

Computational Logic

Constraint Logic Programming

1

Constraints

- Constraint: some form of restriction that a solution must satisfy
 - ◇ $X+Y=20$
 - ◇ $X \wedge Y$ is true
 - ◇ The third field of the data structure is greater than the second
 - ◇ The murderer is one of those who had met the cabaret entertainer
- CLP: LP plus the ability to compute with some form of constraints (which are being solved by the system during computation)

• Features in CLP.

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A Comparison with LP (I)

- Example (Prolog): $q(X, Y, Z) :- Z = f(X, Y).$
| ?- q(3, 4, Z).
Z = f(3,4)
- | ?- q(X, Y, f(3,4)).
X = 3, Y = 4
- | ?- q(X, Y, Z).
Z = f(X,Y)
- Example (Prolog): $p(X, Y, Z) :- Z \text{ is } X + Y.$
| ?- p(3, 4, Z).
Z = 7
- | ?- p(X, 4, 7).
{INSTANTIATION ERROR: in expression}

3

A Comparison with LP (II)

- Example (CLP): $p(X, Y, Z) :- Z = X + Y.$
2 ?- p(3, 4, Z).
Z = 7
*** Yes
- 3 ?- p(X, 4, 7).

X = 3



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A Comparison with LP (III)

- Advantages:
 - ◇ Helps making programs expressive and flexible.
 - ◇ May save much coding.
 - ◇ In some cases, more efficient than traditional LP programs due to solvers typically being very efficiently implemented.
 - ◇ Also, efficiency due to search space reduction:
 - * LP: generate-and-test.
 - * CLP: constrain-and-generate.
 - Disadvantages:
 - ◇ Complexity of solver algorithms (simplex, gauss, etc) can affect performance.
 - Solutions:
 - ◇ better algorithms
 - ◇ compile-time optimizations (program transformation, global analysis, etc)
 - ◇ parallelism
-

5

Example of Search Space Reduction

- Prolog (generate-and-test):
solution(X, Y, Z) :-
 p(X), p(Y), p(Z),
 test(X, Y, Z).
- p(11). p(3). p(7). p(16). p(15). p(14).
- test(X, Y, Z) :- Y is X + 1, Z is Y + 1.
- Query:

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Example of Search Space Reduction

- CLP (generate-and-test):
solution(X, Y, Z) :-
p(X), p(Y), p(Z),
test(X, Y, Z).

p(11). p(3). p(7). p(16). p(15). p(14).

test(X, Y, Z) :- Y = X + 1, Z = Y + 1.

- Query:
?- solution(X, Y, Z).

Z = 16

Y = 15

X = 14

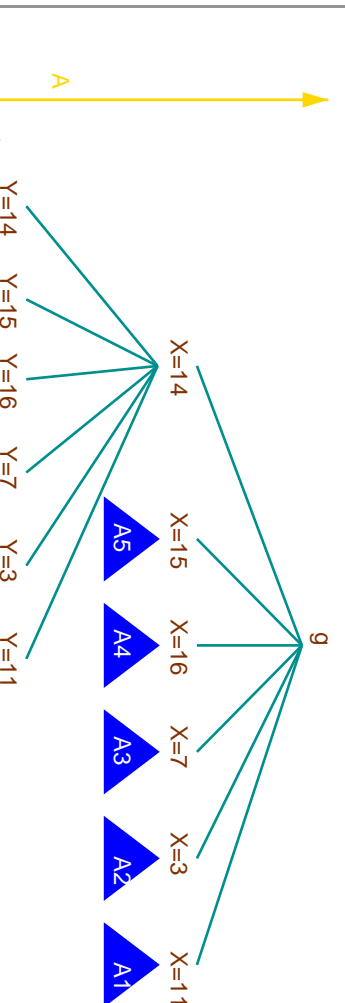
*** Retry? y

*** No

- 458 steps (all solutions: 475 steps).

7

Generate-and-test Search Tree



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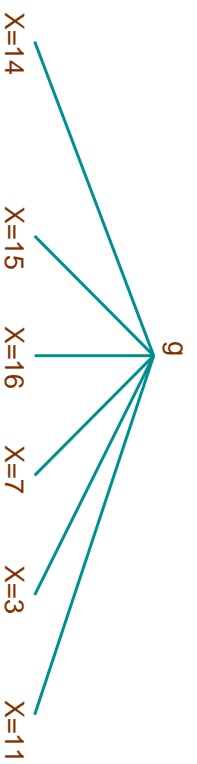
Cartagena99

Example of Search Space Reduction

- Move test(X, Y, Z) at the beginning (constrain-and-generate):
solution(X, Y, Z) :-
 test(X, Y, Z),
 p(X), p(Y), p(Z).
p(11). p(3). p(7). p(16). p(15). p(14).
- Prolog: test(X, Y, Z) :- Y is X + 1, Z is Y + 1.
 | ?- solution(X, Y, Z).
 {INSTANTIATION ERROR: in expression}
- CLP: test(X, Y, Z) :- Y = X + 1, Z = Y + 1.
 ?- solution(X, Y, Z).
 Z = 16
 Y = 15
 X = 14
 *** Retry? y
 *** No
- 11 steps (all solutions: 11 steps).

9

Constrain-and-generate Search Tree



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Constraint Domains (II)

- $\Sigma = \{ \langle \text{constant and function symbols} \rangle, = \}$
- $D = \{ \text{finite trees} \}$
- \mathcal{D} interprets Σ as tree constructors
- Each $f \in \Sigma$ with arity n maps n trees to a tree with root labeled f and whose subtrees are the arguments of the mapping
- Constraints: syntactic tree equality
- $\mathcal{FT} = (\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{L})$
 - ◊ Constraints over the Herbrand domain
 - ◊ Eg.: $g(h(Z), Y) = g(X, h(a))$
- $LP \equiv CLP(\mathcal{FT})$
- LP can be viewed as a constraint logic language over Herbrand terms with a single constraint predicate symbol: “=”

13

Constraint Domains (III)

- $\Sigma = \{ \langle \text{constants} \rangle, \lambda, \cdot, \cdot, \cdot, = \}$
- $D = \{ \text{finite strings of constants} \}$
- \mathcal{D} interprets \cdot as string concatenation, \cdot as string length
 - ◊ Equations over strings of constants
 - ◊ Eg.: $X.A.X = X.A$

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CLP(\mathcal{X}) Programs

- Recall that:
 - ◇ Σ is a set of predicate and function symbols
 - ◇ $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \Sigma$ -formulae are the constraints
- Π : set of predicate symbols definable by a program
- Atom: $p(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$, where t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n are terms and $p \in \Pi$
- Primitive constraint: $p(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$, where t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n are terms and $p \in \Sigma$ is a predicate symbol
- Every constraint is a (first-order) formula built from primitive constraints
- The class of constraints will vary (generally only a subset of formulas are considered constraints)
- A CLP program is a collection of rules of the form $a \leftarrow b_1, \dots, b_n$ where a is an atom and the b_i 's are atoms or constraints
- A fact is a rule $a \leftarrow c$ where c is a constraint
- A goal (or query) G is a conjunction of constraints and atoms

15

Issues in CLP

- CLP may use the same execution strategy as Prolog (depth-first, left-to-right) or a different one
- Prolog arithmetics (i.e., `is/2`) may remain or simply disappear, substituted by constraint solving
- Syntax may vary upon systems:
 - ◇ Different constraint systems use different symbols for constraints:
 - * = for unification, #=, . =, etc. for constraints
 - ◇ Overloading: equations are subsumed by `=/2` (extended unification)

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CLP(\mathbb{R}): A case study

- Arithmetics over the reals
- For the examples we assume:
 - ◇ Same execution strategy as Prolog
 - ◇ Equations and disequations are allowed
 - ◇ Linear constraints are solved, non-linear constraints are passive:
delayed until linear or simple checks
 - * $X*Y = 7$ becomes linear when X is assigned a single value
 - * $X*X+2*X+1 = 0$ becomes a check when X is assigned a single value
 - ◇ Prolog arithmetics disappears, subsumed by constraint solving
 - ◇ Overloading and extended unification is used
 - ◇ Head unification is extended for constraint solving

17

Linear Equations (CLP(\mathbb{R}))

- Vector \times vector multiplication (dot product):
 $\cdot : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \cdot (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) = x_1 \cdot y_1 + \dots + x_n \cdot y_n$
- Vectors represented as lists of numbers
 $\text{prod}([], [], 0)$.
 $\text{prod}([X|Xs], [Y|Ys], X * Y + \text{Rest}) :-$
 $\text{prod}(Xs, Ys, \text{Rest})$.
- Unification becomes constraint solving!

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Systems of Linear Equations (CLP(\mathbb{R}))

- Can we solve systems of equations? E.g.,

$$3x + y = 5$$

$$x + 8y = 3$$

- Write them down at the top level prompt:

```
?- prod([3, 1], [X, Y], 5), prod([1, 8], [X, Y], 3).
```

```
X = 1.6087, Y = 0.173913
```

- A more general predicate can be built mimicking the mathematical vector notation

A · x = b:

```
system(_Vars, [], []).
```

```
system(Vars, [Co|Coefs], [Ind|Indeps]) :-
```

```
prod(Vars, Co, Ind),
```

```
system(Vars, Coefs, Indeps).
```

- We can now express (and solve) equation systems

```
?- system([X, Y], [[3, 1], [1, 8]], [5, 3]).
```

```
X = 1.6087, Y = 0.173913
```

19

Non-linear Equations (CLP(\mathbb{R}))

- Non-linear equations are delayed

```
?- sin(X) = cos(X).
```

```
sin(X) = cos(X)
```

- This is also the case if there exists some procedure to solve them

```
?- X*X + 2*X + 1 = 0.
```

```
-2*X - 1 = X * X
```

- Reason: no general solving technique is known. CLP(\mathbb{R}) solves only linear (dis)equations.

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Fibonacci Revisited (Prolog)

- Fibonacci numbers:

$$F_0 = 0$$

$$F_1 = 1$$

$$F_{n+2} = F_{n+1} + F_n$$

- (The good old) Prolog version:

```
fib(0, 0).
fib(1, 1).
fib(N, F) :-
    N > 1,
    M1 is N - 1,
    M2 is N - 2,
    fib(M1, F1),
    fib(M2, F2),
    F is F1 + F2.
```

- Can only be used with the first argument instantiated to a number

21

Fibonacci Revisited (CLP(ℝ))

- CLP(ℝ) version: syntactically similar to the previous one

```
fib(0, 0).
fib(1, 1).
fib(N, F1 + F2) :-
    N > 1, F1 >= 0, F2 >= 0,
    fib(N - 1, F1), fib(N - 2, F2).
```
- Note all constraints included in program (F1 >= 0, F2 >= 0) – good practice!
- Only real numbers and equations used (no data structures, no other constraint system): “pure CLP(ℝ)”

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Analog RLC circuits (CLP(3R))

- Analysis and synthesis of analog circuits
- RLC network in steady state
- Each circuit is composed either of:
 - ◇ A simple component, or
 - ◇ A connection of simpler circuits
- For simplicity, we will suppose subnetworks connected only in parallel and series
→ Ohm's laws will suffice (other networks need global, i.e., Kirchoff's laws)
- We want to relate the current (I), voltage (V) and frequency (W) in steady state
- Entry point: `circuit(C, V, I, W)` states that:
across the network C, the voltage is V, the current is I and the frequency is W
- V and I must be modeled as complex numbers (the imaginary part takes into account the angular frequency)
- Note that Herbrand terms are used to provide data structures

23

Analog RLC circuits (CLP(3R))

- Complex number $X + Yi$ modeled as `c(X, Y)`
- Basic operations:
 - `c_add(c(Re1, Im1), c(Re2, Im2), c(Re1+Re2, Im1+Im2)).`
 - `c_mult(c(Re1, Im1), c(Re2, Im2), c(Re3, Im3)) :-`
 - `Re3 = Re1 * Re2 - Im1 * Im2,`
 - `Im3 = Re1 * Im2 + Re2 * Im1.`

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Analog RLC circuits (CLP(3R))

- Circuits in series:

```
circuit(series(N1, N2), V, I, W) :-  
  c_add(V1, V2, V),  
  circuit(N1, V1, I, W),  
  circuit(N2, V2, I, W).
```

- Circuits in parallel:

```
circuit(parallel(N1, N2), V, I, W) :-  
  c_add(I1, I2, I),  
  circuit(N1, V, I1, W),  
  circuit(N2, V, I2, W).
```

25

Analog RLC circuits (CLP(3R))

Each basic component can be modeled as a separate unit:

- Resistor: $V = I * (R + 0i)$

```
circuit(resistor(R), V, I, _W) :-  
  c_mult(I, c(R, 0), V).
```

- Inductor: $V = I * (0 + WLi)$

```
circuit(inductor(L), V, I, W) :-  
  c_mult(I, c(0, W * L), V).
```

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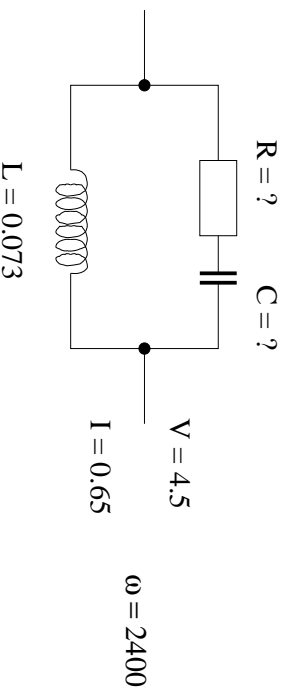
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Analog RLC circuits (CLP(3))

- Example:



```
?- circuit(parallel(inductor(0.073),  
series(capacitor(C), resistor(R))),  
c(4.5, 0), c(0.65, 0), 2400).
```

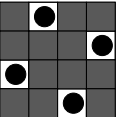
$R = 6.91229$, $C = 0.00152546$

```
?- circuit(C, c(4.5, 0), c(0.65, 0), 2400).
```

27

The N Queens Problem

- Problem:
place N chess queens in a $N \times N$ board such that they do not attack each other
- Data structure: a list holding the column position for each row
- The final solution is a permutation of the list $[1, 2, \dots, N]$

- E.g.: the solution
 is represented as $[2, 4, 1, 3]$

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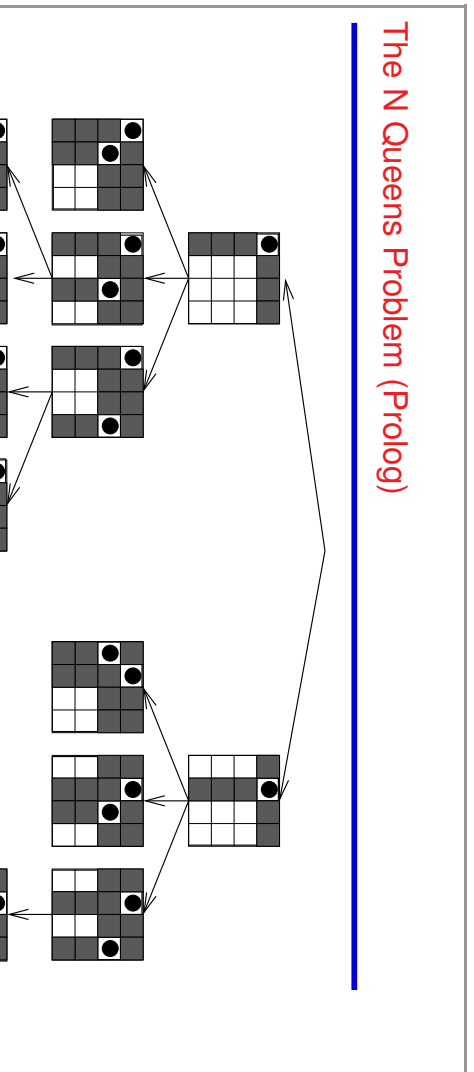
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The N Queens Problem (Prolog)

```

queens(N, Qs) :- queens_list(N, Ms), queens(Ms, [], Qs).
queens([], Qs, Qs).
queens(Unplaced, Placed, Qs) :-
    select(Unplaced, Q, NewUnplaced), no_attack(Placed, Q, 1),
    queens(NewUnplaced, [Q|Placed], Qs).
no_attack([], _Queen, _Nb).
no_attack([Y|Ys], Queen, Nb) :-
    Queen =\= Y + Nb, Queen =\= Y - Nb, Nb1 is Nb + 1,
    no_attack(Ys, Queen, Nb1).
select([X|Ys], X, Ys).
select([Y|Ys], X, [Y|Zs]) :- select(Ys, X, Zs).
queens_list(0, []).
queens_list(N, [N|Ms]) :- N > 0, N1 is N - 1, queens_list(N1, Ms).

```



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The N Queens Problem (CLP(\mathbb{R}))

```
queens(N, Qs) :- constrain_values(N, N, Qs), place_queens(N, Qs).
constrain_values(0, _N, []).
constrain_values(N, Range, [X|Xs]) :-
    N > 0, X > 0, X <= Range,
    constrain_values(N - 1, Range, Xs), no_attack(Xs, X, 1).
no_attack([], _Queen, _Nb).
no_attack([Y|Ys], Queen, Nb) :-
    abs(Queen - (Y + Nb)) > 0, % Queen =\= Y + Nb
    abs(Queen - (Y - Nb)) > 0, % Queen =\= Y - Nb
    no_attack(Ys, Queen, Nb + 1).
place_queens(0, _) .
place_queens(N, Q) :- N > 0, member(N, Q), place_queens(N - 1, Q).
member(X, [_|_]).
member(X, [_|Xs]) :- member(X, Xs).
```

31

The N Queens Problem (CLP(\mathbb{R}))

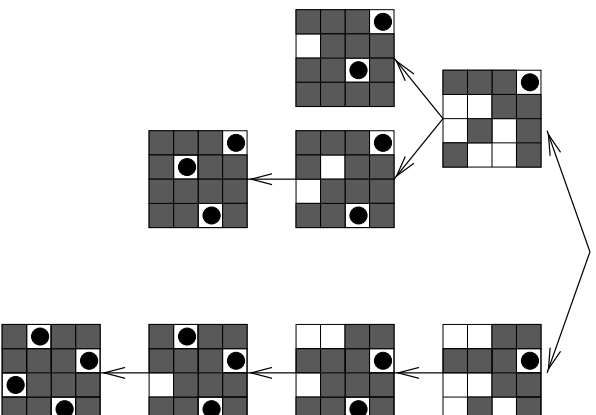
- This last program can attack the problem in its most general instance:

```
?- queens(M,N).
N = [], M = 0 ;
M = [1], M = 1 ;
N = [2, 4, 1, 3], M = 4 ;
N = [3, 1, 4, 2], M = 4 ;
N = [5, 2, 4, 1, 3], M = 5 ;
N = [5, 3, 1, 4, 2], M = 5 ;
N = [3, 5, 2, 4, 1], M = 5 ;
..
```



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The N Queens Problem (CLP(\mathbb{R}))



33

The N Queens Problem (CLP(\mathbb{R}))

- CLP(\mathbb{R}) generates internally a set of equations for each board size
- They are non-linear and are thus delayed until instantiation wakes them up

```
?- constrain_values(4, 4, Q).
Q = [_t3, _t5, _t13, _t21]
_t3 <= 4
_t5 <= 4
_t13 <= 4
_t21 <= 4
0 < _t3
0 < abs(-_t13 + _t3 - 2)
0 < abs(-_t13 + _t3 + 2)
0 < abs(-_t21 + _t3 - 3)
0 < abs(-_t21 + _t3 + 3)
0 < abs(-_t13 + _t5 - 1)
```

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The N Queens Problem (CLP(\mathbb{R}))

- Constraints are (incrementally) simplified as new queens are added

```
?- constrain_values(4, 4, Qs), Qs = [3,1|Qs].
Qs = [_t16, _t24]           0 < abs(-_t24)
Qs = [3, 1, _t16, _t24]     0 < abs(-_t24 + 6)
_t16 <= 4                   0 < abs(-_t16)
_t24 <= 4                   0 < abs(-_t16 + 2)
0 < _t16                    0 < abs(-_t24 - 1)
0 < _t24                    0 < abs(-_t24 + 3)
0 < abs(-_t16 + 1)          0 < abs(-_t16 - 1)
0 < abs(-_t16 + 5)         0 < abs(-_t24 + _t16 + 1)
```

- Bad choices are rejected using constraint consistency:

```
?- constrain_values(4, 4, Qs), Qs = [3,2|Qs].
*** No
```

35

CLP(\mathcal{FD}): Finite Domains

- Arithmetics over integers
- A *finite domain* constraint solver associates each variable with a finite subset of \mathcal{Z}
- Example: $E \in \{-123, -10..4, 10\}$
 - $E :: [-123, -10..4, 10]$ (Eclipse notation)
 - $E \text{ in } \{-123\} \vee (-10..4) \vee \{10\}$ (SLICStus notation)
 - We will use $E \text{ in } [-123, -10..4, 10]$



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Finite Domains (I)

- We can:
 - ◇ Establish the *domain* of a variable (*in*)
 - ◇ Perform arithmetic operations (+, -, *, /) on the variables
 - ◇ Establish linear relationships among arithmetic expressions (# =, # <, # =<)
- Those operations / relationships are intended to narrow the domains of the variables
- Note:
 - ◇ SICStus requires the use in the source code of the directive

```
:- use_module(library(clpfd)).
```
 - ◇ Ciao requires the use of

```
:- use_package(fd).
```

37

Finite Domains (II)

- Example:

```
?- X #= A + B, A in 1..3, B in 3..7.  
X in 4..10, A in 1..3, B in 3..7
```
- The respective minimums and maximums are added
- There is no unique solution

```
?- X #= A - B, A in 1..3, B in 3..7.  
X in -6..0, A in 1..3, B in 3..7
```

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Finite Domains (III)

Some useful primitives in finite domains:

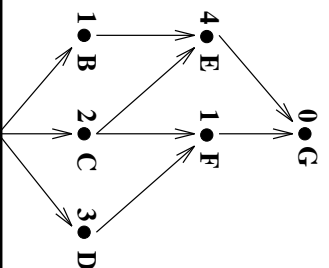
- $\text{fd_min}(X, T)$: the term T is the minimum value in the domain of the variable x
 - This can be used to minimize (c.f. maximize) a solution
? - $X \# = A - B$, A in $1..3$, B in $3..7$, $\text{fd_min}(X, X)$.
 $A = 1$, $B = 7$, $X = -6$
 - $\text{domain}(\text{Variables}, \text{Min}, \text{Max})$: A shorthand for several in constraints
 - $\text{labeling}(\text{Options}, \text{VarList})$:
 - ◊ instantiates variables in VarList to values in their domains
 - ◊ Options dictates the search order
- ? - $X * X + Y * Y \# = Z * Z$, $X \# = Y$, $\text{domain}([X, Y, Z], 1, 1000)$, $\text{labeling}([], [X, Y, Z])$.
 $X = 4$, $Y = 3$, $Z = 5$
 $X = 8$, $Y = 6$, $Z = 10$
 $X = 12$, $Y = 5$, $Z = 13$
...

39

A Project Management Problem (I)

- The job whose dependencies and task lengths are given by: should be finished in 10 time units or less

- Constraints:
 $\text{pn1}(A, B, C, D, E, F, G) :-$
 $A \# > = 0$, $C \# < 10$



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A Project Management Problem (II)

- Query:
?- pn1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G).
A in 0..4, B in 0..5, C in 0..4,
D in 0..6, E in 2..6, F in 3..9, G in 6..10,
- Note the slack of the variables
- Some additional constraints must be respected as well, but are not shown by default
- Minimize the total project time:

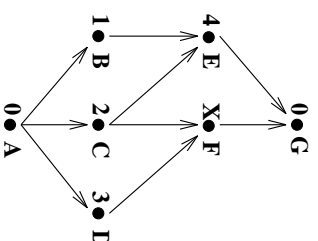
?- pn1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G), fd_min(G, G).
A = 0, B in 0..1, C = 0, D in 0..2,
E = 2, F in 3..5, G = 6

- Variables without slack represent critical tasks

41

A Project Management Problem (III)

- An alternative setting:
- We can accelerate task F at some cost
pn2(A, B, C, D, E, F, G, X) :-
A #>= 0, G #=< 10,
B #>= A, C #>= A, D #>= A,
E #>= B + 1, E #>= C + 2,



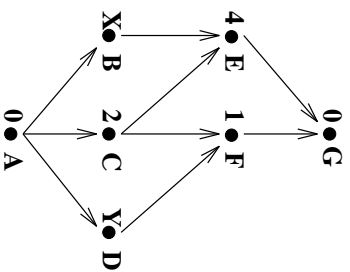
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A Project Management Problem (IV)

- We have two independent tasks B and D whose lengths are not fixed:



- We can finish any of B, D in 2 time units at best
- Some shared resource disallows finishing *both* tasks in 2 time units: they will take 6 time units

43

A Project Management Problem (V)

- Constraints describing the net:

$pn3(A, B, C, D, E, F, G, X, Y) :-$

$A \#>= 0, G \#< 10,$

$X \#>= 2, Y \#>= 2, X + Y \# = 6,$

$B \#>= A, C \#>= A, D \#>= A,$

$E \#>= B + X, E \#>= C + 2,$

$F \#>= C + 2, F \#>= D + Y,$

$G \#>= E + 4, G \#>= F + 1.$

- Query: $? - pn3(A, B, C, D, E, F, G, X, Y), fd_{min}(G, G).$

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The N-Queens Problem Using Finite Domains (in SICStus Prolog)

- By far, the fastest implementation

```
queens(N, Qs, Type) :-
    constrain_values(N, N, Qs),
    all_different(Qs), % built-in constraint
    labeling(Type, Qs).

constrain_values(0, _N, []).
constrain_values(N, Range, [X|Xs]) :-
    N > 0, N1 is N - 1, X in 1 .. Range,
    constrain_values(N1, Range, Xs), no_attack(Xs, X, 1).

no_attack([], _Queen, _Nb).
no_attack([Y|Ys], Queen, Nb) :-
    Queen #\= Y + Nb, Queen #\= Y - Nb, Nb1 is Nb + 1,
    no_attack(Ys, Queen, Nb1).
```
- Query: Type is the type of search desired.

```
?- queens(20, Q, [ff]).
Q = [1,3,5,14,17,4,16,7,12,18,15,19,6,10,20,11,8,2,13,9] ?
```

45

CLP(ME)

- Equations over finite strings
- Primitive constraints: concatenation (.), string length (::)
- Find strings meeting some property:

```
?- "123".z = z."231", z::0.           ?- "123".z = z."231", z::3.
no                                     no
?- "123".z = z."231", z::1.           ?- "123".z = z."231", z::4.
z = "1"                                 z = "1231"
```

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CLP($\mathcal{W}\mathcal{E}, \mathcal{Q}$)

- Word equations plus arithmetic over \mathcal{Q} (rational numbers)
- Prove that the sequence $x_{i+2} = |x_{i+1}| - x_i$ has a period of length 9 (for any starting x_0, x_1)
- Strategy: describe the sequence, try to find a subsequence such that the period condition is violated
- Sequence description (syntax is Prolog III slightly modified):
seq(<Y, X>).
abs(Y, Y) :- Y >= 0.
seq(<Y1 - X, Y, X>.U) :-
abs(Y, -Y) :- Y < 0.
seq(<Y, X>.U)
abs(Y, Y1).
- Query: *Is there any 11-element sequence such that the 2-tuple initial seed is different from the 2-tuple final subsequence (the seed of the rest of the sequence)?*
?- seq(U.V.W), U::2, V::7, W::2, U#W.
fail

47

CLP($\mathcal{F}\mathcal{T}$) (a.k.a. Logic Programming)

- Equations over Finite Trees
- Check that two trees are isomorphic (same elements in each level)
iso(Tree, Tree).
iso(t(R, I1, D1), t(R, I2, D2)) :-
iso(I1, D2),
iso(D1, I2).
?- iso(t(a, b, t(X, Y, Z)), t(a, t(u, v, w), L)).

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Summarizing

- In general:
 - ◇ Data structures (Herbrand terms) for free
 - ◇ Each logical variable may have constraints associated with it (and with other variables)
- Problem modeling :
 - ◇ Rules represent the problem at a high level
 - * Program structure, modularity
 - * Recursion used to set up constraints
 - ◇ Constraints encode problem conditions
 - ◇ Solutions also expressed as constraints
- Combinatorial search problems:
 - ◇ CLP languages provide backtracking: enumeration is easy
 - ◇ Constraints keep the search space manageable
- Tackling a problem:
 - ◇ Keep an open mind: often new approaches possible

49

Complex Constraints

- Some complex constraints allow expressing simpler constraints
- May be operationally treated as passive constraints
- E.g.: cardinality operator $\#(L, [c_1, \dots, c_n], U)$ meaning that the number of true constraints lies between L and U (which can be variables themselves)
 - ◇ If $L = U = n$, all constraints must hold
 - ◇ If $L = U = 1$, one and only one constraint must be true
 - ◇ Constraining $U = 0$, we force the conjunction of the negations to be true
 - ◇ Constraining $L > 0$, the disjunction of the constraints is specified

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Other Primitives

- CLP(\mathcal{X}) systems usually provide additional primitives
- E.g.:
 - ◇ `enum(X)` enumerates X inside its current domain
 - ◇ `maximize(X)` (c.f. `minimize(X)`) works out maximum (minimum value) for X under the active constraints
 - ◇ `delay Goal until Condition` specifies when the variables are instantiated enough so that `Goal` can be effectively executed
 - * Its use needs deep knowledge of the constraint system
 - * Also widely available in Prolog systems
 - * Not really a constraint: control primitive

51

Programming Tips

- Over-constraining:
 - ◇ Seems to be against general advice “do not perform extra work”, but can actually cut more space search
 - ◇ Specially useful if *infer* is weak
 - ◇ Or else, if constraints outside the domain are being used
- Use control primitives (e.g., cut) very sparingly and carefully
- Determinacy is more subtle, (partially due to constraints in non-solved form)
- Choosing a clause does not preclude trying other exclusive clauses

(see with Debaets and Plaiaunification)

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Some Real Systems (I)

- CLP defines a class of languages obtained by
 - ◊ Specifying the particular constraint system(s)
 - ◊ Specifying *Computation* and *Selection* rules
- Most share the Herbrand domain with “=”, but add different domains and/or solvers
- Most use *Computation* and *Selection* rules of Prolog
- CLP(\mathfrak{R}):
 - ◊ Linear arithmetic over reals ($=, \leq, >$)
 - ◊ Gauss elimination and an adaptation of Simplex
- PrologIII:
 - ◊ Linear arithmetic over rationals ($=, \leq, >, \neq$), Simplex
 - ◊ Boolean ($=$), 2-valued Boolean Algebra
 - ◊ Infinite (rational) trees ($=, \neq$)
 - ◊ Equations over finite strings

53

Some Real Systems (II)

- CHIP:
 - ◊ Linear arithmetic over rationals ($=, \leq, >, \neq$), Simplex
 - ◊ Boolean ($=$), larger Boolean algebra (symbolic values)
 - ◊ Finite domains
 - ◊ User-defined constraints and solver algorithms
- BNR-Prolog:
 - ◊ Arithmetic over reals (closed intervals) ($=, \leq, >, \neq$), Simplex, propagation techniques

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Some Real Systems (III)

- ECL^rPS^e:
 - ◇ Finite domains
 - ◇ Linear arithmetic over reals ($=, \leq, >, \neq$)
 - ◇ Linear arithmetic over rationals ($=, \leq, >, \neq$)
- clp(FD)/gprolog:
 - ◇ Finite domains
- RISC-CLP:
 - ◇ Real arithmetic terms: any arithmetic constraint over reals
 - ◇ Improved version of Tarski's quantifier elimination
- Ciao:
 - ◇ Linear arithmetic over reals ($=, \leq, >, \neq$)
 - ◇ Linear arithmetic over rationals ($=, \leq, >, \neq$)
 - ◇ Finite Domains (currently interpreted)(can be selected on a per-module basis)

55

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