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Complexity Results in Optimistic/Pessimistic Preference Reasoning

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Abstract—Preference reasoning is a central problem in decision support. There exist various ways to interpret a set of qualitative preferences. Conditional preference logics allow to deal with semantics such as optimistic, pessimistic, strong or not. In this paper, we study the complexity of the main problems in optimistic/pessimistic preference logic: undominated, consistency and dominance. We show that they are all NP-hard in general, with some becoming polynomial under specific semantics. Our second contribution is to show that the dominance problem, which has an online component in its definition, is compilable to polynomial time.

I. INTRODUCTION

Preferences appear in our everyday life each time we make a choice. When the number of alternatives becomes large, people/users unconsciously express preferences over them. Preferences help in making a faster decision rather than comparing an (potentially) exponential number of alternatives. Preference reasoning aims at supporting the user in making a choice reflecting her preferences. Reasoning with preferences is a topic of increasing interest in decision support.

Given a set of preferences defined by the user, determining the best choice(s) is one of the main problems in preference reasoning, called the undominated problem. Other main problems are the consistency of a set of preferences, or the ranking of pairs of outcomes, i.e. the dominance problem.

There exist two main ways to express preferences in the literature: one for quantitative preferences and one for qualitative preferences. The most popular formalism of quantitative preferences is the GAI-net (Generalized Additive Independence) [1]. GAI-net offers the advantage that dominance testing simply requires to compute the utility of each outcome. But, all quantitative preference formalisms suffer from the same drawback: how to specify the weights of the alternatives? It can be difficult for a user to state she prefers to buy a house with weight 0.7 rather than an apartment with weight 0.3.

On the other hand, qualitative preferences are easier to be expressed by the user. CP-nets [2] are a well-known formalism of qualitative preference reasoning. CP-nets use a semantics called ceteris paribus (i.e., "all other things being equal"), meaning that two outcomes can be compared according to a variable only if these outcomes are equal over all other variables. Both dominance and undominated problems have been widely studied for this formalism. In general, dominance testing in CP-nets has been proved PSPACE-complete [3], whereas undominated outcomes are the solutions of a set of hard constraints, thus not harder than NP [4]. Dominance has been proved polynomial for CP-nets with tree or poly-tree structures, and for acyclic binary-valued CP-nets [5]. Undominated is also polynomial for acyclic CP-nets [5].

Several semantics other than ceteris paribus have been proposed: optimistic [6], pessimistic [7], strong (called strict in [8]). The conditional logic of preferences of [9], [10] provides a unified framework to deal with all these semantics. This framework has the advantage that it allows the user to choose a pessimistic or an optimistic semantics, and to decide for each preference whether it is strong or not. Unfortunately, the complexity of reasoning in this framework is unknown. The only algorithm provided for this framework requires exponential space.

In [11], Bienvenu et al. introduced another general framework for preference reasoning, called prototypical preference logic (PL for short). In PL, a logic formula involves preference statements. Each preference statement involves formulas α and β and a formula F under which α is preferred to β (denoted by $\alpha \triangleright \beta \parallel F$). Several well-known preference frameworks are fragments of PL. For instance, it has been shown in [11] that we can encode CP-nets by putting in F all the propositional symbols that do not appear in α and β. The expressive power of PL has a price: dominance and consistency are shown to be PSPACE-complete in the general case. In [11], Bienvenu et al. have also studied fragments with lower complexity. They isolated a part of PL in which F is empty and preferences only allow conjunctions. This fragment is called free preferences. With free preferences, consistency becomes co-NP-complete and dominance NP-complete. Free preferences are presented as "obviously related" to the strong semantics in [10].

In this paper, we study the optimistic/pessimistic preference logic defined in [9], [10]. We give a complete complexity map of the main problems in this logic: undominated, consistency and dominance. We show that their complexities depend on the semantics under which they are interpreted. All problems are NP-hard in general. When all preferences are strong, consistency and dominance are polynomial, and if in addition, the semantics is pessimistic, undominated is
The undominated, consistency, and dominance problems are the main problems defined in the literature for preference reasoning.

**Definition 1 (Undominated):** Given a preference network $N = (V,P)$, the undominated problem is to determine whether there exists an outcome $I \in \Omega$ for which there does not exist any outcome $I' \in \Omega$ such that $I' \succ I$.

**Definition 2 (Consistency):** Given a preference network $N = (V,P)$, the consistency problem is to determine whether there does not exist any pair of outcomes $I,I' \in \Omega$ such that $I \succ I'$ and $I' \succ I$.

**Definition 3 (Dominance):** Given a preference network $N = (V,P)$ and two outcomes $I, I' \in \Omega$, the dominance problem is to determine whether $I \succeq I'$ and $I' \not\succ I$.

**B. Optimistic/pessimistic preference logic**

In this section, we present and formalize the conditional logic of preferences introduced in [9], [10]. This formalism can be used to build the relation $\succ$ over the outcomes in $\Omega$. The relation $\succ$ is induced by a set of preferences and semantics under which the preferences are interpreted. The user can define an optimistic (Opt) (resp. pessimistic (Pes)) semantics for the whole set of preferences, to rank the outcomes from best to worst (resp. from worst to best). After setting the semantics for the whole set of preferences, each preference can be defined either as strong (e.g., strong optimistic, strong pessimistic [8][12]), or non-strong (e.g., simply optimistic [13], [6] or pessimistic [7]). Illustrations of these semantics are given later. We give the definition of a preference in conditional logic.

**Definition 4 (Preference):** Given a vocabulary $V = (X,D)$, a conditional logic preference $p$ is defined by a triplet $(h,b,w)$, written $p = (h : b > w)$, of instantiations in $V$. $h$ defines an hypothesis under which outcomes satisfying $b$ (better) are preferred to those satisfying $w$ (worse). If $h = \emptyset$ then $b$ is unconditionally preferred to $w$.

In the following we consider that in all preferences $p = (h : b > w)$, $h$, $b$, and $w$ are instantiations of bounded size. Despite this restriction, all our hardness results will hold.

Having defined what a preference in conditional logic is, we define the network of conditional logic preferences.

**Definition 5 (CLP-net):** A network of conditional logic preferences (CLP-net) is a pair $(V,P[S,Str])$, where $V = (X,D)$ is the vocabulary and $P$ is a set of conditional logic preferences defined on $V$. $S$ is a semantics for $P$ (i.e., Opt or Pes), $Str$ is the set of the preferences of $P$ that are strong.

Hereafter, when we refer to a preference, we always mean a conditional logic preference. We define two types of preference satisfaction, i.e. the satisfaction and the full satisfaction.

**Definition 6 (Preference satisfaction):** Given a preference $p = (h : b > w)$ on a vocabulary $V$, an outcome $I$ in $\Omega$ satisfies $p$ in Opt, written $I \models_{opt} p$, if and only if $I \not\models h$ or $I \models b$ or $I \not\models w$. Respectively, $I$ satisfies $p$ in Pes, written $I \models_{pes} p$, if and only if $I \models h$ or $I \not\models b$ or $I \models w$. If $I$ does not satisfy $p$ in $S$, we say that it violates $p$, written $I \not\models_S p$.

Given a CLP-net $(V,P[S,Str])$ and an outcome $I$, violated$(P,I)$ denotes the set of preferences from $P$ that are violated by $I$ in $S$. If violated$(P,I) = \emptyset$, we write $I \models_S P$.

An optimistic semantics $(S = \text{Opt})$ can be viewed as a first best choice (namely the best outcome is given first), whereas a pessimistic semantics $(S = \text{Pes})$ is a first worst choice (namely a choice by elimination).

We now give the definition for the preference full satisfaction, which requires to satisfy the hypothesis.

**Definition 7 (Preference full satisfaction):** Given a preference $p = (h : b > w)$ on a vocabulary $V$, an outcome $I$ in $\Omega$ fully satisfies $p$ in Opt, denoted by $I \models_{\text{full}}^{\text{opt}} p$, if and only if $I \models h$, $I \models b$, and $I \models w$. Respectively, $I$ fully satisfies $p$ in Pes, denoted by $I \models_{\text{full}}^{\text{pes}} p$, if and only if $I \models h$, $I \models w$, and $I \not\models b$.

We give an example to illustrate the preference (full) satisfaction.

**Example 1 ((Full) satisfaction):** When organizing a trip, there is an option between a day (d) or a night (n) flight...
and between a stop flight (s) or a non-stop one (\(\overline{\alpha}\)). The user says: "If the flight is non-stop then I prefer a night flight to a day one". written as: \(p_1 = (\overline{\alpha} : \overline{d} > d)\). An outcome \(I\) satisfies \(p_1\) in \(Opt\) if and only if \(I\) violates \(\overline{\alpha}\) or satisfies \(\overline{d}\). In other words, any stop flight or (non-stop) night flight satisfies user’s preference in \(Opt\). Similarly, any stop flight or (non-stop) day flight satisfies \(p_1\) in \(Pes\). An outcome \(I\) fully satisfies \(p_1\) in \(Opt\) if and only if \(I\) satisfies \(\overline{\alpha}\) and satisfies \(\overline{d}\) (i.e., a non-stop night flight). A non-stop day flight fully satisfies \(p_1\) in \(Pes\).

Before defining the main notion that will allow us to compare outcomes, we need to define the notion of preference deactivation.

**Definition 8 (Preference deactivation):** Given a CLP-net \((V, P[S, Str])\), we say that \(P\) deactivates a preference \(p\), denoted by \(P \lessdot p\), if and only if
- \(p \not\in Str\) and there exists an outcome \(I \in Opt\) such that \(I\) fully satisfies \(p\) in \(S\) and \(I\) satisfies \(P\) in \(S\), that is, \(P \lessdot p \iff \exists I \in Opt \mid I \models_S p \text{ and } I \models_S P\).
- \(p \in Str\) and for any outcome \(I \in Opt\), if \(I\) fully satisfies \(p\) in \(S\) then \(I\) satisfies \(P\) in \(S\), that is, \(P \lessdot p \iff \forall I \in Opt, I \models_S p \rightarrow I \models_S P\).

**Example 2 (Deactivation):** In the problem of Example 1 where \(p_1 = (\overline{\alpha} : \overline{d} > d)\), the user adds the following preference: "I prefer a non-stop flight to a stop one", written \(p_2 = (\emptyset : \overline{\alpha} > \overline{d})\). Then, \(P = \{p_1, p_2\}\). If the user sets \(S\) to \(Opt\) and \(p_1, p_2\) are not strong, \(P\) deactivates \(p_1\) because the outcome \(I = (\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d})\) (i.e., "non-stop night flight") fully satisfies \(p_1\) and satisfies \(P\). \(P\) also deactivates \(p_2\).

Preference deactivation allows us to define layers, which is the central notion to compare outcomes in this conditional logic. A layer is a set of outcomes. Each layer includes the outcomes that do not belong to previous layers and that satisfy all preferences that have not been deactivated in previous layers. We give the inductive definition of layers.

**Definition 9 (Layer):** Given a CLP-net \((V, P[S, Str])\), \(P_0 = P\), and \(P_i\) is the set of the preferences in \(P_{i-1}\) that are not deactivated by \(P_{i-1}\), that is, \(P_i = P_{i-1} \setminus \{p \mid P_{i-1} \lessdot p\}\).

The layer \(E_i\) is the set of outcomes that do not belong to previous layers and that satisfy all preferences in \(P_i\), that is, \(E_i = \{I \in Opt \mid I \models_S P_i\} \setminus \bigcup_{j<i} E_j\). The index last is the smallest index such that all outcomes satisfying \(P_{last}\) belong to previous layers \(E_0, \ldots, E_{last-1}\). We define \(E_{last}\) to be the set of remaining outcomes \(Opt \setminus \bigcup_{j=0}^{last} E_j\).

Given an outcome \(I \in Opt\), layer(I) is the index of the layer to which \(I\) belongs, that is, \(I \in E_{layer(I)}\).

It is important to observe that \(E_{last}\) can be empty or not. If \(E_{last}\) is non-empty, none of the outcomes in \(E_{last}\) can satisfy \(P_{last}\) and the construction of layers cannot proceed.

We define now the preference relation \(\succ\) according to the semantics used in CLP-nets.

---

**Table 1 The rankings of Example 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(i)</th>
<th>(P_1, p_2 \notin Str)</th>
<th>(p_1 \notin Str, p_2 \in Str)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>(p_1, p_2)</td>
<td>(p_1 = (\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d}))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(\emptyset)</td>
<td>(p_2 = (\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d}))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(\emptyset)</td>
<td>(\emptyset)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>(\emptyset)</td>
<td>(\emptyset)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Definition 10 (Layer based order):** Given two outcomes \(I\) and \(I'\) in \(Opt\), we have,
- \(I\) is strictly preferred to \(I'\) in \(Opt\), denoted by \(I \succ_{Opt} I'\), if and only if layer\((I')\) = last or layer\((I)\) < layer\((I')\).
- \(I\) is strictly preferred to \(I'\) in \(Pes\), denoted by \(I \succ_{Pes} I'\), if and only if layer\((I)\) = last or layer\((I)\) > layer\((I')\).

When \(S = Opt\) (resp. \(S = Pes\)), the best (resp. worst) outcome is ranked first. Namely, the best outcome appears in \(E_0\) for \(Opt\) (resp. in \(E_{last-1}\) for \(Pes\)). If an outcome \(I\) belongs to a layer which precedes (resp. follows) the layer where an outcome \(I'\) belongs to, \(I\) is strictly preferred to \(I'\).

**Example 3 (Layers):** Recall the preferences of the previous examples: \(p_1 = (\overline{\alpha} : \overline{d} > d)\) and \(p_2 = (\emptyset : \overline{\alpha} > \overline{d})\). Table I illustrates the different rankings of the outcomes depending on \(p_2\) being strong or not. Suppose that \(p_1 \notin Str\) and \(p_2 \notin Str\). According to Definition 6, the best outcome for \(S = Opt\) is the same regardless of the set \(Str\), i.e. a non-stop night flight \((\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d})\). Hence, \(E_0 = \{(\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d})\}\). From Definitions 7, 8 and 9, if \(p_1 \notin Str\) and \(p_2 \notin Str\) then \(E_0 = P = \{p_1, p_2\}\) deactivates both \(p_1\) and \(p_2\). Indeed, \((\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d})\) satisfies \(P_1\) and \(P_2\) and fully satisfies \(p_1\) and \(p_2\). Therefore, the set of outcomes in \(E_1\) which satisfy \(P_1 = P_0 \setminus \{p_1, p_2\} = \emptyset\) is equal to all remaining outcomes, namely \(E_1 = \{(\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d}), (\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d})\}\). \(E_2 = \emptyset\) and last = 2.

Suppose now that \(p_1 \notin Str\) and \(p_2 \in Str\). \(P_0\) deactivates \(p_1\) due to \((\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d})\), but does not deactivate \(p_2\) because \(p_2 \in Str\) and there exists \(I' = (\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d})\) such that \(I'\) fully satisfies \(p_2\) but violates \(p_1\). Thus, \(E_0 = \{(\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d})\}\) and \(P_1 = P_0 \setminus \{p_1\} = \{p_2\}\). \((\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d})\) and \((\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d})\) satisfy \(p_2\), resulting in \(E_1 = \{(\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d}), (\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d})\} \setminus E_0 = \{(\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d})\}\). The outcomes that fully satisfy \(P_2\) (i.e., \((\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d})\) and \((\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d})\)) also satisfy \(P_1\). Thus, \(P_1\) deactivates \(p_2\). \(P_2 = \emptyset\), \(E_2 = \{(\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d}), (\overline{\alpha}, \overline{d})\}\), and last = 3.

We have shown how a preference is interpreted under its semantics. In the following section, we show the complexity of the three problems undominated/consistency/dominance depending on the semantics.

**III. Complexity Map**

In this section we draw the complexity map for the three problems undominated/consistency/dominance. We first fo-
There also necessarily exists an outcome \( p \) satisfies
\[ \bigcup N \]
variables \( p \) only if \( I \) satisfies the clause \( p \) if and only if it satisfies
of 3-SAT to the undominated problem: the set of variables \( X \)
and \( b \) is polynomial and this verification is performed
by Definition 10), \( b > w \)
and violates \( p \) is deactivated by a set \( P_i \subseteq P \) is polynomial if \( p \in Str \).

Proof: By definition of deactivation (Definition 8), \( P_i \) deactivates a strong preference \( p = (h : b > w) \) if and only if there does not exist any outcome \( I \) that fully satisfies \( p \) and violates \( p' = (h' : b' > w') \) in \( P_i \). Testing whether there exists \( I \) such that \( I \) fully satisfies \( p \) and violates \( p' \) is equivalent to testing whether there exists \( I \) satisfying \( h \land b \land \neg w \land h' \land \neg b' \land w' \). Such a test is linear in the number of variables \( n \) as all terms of the conjunction are instantiations. We do this process for each \( p' \) in \( P_i \), \( p' \neq p \). \( P_i \) deactivates \( p \) if and only if all the \(|P_i| - 1 \) tests return false. Therefore, deciding deactivation of a strong preference is polynomial in \( Opt \).

Theorem 2: The consistency problem is NP-complete on CLP-nets with \( S = Opt \).

Proof: By Lemma 1, a CLP-net with \( S = Opt \) is consistent if and only if \( P_{last} \) is empty.

Membership. Let us first observe that if a set \( Q \) of preferences deactivates a preference \( p \), then any subset of \( Q \) also deactivates \( p \). A sequence of preferences \( \langle p_i, \ldots, p_{ik} \rangle \) such that \( \forall j \in 1..k, P \setminus \{ p_i \mid i < j \} \) deactivates \( p_i \) is called a sequence of deactivations. Given a sequence of deactivations \( \langle p_i_1, \ldots, p_i_j, \ldots, p_i_k \rangle \), if \( P \setminus \{ p_i_1, \ldots, p_i_j \} \) deactivates \( p_i_{j+1} \), then \( \langle p_i_1, \ldots, p_i_{j+1}, p_i_{j+2}, \ldots, p_i_k \rangle \) is also a sequence of deactivations because of our first observation. Hence, a polynomial certificate for \( P_{last} = \emptyset \) is any sequence of deactivations that wipes out \( P \). Let \( Seq \) be the sequence \( \langle p_{i_1}, I_{i_1}, \ldots, \{ p_{i_m}, I_{i_m} \} \rangle \) such that \( P = \{ p_i_1, \ldots, p_i_m \} \), \( p_i_k \) is deactivated by \( P \setminus \{ p_i_j \mid j < k \} \) for all \( k \in 1..m \), and for each \( p_i_k \notin Str \), \( I_{i_k} \) is an outcome that fully satisfies \( p_{i_k} \) and that satisfies \( P \setminus \{ p_i_j \mid j < k \} \). If \( p_i_k \in Str \), checking if \( p_i_k \) is deactivated by \( P \setminus \{ p_i_j \mid j < k \} \) is polynomial by Lemma 2. If \( p_i_k \notin Str \), checking if \( p_i_k \) is deactivated by \( P \setminus \{ p_i_j \mid j < k \} \) is equivalent to checking if \( I_{i_k} \) satisfies \( P \setminus \{ p_i_j \mid j < k \} \) and fully satisfies \( p_{i_k} \), which is also polynomial. Thus, \( Seq \) is a polynomial certificate for the consistency problem.

Completeness. We reduce an instance \( \phi = (cl_1, \ldots, cl_{m-1}) \) of 3-SAT to the problem \( E_{last} = \emptyset \) in the CLP-net \( \{V, P[Opt, Str]\} \). The set of variables \( X \) is defined by \( variables(\phi) \cup \{ l_b \} \) and \( D = \{0,1\}^X \). For each clause \( cl_i = (l_i, l_{i,2}, l_{i,3}) \) of \( \phi \), we add to \( P \) a preference \( p_i = (l_b : \neg l_{i,1} \land \neg l_{i,2} \land \neg l_{i,3}) \), and \( p_i \notin Str \). We add to \( P \) an extra preference \( p_{extra} = (l_b : l_b > l_b) \) with...
Let $E_{\text{last}}$ be a model of $\phi$. By construction, $E_{\text{last}} \cup \{l_b = 0\}$ satisfies all preferences in $P$ and fully satisfies $p_{\text{extra}}$. No outcome can satisfy $p_{\text{extra}}$ and fully satisfy another preference in $P$. Hence, $P_1 = P \setminus \{p_{\text{extra}}\}$. By construction again, $E_{\text{last}} \cup \{l_b = 1\}$ fully satisfies all preferences in $P_1$, which leads to $P_2 = \emptyset$ and $E_0 = E_{\text{last}} = \emptyset$.

We now prove that $I$ dominates $I'$ (i.e., $I \succ I'$ and $I' \not\succ I$) if and only if $F$ is SAT and $F'$ is UNSAT. We first prove that $F$ is SAT if and only if $I$ belongs to $E_1$. $I$ violates $p$ because $I \models \neg l_b \wedge l_w$. Hence, $I$ cannot belong to $E_0$. By construction, $I$ satisfies all other preferences in $P$. Thus, $I$ belongs to $E_1$ if and only if $P$ deactivates $p$, which means that there exists an outcome $I''$ such that $I''$ satisfies $P$ and fully satisfies $p$. If we set $l_w$ and $l_{h'}$ to false in $I'$, $I''$ satisfies $p'$ and all $p_i$. To fully satisfy $p$, $I''$ needs to satisfy $l_h \wedge l_w$. As $I'' \models l_h$, to satisfy any $p_i$ (obtained from a $c_i$ of $F$), $I''$ needs to satisfy $l_{i,1} \vee \neg (l_{i,2} \wedge l_{i,3})$, namely $(l_{i,1} \vee l_{i,2} \vee l_{i,3})$. Since $I''$ satisfies all these $p_i$, $I''$ is a model of $F$. Then $I''$ belongs to $E_1$ if and only if $F$ is SAT.

Second, we prove that $I'$ does not belong to $E_1$ if and only if $F'$ is UNSAT. $I'$ violates $p'$ because $I' \models \neg l_{h'} \wedge l_{w'}$. Hence, $I'$ cannot belong to $E_0$. $I'$ does not belong to $E_1$ if and only if $P$ does not deactivate $p'$, which means that there does not exist an outcome $I'''$ such that $I'''$ satisfies $P$ and fully satisfies $p'$. By using the same reasoning as previously, there does not exist such an $I'''$ if and only if $F'$ is UNSAT. Thus $I'$ does not belong to $E_1$ if and only if $F'$ is UNSAT.

Finally, we observe that if $F$ and $F'$ are both UNSAT, neither $p$ nor $p'$ can be deactivated, so $I$ and $I'$ both belong to $E_2$, which is equal to $E_{\text{last}}$, and $I$ does not dominate $I'$.

Theorem 1 tells us that the undominated problem is NP-complete for $S = \text{Opt}$ even if $Str = P$. Interestingly, this is not the case for the consistency and dominance problems, which become polynomial when $Str = P$.

Theorem 4: The consistency problem is polynomial on CLP-nets with $S = \text{Opt}$ and $Str = P$.

Proof: A CLP-net $(V, P[\text{Opt}, \text{Str}])$ is consistent if and only if $P_{\text{last}}$ is empty (Lemma 1). This means that there exists a sequence of deactivations that wipes out $P$, that is, a sequence of preferences $\{p_i|_1, \ldots, p_i|m\}$ such that $P = \{p_i|_j \mid j \in 1..m\}$ and for all $k \in 1..m$, $P \setminus \{p_i|_j \mid j < k\} \models p_i$. By Lemma 2, deciding the deactivation of a strong preference by a set of preferences is polynomial. Thus, given a set $Q$ of strong preferences, finding whether there exists a preference in $Q$ deactivated by $Q$ is polynomial too. It is sufficient to iteratively check every preference in $Q$. Next, as in the proof of Theorem 2, we observe that if $Q$ deactivates a preference $p$, then any subset of $Q$ also deactivated $p$. Thus, there exists a sequence of deactivations that wipes out $P$ if and only if a greedy algorithm iteratively finding deactivated preferences and removing them from $P$ terminates by wiping out $P$. As a result, if $P$ can be wiped out by this process, the CLP-net
is consistent, otherwise it is inconsistent. In the worst case, finding a preference that is deactivated by $P$ or by a subset of $P$ requires $|P|$ calls to the deactivation problem. This search for deactivated preference is performed $|P|$ times. Therefore, the consistency problem is polynomial.

**Theorem 5:** The dominance problem is polynomial on CLP-nets with $S = \text{Opt}$ and $\text{Str} = P$.

**Proof:** (Sketch.) Given a CLP-net $(V, P[\text{Opt}, \text{Str}])$ and two outcomes $I$ and $I'$, dominance says 'yes' if and only if there exists an integer $j$ such that $I \mathrel{\not\succ} \bigcup_{i \in 0..j} E_i$ and $I' \not\in \bigcup_{i \in 0..j} E_i$. We can design an algorithm that iteratively builds the sets of preferences $P_1, \ldots, P_j$, where $P_i$ is the set of preferences not deactivated by $P_{i-1}$ and $j$ is the smallest integer such that $I \models_{\text{Opt}} P_j$. $P_j$ is such that $I \succ I'$ if and only if $I' \not\succ_{\text{Opt}} P_j$.

Building $P_1, \ldots, P_j$ is polynomial because deciding the deactivation of a strong preference by a set of preferences is polynomial (Lemma 2) and the number of deactivation tests is bounded above by $|P|^2$. Finally, checking whether $I'$ satisfies $P_j$ is again polynomial to check.

**B. Pessimistic semantics**

As seen in Definition 6, the pessimistic semantics ranks first layers of the worst outcomes whereas optimistic semantics ranks first layers of the best outcomes. As a result, most of the proofs given in this section are slight adaptations of previous ones.

**Theorem 6:** The consistency problem is NP-complete on CLP-nets with $S = \text{Pes}$.

**Proof:** (Sketch.) Membership is essentially the same as in the proof of Theorem 2. Completeness is obtained by changing the way we encode classes in the proof of Theorem 2: For each clause $c_l = (l_{i,1}, l_{i,2}, l_{i,3})$ of $\phi$, we introduce a preference $p_i = \left(\emptyset : \neg l_{i,1} \land \neg l_{i,2} \land l_{i,3} > b_i\right)$ instead of $p_i = \left(\emptyset : b_i > \neg l_{i,1} \land \neg l_{i,2} \land \neg l_{i,3}\right)$. The extra preference becomes $p_{\text{extra}} = \left(\emptyset : b_i > \neg b_i\right)$.

**Theorem 7:** The dominance problem is $DP$-complete on CLP-nets with $S = \text{Pes}$.

**Proof:** Direct adaptation of the proof of Theorem 3.

The undominated problem in pessimistic semantics is substantially different from the optimistic case as we have to build the whole sequence of layers from worst to best before proving the existence of an undominated outcome. It follows a strong connection between the consistency and undominated problems.

**Lemma 3:** A CLP-net with $S = \text{Pes}$ is consistent if and only if it has an undominated outcome.

**Proof:** ($\Rightarrow$) Let $N$ be a consistent CLP-net with $S = \text{Pes}$. From a slightly adapted Lemma 1, $N$ is consistent if and only if $E_{\text{last}}$ is empty. As $E_{\text{last}}$ is empty, there exists an outcome $I$ belonging to $E_{\text{last}}-1$. By Definition 10, there does not exist any outcome $I'$ such that $I' \succ I$. Thus, $I$ is undominated.

($\Leftarrow$) Assume $N$ is inconsistent. Then, there exist two outcomes $I$ and $I'$ such that $I \succ I'$ and $I' \succ I$. According to Definition 10, it can only happen if $I$ and $I'$ both belong to $E_{\text{last}}$. Suppose there exists an undominated outcome $I^*$. $I^*$ necessarily belongs to $E_{\text{last}}$, but it is impossible as $I$ would dominate it.

**Corollary 1:** The undominated problem is NP-complete on CLP-nets with $S = \text{Pes}$.

**Proof:** From Lemma 3 and Theorem 6.

**Theorem 8:** The undominated/consistency/dominance problems are polynomial on CLP-nets with $S = \text{Pes}$ and $\text{Str} = P$.

**Proof:** (Sketch.) Consistency and dominance are similar to the optimistic case (Theorems 4 and 5). Undominated comes from Lemma 3.

Table II summarizes the complexity results of this section.

### Table II Summary of Our Complexity Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem</th>
<th>$\text{Str}$</th>
<th>$S = \text{Opt}$</th>
<th>$S = \text{Pes}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Undominated</td>
<td>$\not\succ P$</td>
<td>NP-complete (Th. 1)</td>
<td>NP-complete (Co. 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistency</td>
<td>$\succ P$</td>
<td>NP-complete (Th. 2)</td>
<td>polynomial (Th. 3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominance</td>
<td>$\not\succ P$</td>
<td>$DP$-complete (Th. 3)</td>
<td>$DP$-complete (Th. 4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### IV. Solving and Compiling CLP-nets

The three problems undominated/consistency/dominance introduced in Section II-A are NP-hard to solve in general. The undominated and consistency problems are static problems belonging to NP. They can be solved by a simple call to a SAT or CSP solver. The dominance problem, on the contrary, is more difficult for two reasons. First, it is beyond NP. But more importantly, dominance queries can be repeatedly asked on the same CLP-net for comparing different pairs of outcomes. Such queries arise for instance in recommendation applications, where the system/provider wants to propose to the customer the most appropriate outcome among two (or more) outcomes, according to her preferences. As these queries can be involved in an interactive process, it is crucial to have fast responses.

Compilation theory aims at improving the efficiency of on-line computation of difficult problems through preprocessing [14], [15]. The intuition is to remove sources of complexity to obtain cheaper queries (belonging to a lower complexity class) using a compiled form of the initial data $\Sigma$. The pre-processing, or off-line compilation phase, consists in transforming parts of this fixed part $\Sigma$ into a compiled form of size polynomial in $|\Sigma|$. This transformation can take exponential time. The varying part of the problem appears at execution time, called on-line phase. If the output can be
produced in polynomial time, then the problem is said to be compilable to polynomial time. We show that dominance queries become polynomial after a compilation phase that produces an array $indexP[\cdot]$ of indices, where $indexP[j]$ is the index of the first layer where $p_j$ is not active, that is, $indexP[j] = i$ if and only if $p_j \in P_{i-1} \setminus P_i$.

**Algorithm 1** CLP-net compilation for dominance

Require: $N=(V, P[S, Str])$
Ensure: $indexP[\cdot]$
1: $i \leftarrow 0;$
2: $nextP \leftarrow P;$
3: $indexP[j] \leftarrow +\infty, \forall j \in 1..m;$
4: repeat
5: \hspace{1em} $i \leftarrow i+1;$
6: \hspace{1em} $oldP \leftarrow nextP;$
7: \hspace{1em} for all $p_j \in oldP$ do
8: \hspace{2em} if $p_j \in Str$ then
9: \hspace{3em} $deactivate \leftarrow true;$
10: \hspace{3em} for all $p \in oldP \setminus \{p_j\}$ do
11: \hspace{4em} if $\exists \Omega \in \Omega, I \models S p_j \wedge I \not\models S p$ then
12: \hspace{5em} $deactivate \leftarrow false;$
13: \hspace{5em} break;
14: \hspace{4em} end if
15: \hspace{3em} end for
16: \hspace{1em} if $deactivate$ then
17: \hspace{2em} $nextP \leftarrow nextP \setminus \{p_j\}$
18: \hspace{2em} $indexP[j] \leftarrow i$
19: \hspace{1em} end if
20: \hspace{1em} else if $\exists \Omega \in \Omega, I \models S p_j \wedge I \models S oldP$ then
21: \hspace{2em} $nextP \leftarrow nextP \setminus \{p_j\}$
22: \hspace{2em} $indexP[j] \leftarrow i$
23: \hspace{1em} end if
24: \hspace{1em} end for
25: \hspace{1em} until $(nextP = oldP)$
26: return $indexP[\cdot]$.

Algorithm 1 takes as input a CLP-net $(V, P[S, Str])$ and returns the array $indexP[\cdot]$. In line 3 $indexP[\cdot]$ is initialized to a value greater than any possible layer. Then, the loop of line 4 iteratively builds $indexP[\cdot]$. The $i$th execution of the loop sets $oldP$ to the set of preferences still active at the previous layer $i-1$ (line 6) and will compute the set $nextP$ of preferences still active at layer $i$. The loop of line 7 iterates over all preferences $p_j$ that belong to $oldP$ to check if $p_j$ can be deactivated. The deactivation depends on whether the semantics of $p_j$ is strong or not. If $p_j \in Str$ (lines 8–19), we need to iterate over all other preferences $p$ in $oldP$. If there exists an $I$ fully satisfying $p_j$ and violating $p$ (line 11), flag $deactivate$ becomes false (line 12) and we proceed to the next preference in $oldP$. If such an $I$ is not found, then $p_j$ is deactivated (that is, removed from $nextP$), and $indexP[j]$ is set to $i$ (lines 16–19). When $p_j \notin Str$ (lines 20–22), we need to check if there exists an outcome $I$ that fully satisfies $p_j$ and satisfies all preferences in $oldP$. This line is NP-complete and can be solved by a call to a SAT/CSP solver. If such an outcome is found, again $p_j$ is deactivated (removed from $nextP$) and $indexP[j]$ is set to $i$ (lines 21–22). Finally the test of the main loop (in line 4) detects whether at least one preference has been deactivated from one layer to another. If not, we exit the loop and return $indexP[\cdot]$.

**Theorem 9:** The Dominance problem in CLP-nets is compilable to linear time.

**Proof:** A problem is compilable to a complexity class $C$ if it is in $C$ once the fixed part $\Sigma$ of any instance has been pre-processed, i.e., turned off-line into a data structure of size polynomial in $|\Sigma|$. Given $(V, P[S, Str])$, Algorithm 1 computes off-line the array $indexP[\cdot]$, where $indexP[j] = i$ if and only if $p_j \in P_{i-1} \setminus P_i$. This structure $indexP[\cdot]$ is linear in $|P|$, the initial data.

**Correctness.** We iterate over $violated(P, I)$ to compute $i = \max_{p_j \in violated(P, I)} indexP[j]$ and over $violated(P, I')$ to compute $i' = \max_{p_j \in violated(P, I') indexP[j]}$. By construction of $indexP[\cdot]$, $i = layer(I)$, or $i = +\infty$ and $I \in E_{last}$. Similarly, $i' = layer(I')$, or $i' = +\infty$ and $I' \in E_{last}$. As a result, $I$ dominates $I'$ with $S = Opt$ (resp. $S = Pes$) if and only if $i < i'$ (resp. $i > i'$).

**Complexity.** Checking if an outcome satisfies a preference is constant time. Thus, building $violated(P, I)$ and $violated(P, I')$ is linear in $|P|$. Computing the maximum values $i$ and $i'$ is done by a traversal of the structure $indexP[\cdot]$, which is linear in $|P|$ as well.

V. Conclusion

We have studied the theoretical complexity of the main problems in optimistic/pessimistic preference logic: undominated, consistency, and dominance. We have shown that these problems are NP-hard in general, though they become polynomial for some specific semantics. We also show that, interestingly, the dominance problem, which is the only problem beyond NP and which in addition contains an online part, can be compiled to polynomial time. This opens the door to the use of CLP-nets in applications where we need to rank sets of outcomes on the fly.

**References**


