Computational Logic

Constraint Logic Programming

Constraints

- Born within AI: e.g. house design
- Constraints used as problem representation:

  The man in yellow does not have green eyes
  The murderer knows no detective will ever wear dark clothes
  ⋮

- A solution is an assignment which agrees with the initial constraints:

  Murderer: López, green eyes, Magnum gun

- Or, alternatively, the solution can also be a set of constraints:

  The murderer is one of those who had met the cabaret entertainer

  (they represent several ground mappings from elements to variables)

- There may be no solution:

  Natural death

A General View

- Ancestors:
  - SKETCHPAD (1963), THINGLAB (1981), Waltz's algorithm (1965?), MACSYMA (1983), ...
- Constraints in logic languages – the origin of "constraint programming":
  - General theory developed.
  - Practical systems, generally based on Prolog + some constraint domain(s).
- Constraints in imperative languages:
  - Equation solving libraries (ILOG)
  - Timestamping of variables: `x := x + 1` $\leftrightarrow x_{i+1} := x_i + 1$ (similar to iterative methods in numerical analysis)
- Constraints in functional languages, via extensions:
  - Evaluation of expressions including free variables.
  - *Absolute Set Abstraction.*

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 is X + Y.`

```
| ?- p(3, 4, Z).
Z = 7

| ?- p(X, 4, 7).
{INSTANTIATION ERROR: in expression}
```

A Comparison with LP (II)

- Example (CLP($\Re$)): `p(X, Y, Z) :- Z = X + Y.`

```
2 ?- p(3, 4, Z).

Z = 7
*** Yes

3 ?- p(X, 4, 7).

X = 3
*** Yes

4 ?- p(X, Y, 7).

X = 7 - Y
*** Yes
```

A Comparison with LP (III)

- Features in CLP:
  - Domain of computation (reals, integers, booleans, etc). Have to meet some conditions.
  - Type of constraints allowed for each domain: e.g. arithmetic constraints ($+, *, =, \leq, \geq, <, >$)
  - Constraint solving algorithms: simplex, gauss, etc.
- LP can be viewed as a constraint logic language over Herbrand terms with a single constraint predicate symbol: “=”

A Comparison with LP (IV)

- 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

Example of Search Space Reduction

- **Prolog (generate–and–test):**

```
solution(X, Y, Z) :-
    p(X), p(Y), p(Z),
    test(X, Y, Z).

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

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

- Query:

```
| ?- solution(X, Y, Z).
X = 14
Y = 15
Z = 16 ? ;
no
```

- 458 steps (all solutions: 465 steps).

Example of Search Space Reduction

- **CLP**($\Re$) (using generate–and–test):

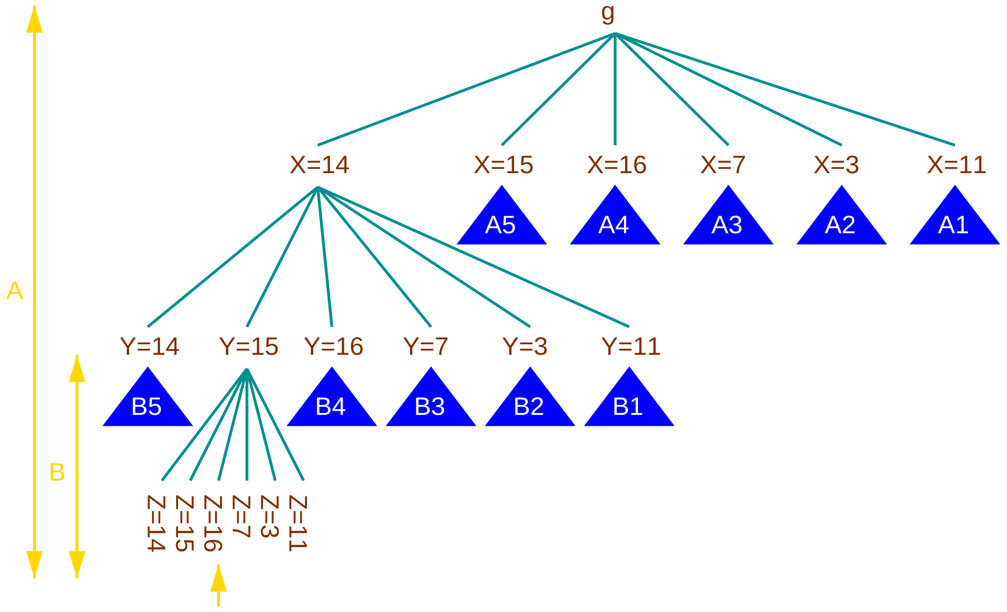
```
solution(X, Y, Z) :-
    p(X), p(Y), p(Z),
    test(X, Y, Z).

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

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: 465 steps).

Generate–and–test Search Tree



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

- **Prolog:** `test(X, Y, Z) :- Y is X + 1, Z is Y + 1.`

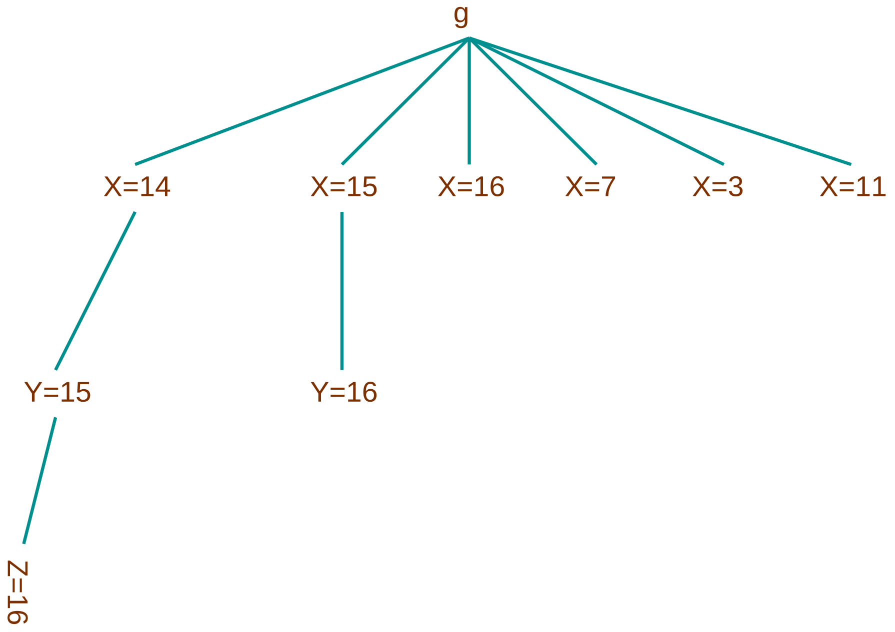
```
| ?- solution(X, Y, Z).
{INSTANTIATION ERROR: in expression}
```

- **CLP($\Re$):** `test(X, Y, Z) :- Y = X + 1, Z = Y + 1.`

```
?- solution(X, Y, Z).
Z = 16
Y = 15
X = 14
*** Retry? y
*** No
```

- 6 steps (all solutions: 11 steps).

Constrain–and–generate Search Tree



Constraint Domains

- Semantics parameterized by the constraint domain: CLP($\mathcal{X}$), where $\mathcal{X} \equiv (\Sigma, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{L}, \mathcal{T})$
- Signature Σ: set of predicate and function symbols, together with their arity
- $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \Sigma$–formulae: constraints
- D is the set of actual elements in the domain
- Σ–structure $\mathcal{D}$: gives the meaning of predicate and function symbols (and hence, constraints).
- $\mathcal{T}$ a first–order theory (axiomatizes some properties of $\mathcal{D}$)
- $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{L})$ is a *constraint domain*
- Assumptions:
  - $\mathcal{L}$ built upon a first–order language
  - $= \in \Sigma$ is identity in $\mathcal{D}$
  - There are identically false and identically true constraints in $\mathcal{L}$
  - $\mathcal{L}$ is closed w.r.t. renaming, conjunction and existential quantification

---

Domains (I)

- $\Sigma = \{0, 1, +, *, =, <, \leq\}$, D = $\mathbf{R}$, $\mathcal{D}$ interprets Σ as usual, $\Re = (\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{L})$
  - Arithmetic over the reals
  - Eg.: $x^2 + 2xy < \frac{y}{x} \wedge x > 0 \;\; (\equiv xxx + xxy + xxy < y \wedge 0 < x)$
- Question: is 0 needed? How can it be represented?

- Let us assume $\Sigma' = \{0, 1, +, =, <, \leq\}$, $\Re_{Lin} = (\mathcal{D}', \mathcal{L}')$
  - Linear arithmetic
  - Eg.: $3x - y < 3 \;\; (\equiv x + x + x < 1 + 1 + 1 + y)$

- Let us assume $\Sigma'' = \{0, 1, +, =\}$, $\Re_{LinEq} = (\mathcal{D}'', \mathcal{L}'')$
  - Linear equations
  - Eg.: $3x + y = 5 \wedge y = 2x$

Domains (II)

- $\Sigma = \{<$*constant and function symbols*$>, =\}$
- D = $\{$ 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.: $g(h(Z), Y) = g(Y, h(a))$
- LP $\equiv$ CLP($\mathcal{FT}$)

Domains (III)

- $\Sigma = \{<$*constants*$>, \lambda, ., ::, =\}$
- D = $\{$ finite strings of constants $\}$
- $\mathcal{D}$ interprets . as string concatenation, :: as string length
  - ◇ Equations over strings of constants
  - ◇ Eg.: $X.A.X = X.A$

- $\Sigma = \{0, 1, \neg, \wedge, =\}$
- D = $\{true, false\}$
- $\mathcal{D}$ interprets symbols in Σ as boolean functions
- $\mathcal{BOOL} = (\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{L})$
  - ◇ Boolean constraints
  - ◇ Eg.: $\neg(x \wedge y) = 1$

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: $p(t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n)$, where $t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n$ are terms and $p \in \Pi$
- Primitive constraint: $p(t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n)$, where $t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n$ 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 $a \leftarrow b_1, \ldots, b_n$ 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

---

A case study: CLP($\Re$)

- CLP($\Re$) is a language based on Prolog, with the addition of constraint solving capabilities over the reals ($\mathcal{R}_{Lin}$)
- CLP($\Re$) uses the same execution strategy as Prolog (depth–first, left–to–right)
- CLP($\Re$) is able to solve directly linear (dis)equations over the reals
- Non–linear equations are delayed, waiting for them to eventually become linear
- Most relevant feature w.r.t. Prolog (for our purposes): `is/2` disappears, and is subsumed by `=/2` and (extended) unification
- Note: CLP($\Re$) is really CLP(($\Re, \mathcal{FT}$)) — $\mathcal{FT}$ is often omitted

Linear Equations (CLP($\Re$))

- Vector × vector multiplication (dot product):

  $\cdot : \Re^n \times \Re^n \longrightarrow \Re$

  $(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \cdot (y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n) = x_1 \cdot y_1 + \cdots + x_n \cdot y_n$
- Vectors represented as lists of numbers

```
prod([], [], 0).
prod([X|Xs], [Y|Ys], X * Y + Rest) :-
    prod(Xs, Ys, Rest).
```

- Unification becomes constraint solving!

```
?- prod([2, 3], [4, 5], K).
K = 23
?- prod([2, 3], [5, X2], 22).
X2 = 4
?- prod([2, 7, 3], [Vx, Vy, Vz], 0).
Vx = -1.5*Vz - 3.5*Vy
```

- Any computed answer is, in general, an equation over the variables in the query

Systems of Linear Equations (CLP($\Re$))

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

$$\begin{aligned} 3x + y &= 5 \\ x + 8y &= 3 \end{aligned}$$

- 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 $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$:

```
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
```

Non–linear Equations (CLP($\Re$))

- 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($\Re$) solves only linear (dis)equations.
- Once equations become linear, they are handled properly:

```
?- X = cos(sin(Y)), Y = 2+Y*3.
Y = -1, X = 0.666367
```

- Disequations are solved using a modified, incremental Simplex

```
?- X + Y <= 4, Y >= 4, X >= 0.
Y = 4, X = 0
```

Fibonaci Revisited (Prolog)

- Fibonaci numbers:

$$\begin{aligned} F_0 &= 0 \\ F_1 &= 1 \\ F_{n+2} &= F_{n+1} + F_n \end{aligned}$$

- (The good old) Prolog version:

```
fib(0, 0).
fib(1, 1).
fib(N, F) :-
        N > 1,
        N1 is N - 1,
        N2 is N - 2,
        fib(N1, F1),
        fib(N2, F2),
        F is F1 + F2.
```

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

Fibonaci Revisited (CLP($\Re$))

- CLP($\Re$) 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($\Re$)"
- Semantics greatly enhanced! E.g.

```
?- fib(N, F).
F = 0, N = 0  ;
F = 1, N = 1  ;
F = 1, N = 2  ;
F = 2, N = 3  ;
F = 3, N = 4  ;
```

Analog RLC circuits (CLP($\Re$))

- 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

Analog RLC circuits (CLP($\Re$))

- 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.
```

(equality is `c_equal(c(R, I), c(R, I))`, can be left to [extended] unification)

Analog RLC circuits (CLP($\Re$))

- 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).
```

Analog RLC circuits (CLP(ℜ))

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

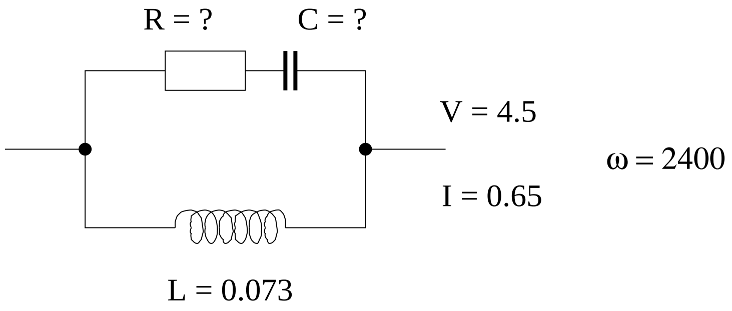
```
circuit(inductor(L), V, I, W) :-
    c_mult(I, c(0, W * L), V).
```

- Capacitor: $V = I * (0 - \frac{1}{WC}i)$

```
circuit(capacitor(C), V, I, W) :-
    c_mult(I, c(0, -1 / (W * C)), V).
```

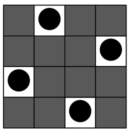
Analog RLC circuits (CLP(ℜ))

- 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).
```

The N Queens Problem

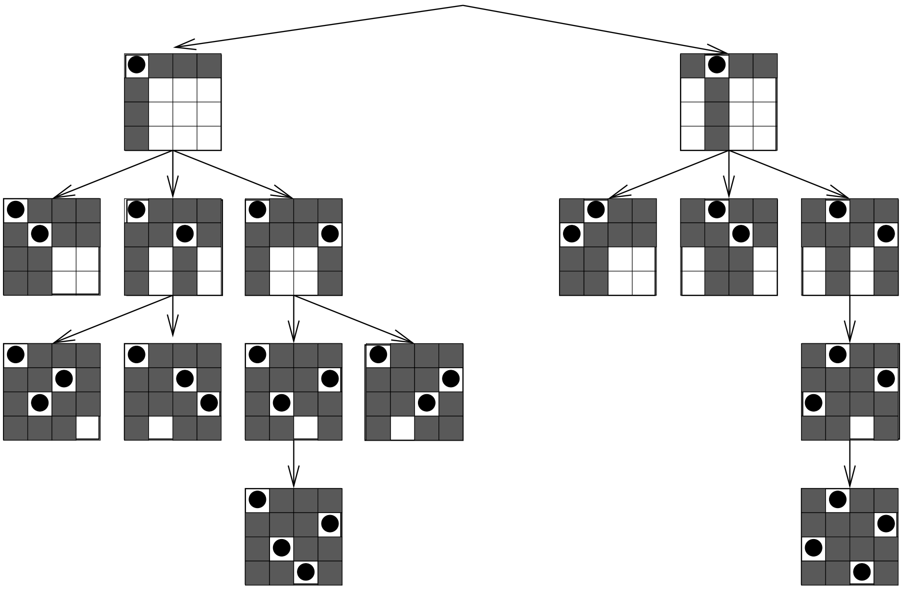
- Problem:
  place N chess queens in a N × N board such that they do not attack each other
- Data structure: a list holding the column position for each row
- The final solution is a permutation of the list `[1, 2, ..., N]`
- E.g.: the solution  is represented as `[2, 4, 1, 3]`
- General idea:
  - ◇ Start with partial solution
  - ◇ Nondeterministically select new queen
  - ◇ Check safety of new queen against those already placed
  - ◇ Add new queen to partial solution if compatible; start again with new partial solution

---

The N Queens Problem (Prolog)

```
queens(N, Qs) :- queens_list(N, Ns), queens(Ns, [], 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|Ns]) :- N > 0, N1 is N - 1, queens_list(N1, Ns).
```

The N Queens Problem (Prolog)



The N Queens Problem (CLP($\Re$))

```
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, [X|_]).
member(X, [_|Xs]) :- member(X, Xs).
```

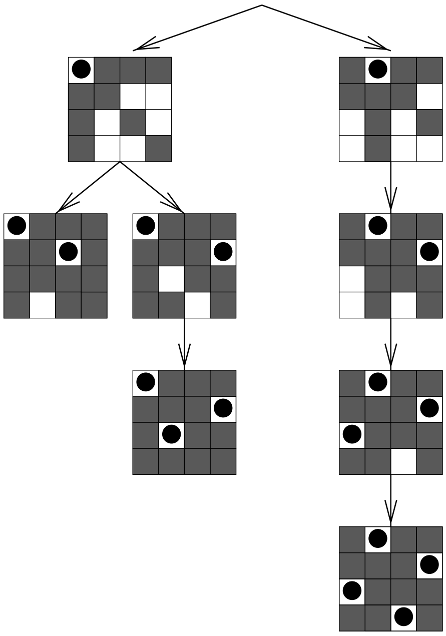
The N Queens Problem (CLP($\Re$))

- 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 ;
N = [2, 5, 3, 1, 4], M = 5
...
```

- Remark: Herbrand terms used to build the data structures
- But also used as constraints (e.g., length of already built list `Xs` in `no_attack(Xs, X, 1)`)
- Note that in fact we are using both $\Re$ and $\mathcal{FT}$

The N Queens Problem (CLP($\Re$))



The N Queens Problem (CLP($\Re$))

- CLP($\Re$) 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                      0 < abs(-_t13 + _t3 - 2)
_t5 <= 4                      0 < abs(-_t13 + _t3 + 2)
_t13 <= 4                     0 < abs(-_t21 + _t3 - 3)
_t21 <= 4                     0 < abs(-_t21 + _t3 + 3)
0 < _t3                       0 < abs(-_t13 + _t5 - 1)
0 < _t5                       0 < abs(-_t13 + _t5 + 1)
0 < _t13                      0 < abs(-_t21 + _t5 - 2)
0 < _t21                      0 < abs(-_t21 + _t5 + 2)
0 < abs(-_t5 + _t3 - 1)       0 < abs(-_t21 + _t13 - 1)
0 < abs(-_t5 + _t3 + 1)       0 < abs(-_t21 + _t13 + 1)
```

The N Queens Problem (CLP($\Re$))

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

```
?- constrain_values(4, 4, Qs), Qs = [3,1|OQs].
OQs = [_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(-_t24 + _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|OQs].
*** No
```

Finite Domains (I)

- A *finite domain* constraint solver associates each variable with a finite subset of $\mathcal{Z}$
- I.e., $E \in \{-123, -10..4, 10\}$
  (represented as `E :: [-123, -10..4, 10]` [Eclipse notation] or as `E in {-123} \/ (-10..4) \/ {10}` [SICStus notation])
- We can:
  - 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 of the
  `:- use_module(library(clpfd)).`
  directive in the source code

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
```

- The minimum value of `X` is the minimum value of `A` minus the maximum value of `B`
- (Similar for the maximum values)
- Putting more constraints:

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

Finite Domains (III)

Some useful primitives in finite domains:

- `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

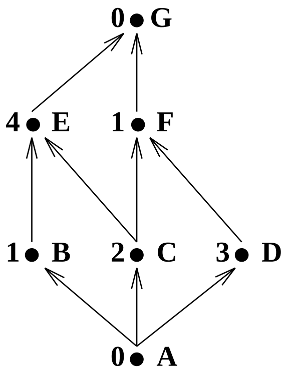
```
?- X #= A - B, A in 1..3, B in 3..7, fd_min(X, X).
A = 1, B = 7, X = -6
```

- `domain(Variables, Min, Max)`: A shorthand for several `in` constraints
- `labeling(Options, VarList)`:
  - instantiates variables in `VarList` to values in their domains
  - `Options` dictates the search order

```
?- X*X+Y*Y#=Z*Z, X#>=Y, domain([X, Y, Z],1,1000),labeling([],[X,Y,Z]).
X = 4, Y = 3, Z = 5
X = 8, Y = 6, Z = 10
X = 12, Y = 5, Z = 13
...
```

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:

```
pn1(A,B,C,D,E,F,G) :-
    A #>= 0, G #=< 10,
    B #>= A, C #>= A, D #>= A,
    E #>= B + 1, E #>= C + 2,
    F #>= C + 2, F #>= D + 3,
    G #>= E + 4, G #>= F + 1.
```

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,
```

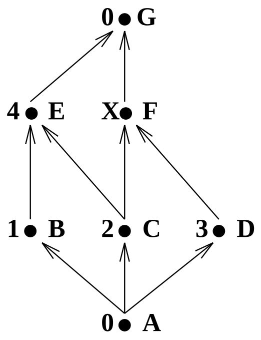
- Note the slack of the variables
- Some additional constraints must be respected as well, but are not shown by default
- Minimize the total project time:

```
?- 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

A Project Management Problem (III)

- An alternative setting:



- We can accelerate task **F** at some cost

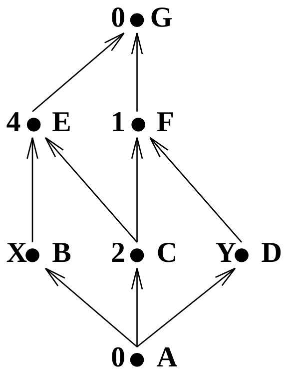
```
pn2(A, B, C, D, E, F, G, X) :-
   A #>= 0, G #=< 10,
   B #>= A, C #>= A, D #>= A,
   E #>= B + 1, E #>= C + 2,
   F #>= C + 2, F #>= D + 3,
   G #>= E + 4, G #>= F + X.
```

- We do not want to accelerate it more than needed!

```
?- pn2(A, B, C, D, E, F, G, X),
   fd_min(G,G), fd_max(X, X).
A = 0, B in 0..1, C = 0, D = 0,
E = 2, F = 3, G = 6, X = 3
```

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

---

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).`
  `A = 0, B = 0, C = 0, D in 0..1, E = 2, F in 4..5, X = 2, Y = 4, G = 6`
- I.e., we must devote more resources to task `B`
- All tasks but F and D are critical now
- Sometimes, `fd_min/2` not enough to provide best solution (pending constraints):

```
pn3(A,B,C,D,E,F,G,X,Y),
labeling([ff, minimize(G)], [A,B,C,D,E,F,G,X,Y]).
```

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] ?
```

CLP($\mathcal{FT}$) (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)).
L=b, X=u, Y=v, Z=W ? ;
L=b, X=u, Y=W, Z=v ? ;
L=b, W=t(_C,_B,_A), X=u, Y=t(_C,_A,_B), Z=v ? ;
L=b, W=t(_E,t(_D,_C,_B),_A), X=u, Y=t(_E,_A,t(_D,_B,_C)), Z=v ?
```

CLP($\mathcal{WE}$)

- 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"

?- "123".z = z."231", z::2.
no
```

- These constraint solvers are very complex
- Often incomplete algorithms are used

CLP(($\mathcal{WE}, \mathcal{Q}$))

- 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
```

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

Complex Constraints

- Some complex constraints allow expressing simpler constraints
- May be operationally treated as passive constraints
- E.g.: cardinality operator $\#(L, [c_1, \ldots, c_n], U)$ 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
- Disjunctive constructive constraint: $c_1 \vee c_2$
  - If properly handled, avoids search and backtracking
  - E.g.:

$$\begin{aligned} nz(X) &\leftarrow X > 0. \\ nz(X) &\leftarrow X < 0. \end{aligned} \qquad nz(X) \leftarrow X < 0 \vee X > 0.$$

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

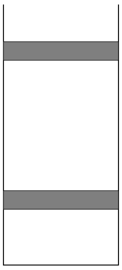
Implementation Issues: Satisfiability

- Algorithms must be *incremental* in order to be practical
- Incrementality refers to the performance of the algorithm
- It is important that algorithms to decide satisfiability have a good average case behavior
- Common technique: use a *solved form* representation for satisfiable constraints
- Not possible in every domain
- E.g. in $\mathcal{FT}$ constraints are represented in the form $x_1 = t_1(\tilde{y}), \ldots, x_n = t_n(\tilde{y})$, where
  - ◇ each $t_i(\tilde{y})$ denotes a term structure containing variables from $\tilde{y}$
  - ◇ no variable x_i appears in $\tilde{y}$

(i.e., idempotent substitutions, guaranteed by the unification algorithm)

Implementation Issues: Backtracking in CLP($\mathcal{X}$)

- Implementation of backtracking more complex than in Prolog
- Need to record changes to constraints
- Constraints typically stored as an association of variable to expression
- Trailing expressions is, in general, costly: cannot be stored at every change
- Avoid trailing when there is no choice point between two successive changes
- A standard technique: use *time stamps* to compare the age of the choice point with the age of the variable at the time of last trailing



X<9, Y=5, Z=4, W=1	**trail W, timestamp it**
X<Y+4, Y=4+W, Z=4	**trail X, Y, Z, timestamp them**
X<Y+Z, Y=Z+W	**timestamp X, Y, Z, W**

Implementation Issues: Extensibility

- Constraint domains often implemented now in Prolog-based systems using:
  - ◇ Attributed variables [Neumerkel,Holzbaur]:
    - * Provide a hook into unification.
    - * Allow attaching an *attribute* to a variable.
    - * When unification with that variable occurs, user-defined code is called.
    - * Used to implement constraint solvers (and other applications, e.g., distributed execution).
  - ◇ Constraint handling rules (CHRs):
    - * Higher-level abstraction.
    - * Allows defining propagation algorithms (e.g., constraint solvers) in a high-level way.
    - * Often translated to attributed variable-based low-level code.

Attributed Variables Example: Freeze

- Primitives:
  - `attach_attribute(X,C)`
  - `get_attribute(X,C)`
  - `detach_attribute(X)`
  - `update_attribute(X,C)`
  - `verify_attribute(C,T)`
  - `combine_attributes(C1,C2)`
- *Example:* Freeze

```
freeze( X, Goal) :-
  attach_attribute( V, frozen(V,Goal)),
  X = V.

verify_attribute( frozen(Var,Goal), Value) :-
  detach_attribute( Var),
  Var = Value,
  call(Goal).

combine_attributes( frozen(V1,G1), frozen(V2,G2)) :-
  detach_attribute( V1),
  detach_attribute( V2),
  V1 = V2,
  attach_attribute( V1, frozen(V1,(G1,G2))).
```

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 (as with Prolog and plain unification)
- Compare:

```
max(X,Y,X) :- X > Y.                ?- max(X, Y, Z).
max(X,Y,Y) :- X <= Y.               Z = X, Y < X ;
```

with

```
max(X,Y,X) :- X > Y, !.             ?- max(X, Y, Z).
max(X,Y,Y) :- X <= Y.               Z = X, Y < X
```

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 solver algorithms
- Most use *Computation* and *Selection* rules of Prolog
- **CLP($\Re$):**
  - 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

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
  - Boolean ($=$), 2-valued Boolean algebra
  - Finite domains, consistency techniques under user–defined strategy
- **SICStus 3:**
  - Linear arithmetic over reals ($=, \leq, >, \neq$)
  - Linear arithmetic over rationals ($=, \leq, >, \neq$)
  - Finite domains (in recent versions)

Some Real Systems (III)

- **ECL^{i}PS^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)