P is a standardized program. For any And-*rule* $r = (h \leftarrow b_1 \land \cdots \land b_m)$ in P:

- if body(r) contains an atom b_i $(1 \le i \le m)$ which is not the head of any rule in P, then remove r.
- otherwise, for each atom $b_i \in body(r)$ (i = 1, ..., m), if there is an And-rule $b_i \leftarrow B_i$ in P (where B_i is a conjunction of atoms), then replace each b_i in body(r) by the conjunction B_i .

The resulting rule is denoted by unfold(r). Define

$$peval(P) = \bigcup_{r \in P_{And}} unfold(r).$$

peval(P) is called *partial evaluation* of P.

$\begin{array}{l} \hline Example \ 3: \ \mbox{Consider a similar program in } Example \ 2: \\ \mathscr{L} = \{obs, e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4, e_5, e_6, H_1, H_2, H_3\}, \ \mathbb{H} = \{H_1, H_2, H_3\}, \ \mathbb{O} = \{obs\}, \\ P = \{obs \leftarrow e_1, e_1 \leftarrow e_2 \land e_3, \ e_2 \leftarrow e_4 \land e_5, \ e_2 \leftarrow e_5 \land e_6, \ e_3 \leftarrow e_5, \ e_4 \leftarrow H_1, \ e_5 \leftarrow H_2, \ e_6 \leftarrow H_3\}. \\ \mbox{Standardized program } P' = \{obs \leftarrow e_1, \ e_1 \leftarrow e_2 \land e_3, \ e_2 \leftarrow x_1 \lor x_2, \ e_3 \leftarrow e_5, \ e_4 \leftarrow H_1, \ e_5 \leftarrow H_2, \ e_6 \leftarrow H_3\}. \end{array}$



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Example 3 (continue...):

- Let $P' = \{r_1, ..., r_9\}$ where:

 $r_1 = (obs \leftarrow e_1).$ $r_2 = (e_1 \leftarrow e_2 \land e_3).$ $r_3 = (e_2 \leftarrow x_1 \lor x_2).$ $r_A = (x_1 \leftarrow e_A \land e_5).$ $r_5 = (x_2 \leftarrow e_5 \land e_6).$ $r_6 = (e_3 \leftarrow e_5),$ $r_7 = (e_4 \leftarrow H_1).$ $r_8 = (e_5 \leftarrow H_2)$. $r_0 = (e_6 \leftarrow H_3).$

- Unfolding rules of P'becomes: unfold $(r_1) = (obs \leftarrow e_2 \land e_3),$ unfold $(r_2) = (e_1 \leftarrow e_2 \land e_5)$. unfold $(r_3) = r_3$. unfold $(r_4) = (x_1 \leftarrow H_1 \land H_2),$ unfold $(r_5) = (x_2 \leftarrow H_2 \land H_3)$. unfold $(r_6) = (e_3 \leftarrow H_2)$. unfold $(r_7) = r_7$. unfold $(r_8) = r_8$. unfold(r_0) = r_0 . $e_6 \leftarrow H_3$.

- Then peval(P')consists of $obs \leftarrow e_2 \wedge e_3$. $e_1 \leftarrow e_2 \wedge e_5$. $e_2 \leftarrow x_1 \lor x_2$. $x_1 \leftarrow H_1 \wedge H_2$ $x_2 \leftarrow H_2 \wedge H_2$ $e_3 \leftarrow H_2$. $e_4 \leftarrow H_1$. $e_5 \leftarrow H_2$.









Here, we reach a fixpoint at k = 2. We refer to this "stable" matrix as peval(P) and take it to solve the PHCAP.



Example 3 (continue...):

• Iteration 1:

- $M^{(1)} = heta(\mathsf{peval}(P) imes M^{(0)})$, where $M^{(0)} = \mathbb{O}$



- Solving MHS problem: { $\{x_1, x_2\}, \{H_2\}$ }. MHS solutions: { $\{H_2, x_1\}, \{H_2, x_2\}$ } = $M^{(2)}$.

Example 3 (continue...):

- Iteration 2:
- $M^{(3)} = heta(\mathsf{peval}(P) imes M^{(2)})$



• The algorithm stops. Found minimal explanations: $\{ \{H_1, H_2\}, \{H_2, H_3\} \}$.

• Partial evaluation is repeatedly performed as:

$$\mathsf{peval}^0(P) = P$$
 and $\mathsf{peval}^k(P) = \mathsf{peval}(\mathsf{peval}^{k-1}(P))$ $(k \ge 1).$

• It is realized as computing the power of the reduct abductive matrix:

$$\left(M_P(P''_{And})^T\right)^2, \ \left(M_P(P''_{And})^T\right)^4, \ ...\left(M_P(P''_{And})^T\right)^{2^k} \ (k \ge 1)$$

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• It is realized as computing the power of the reduct abductive matrix:

$$\left(M_P(P_{And}^{\prime r})^T\right)^2, \left(M_P(P_{And}^{\prime r})^T\right)^4, \dots \left(M_P(P_{And}^{\prime r})^T\right)^{2^k} \ (k \ge 1)$$

• Partial evaluation has a fixpoint (the proof is presented in our paper).

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- Partial evaluation has a fixpoint (the proof is presented in our paper).
- The *k*-step partial evaluation has the effect of realizing 2^{*k*} steps of deduction at once. Multiplying an explanation vector and the peval matrix thus realizes exponential speed-up.

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- Partial evaluation has a fixpoint (the proof is presented in our paper).
- The *k*-step partial evaluation has the effect of realizing 2^{*k*} steps of deduction at once. Multiplying an explanation vector and the peval matrix thus realizes exponential speed-up.
- However, computing the power of matrix is costly. We need to verify the positive effect can win the tradeoff.

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Experimental Results

• We experiment on Failure Modes and Effects Analysis (FMEA)-based benchmark datasets by Koitz-Hristov and Wotawa which has been used in [6] and [7].

| Dataset | Number of instances | Characteristics | | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|--|--|--|--|
| Artificial samples I | 166 problems | deeper but narrower graph structure | | | |
| Artificial samples II | 117 problems [8] | deeper and wider graph structure, some problems involve solving a large num- ber of medium-size MHS problems | | | |
| FMEA samples | 213 problems | shallower but wider graph structure, usually involving a few (but) large-size MHS problems | | | |

^[6] Koitz-Hristov and Wotawa, "Applying algorithm selection to abductive diagnostic reasoning", 2018.

[8] Excluded the unresolved problem phcap_140_5_5.atms

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^[7] Koitz-Hristov and Wotawa, "Faster Horn diagnosis-a performance comparison of abductive reasoning algorithms", 2020.

Experimental Results

- We implement our method as two versions: *Dense matrix* and *Sparse matrix* in Python 3.7 (using Numpy and Scipy). Each version we have one with partial evaluation and one without partial evaluation.
- For large-size MHS problems, which have more than 50,000 posible combinations, we use MHS enumerator provided by PySAT [9].
 - All the source code and benchmark datasets in our paper are available on GitHub:



https://github.com/nqtuan0192/LinearAlgebraicComputationofAbduction.We have demonstrated the performance of linear algebraic approaches in [10].

[9] Ignatiev, Morgado, and Marques-Silva, "PySAT: A Python Toolkit for Prototyping with SAT Oracles", 2018.

[10] Nguyen, Inoue, and Sakama, "Linear algebraic computation of propositional Horn abduction", 2021.

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Linear Algebraic Abduction with Partial Evaluation

Experimental Results - Original benchmark



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Experimental Results - Original benchmark

Table: Detailed execution results for the original benchmark.

| Datasets | Artificial | samples I (16 | 6 problems) | Artificial | samples II (1 | 17 problems) | FMEA | samples (213 | problems) |
|-----------------------|--------------|---------------|--------------------|------------|------------------|--------------------|-----------|------------------------|--------------------|
| Algorithms | #solved / | $t + t_p$ | t _{peval} | #solved / | $t + t_{ m ho}$ | t _{peval} | #solved / | $t + t_p$ | t _{peval} |
| | #fastest | mean / std | mean / std | #fastest | mean / std | mean / std | #fastest | mean / std | mean / std |
| Sparse matrix - peval | 1,660 | 4,243 | 514 | 1,170 | 29,438 | 124 | 2,130 | 49 , 481 | 84 |
| | 89 | 93 | 19 | 246 | 112 | 48 | 726 | 1,214 | 4 |
| Sparse matrix | 1,660 | 3,527 | - | 1,170 | 35,844 | - | 2,130 | 53,553 | - |
| | 1,401 | 29 | - | 513 | 62 | - | 150 | 1,254 | - |
| Dense matrix - peval | 1,660 | 811,841 | 728,086 | 1,170 | 140,589 | 3,599 | 2,130 | 98,614 | 25 |
| | 13 | 2,227 | 31,628 | 90 | 1,293 | 910 | 1,007 | 2,950 | 3 |
| Dense matrix | 1,660 | 27,569 | - | 1,170 | 205,279 | - | 2,130 | 131,734 | - |
| | 157 | 183 | - | 321 | 1,866 | - | 247 | 3,629 | - |

- Partial evaluation improves much more in Artificial samples II and FMEA samples.
- We see performance degradation happens in **Artificial samples I** for both dense and sparse methods, especially with the dense method.

In this experiment, we enhance the benchmark dataset based on the transitive closure problem:

$$P = \{ path(X, Y) \leftarrow edge(X, Y), \\ path(X, Y) \leftarrow edge(X, Z) \land path(Z, Y) \}$$

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$$P = \{ path(X, Y) \leftarrow edge(X, Y), \\ path(X, Y) \leftarrow edge(X, Z) \land path(Z, Y) \}$$

• First, generate a PHCAP based on the transitive closure of a single line graph: edge(1, 2), edge(2, 3), edge(3, 4), edge(4, 5), edge(5, 6), edge(6, 7), edge(7, 8), edge(8, 9), edge(9, 10).

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- Then we consider the observation to be path(1, 10), and look for the explanation of it.

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- First, generate a PHCAP based on the transitive closure of a single line graph: edge(1, 2), edge(2, 3), edge(3, 4), edge(4, 5), edge(5, 6), edge(6, 7), edge(7, 8), edge(8, 9), edge(9, 10).
- Then we consider the observation to be path(1, 10), and look for the explanation of it.
- Next, for each problem instance of the original benchmark, we enumerate rules of the form $e \leftarrow h$, where h is a hypothesis and e is a propositional variable, and append the atom of the observation of the new PHCAP into this rule with a probability of 20%.

The resulting problem is expected to have the subgraph of And-rules occur more frequently.



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Table: Detailed execution results for the enhanced benchmark datasets.

| Datasets | Artificial | samples I (16 | 6 problems) | Artificial | samples II (1 | 17 problems) | FMEA | samples (213 | problems) |
|-----------------------|--------------|----------------|--------------------|------------|----------------|--------------------|-----------|----------------|--------------------|
| Algorithms | #solved / | $t + t_{ m P}$ | t _{peval} | #solved / | $t + t_{\rho}$ | t _{peval} | #solved / | $t + t_{ m P}$ | t _{peval} |
| | #fastest | mean / std | mean / std | #fastest | mean / std | mean / std | #fastest | mean / std | mean / std |
| Sparse matrix - peval | 1,660 | 12,140 | 545 | 1,170 | 95,079 | 138 | 2,130 | 72,776 | 157 |
| | 116 | 124 | 15 | 254 | 616 | 4 | 384 | 1,103 | 5 |
| Sparse matrix | 1,660 | 16,163 | - | 1,170 | 147,444 | - | 2,130 | 74,861 | - |
| | 1,389 | 209 | - | 516 | 1,508 | - | 553 | 526 | - |
| Dense matrix - peval | 1,660 | 869,922 | 799,965 | 1,170 | 380,033 | 4,483 | 2,130 | 81,837 | 103 |
| | 5 | 2,434 | 58,500 | 77 | 2,228 | 688 | 436 | 1,005 | 10 |
| Dense matrix | 1,660 | 70,365 | - | 1,170 | 613,422 | - | 2,130 | 95,996 | - |
| | 150 | 681 | - | 323 | 3,651 | - | 757 | 1,021 | - |

- With the dataset enhancement, we now see partial evaluation can improve the performance for sparse method significantly in the **Artificial samples I**.
- However, the problem still remains with the dense method.
- The graph structure of the **Artificial samples I** is the cause of the problem. That we take more time in computing the power of the matrix with the dense format.
- It also hightlights the importance of sparse representation.

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Conclusion

Contributions:

- We have proposed to improve the linear algebraic approach for abduction by employing partial evaluation.
- Partial evaluation steps can be realized as the power of the reduct abductive matrix in the language of linear algebra.
- Its significant enhancement in terms of execution time has been demonstrated using artificial benchmarks and real FMEA-based datasets with both dense and sparse representation, especially more with the sparse format.

Conclusion

But why do we need linear algebraic method?

- It simplifies the core algorithm (easy to understand, easy to implement).
- It can take the advantages of recent advancements in tensor oriented computing hardwares.
- It is expected to be better scalability.

Conclusion

Future work:

- I Handling loops and extending the method to work with non-Horn clauses.
- Employing an effective prediction to know better when to apply partial evaluation and how deep we do unfolding before solving the problem.
- Onceover, incorporating some efficient pruning techniques or knowing where to zero out in the abductive matrix is also a potential topic.

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Thank you for your attention

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Linear Algebraic Abduction with Partial Evaluation

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