

Constraint Satisfaction Problems

The *ECLⁱPS^e* Constraint Logic Programming System

Albert-Ludwigs-Universität Freiburg



UNI
FREIBURG

Christian Becker-Asano, Bernhard Nebel and Stefan Wölfel

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1 Motivation



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What is *ECLIPSe* ?



“*ECLIPSe* is designed for solving combinatorial optimization problems, for the development of new constraint solver technology and their hybrids, and for the teaching of modelling, solving and search techniques.”

(<http://sourceforge.net/projects/eclipse-clp/>)

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What is *ECLIPSE* ?



ECLIPSE :

- 1 is a declarative language
- 2 is a Constraint Programming toolkit
- 3 is available open source (Mozilla Public License)
- 4 has been applied to areas of planning, scheduling, resource allocation, timetabling, transport...
- 5 provides bindings for Python, C/C++, Tcl/Tk, Java (Eclipse IDE plugin), SQL, ...
- 6 can be interfaced to remotely (RPC)

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The TPK (Trabb Pardo-Knuth) algorithm of Donald Knuth and Luis Trabb Pardo (1976) (the “Hello World!” of algorithms):

“The algorithm prompts for 11 real numbers $(a_0 \dots a_{10})$ and for each a_i computes $b_i = f(a_i)$, where $f(t) = \sqrt{|t|} + 5t^3$. After that for $i = 10 \dots 0$ (in that order) the algorithm outputs a pair (i, b_i) if $b_i \leq 400$, or $(i, \text{T00 LARGE})$ otherwise.” (Dymchenko & Mykhailova, 2014)

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The TPK algorithm in *ECLⁱPS^e* / Prolog:

```
1 f(T, Y) :-
2     Y is sqrt(abs(T)) + 5*T^3.
3 main :-
4     read(As),
5     length(As, N), reverse(As, Rs),
6     ( foreach(Ai, Rs), for(I, N - 1, 0, -1) do
7         Bi is f(Ai),
8         ( Bi > 400 ->
9             printf("%w TOO LARGE\n", I)
10            ;
11            printf("%w %w\n", [I, Bi])
12            )
13     ).
```

(Dymchenko & Mykhailova, 2014)

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The TPK algorithm in python 3:

```
1 >>> def f(x): return abs(x) ** 0.5 + 5 * x**3
2
3 >>> print(', '.join('%s:%s' %
4         (x, v if v<=400 else "TOO LARGE!")
5         for x,v in ((y, f(float(y)))
6                     for y in input('\nnumbers: ')
7                     .strip.split()[1:][::-1])))
```

(http://rosettacode.org/wiki/Trabb_Pardo%E2%80%93Knuth_algorithm#Python)

Is the logical Prolog version “easier/better” than the functional Python version?

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The “Search Solution” example of pyc1p:

```
1 from pyc1p import *
2 init() # Init ECLiPSe engine
3 Compound("lib",Atom("ic")).post_goal() # Load ic library
4 A_var=Var() # Create variable A
5 B_var=Var() # Create variable B
6 # [A,B]#::1..10
7 Compound("#::",PList([A_var,B_var]),\
8             Compound("..",1,10)).post_goal()
9 Compound("#<",A_var,B_var).post_goal() # A#<B
10 Compound("#=",A_var,5).post_goal() # A#=5
11 # labeling([A,B])
12 Compound("labeling",\
13           PList([A_var,B_var])).post_goal()
14 # Loop on all solution and print them.
15 while (resume()[0]==SUCCEED):
16     print(B_var)
17     # backtracking over solutions
18     Atom("fail").post_goal()
19 cleanup() # Shutdown ECLiPSe engine
```

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So again, why *ECLⁱPS^e* ?



⇒ Because it can be considered more elegant and even easier to (only) declare a problem logically and then use all the power of standard reasoning and search algorithms to find a solution.

ECLⁱPS^e contains all major CLP algorithms as libraries and provides the full power of the Prolog language for problem modeling.

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Characteristics of problems suitable for *ECLⁱPS^e* :

- 1 There are no general methods or algorithms
 - NP-completeness
 - Different strategies and heuristics have to be tested
- 2 Requirements are quickly changing
 - Programs should be flexible enough to adapt
- 3 Decision support required
 - Co-operate with user
 - Friendly interfaces

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2 Problem modeling

- Issues
- CLP and *ECLⁱPS^e*

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Constraint Programming can be characterized by two pseudo-equations:

$$\textit{Solution} = \textit{Logic} + \textit{Control} \quad (1)$$

$$\textit{Control} = \textit{Reasoning} + \textit{Search} \quad (2)$$

Equation (1): a `solution` can be found by:

- 1 a `logical`, declarative description of the problem, and
- 2 `control` information for the computer to deduce it.

Equation (2): `control` is a combination of:

- 1 `reasoning` to (efficiently) limit the search space, and
- 2 subsequent (inefficient) `search` through that space

Problem modeling deals with the `Logic` part of Equation (1).

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A good formalism should fulfill the following criteria:

- 1 Expressive power:
formal model of real world problem possible?
- 2 Clarity for humans:
ease of use of formalism (read, write, understand, modify)
- 3 Solvability for computers:
Good methods available to solve problem?

Higher-level models

- + closer to the user and the problem
- + easier to understand and trust, to debug and modify, but
- difficult to see how they can be solved

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Classical source of error in application development:

⇒ Transition from formal description to final program

⇒ Can the final program be trusted?

CLP solution:

- Keep initial formal model as part of the final program
- Enhance rather than rewrite:
 - Add control annotations (e.g., algorithmic or heuristic information)
 - Transform higher-level (problem) constraints into low-level (solver) constraints

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Built-in language constructs used in modeling:

■ **Build-in constraints:** $X \#> Y$

■ **Abstraction:**

```
bef(task(Si,Di,),task(Sj,Dj)) :- Si+Dj #<= Sj.
```

■ **Conjunction:** $\text{betw}(X,Y,Z) :- X \#< Y, Y \#< Z.$

■ **Disjunction:** $\text{neighb}(X,Y) :- (X \# = Y+1 ; Y \# = X+1).$

■ **Iteration:**

```
not_among(X,L) :-  
( foreach(Y,L), param(X) do X #\= Y ).
```

■ **Recursion:**

```
not_among(X, []).  
not_among(X, [Y|Ys]) :- X #\= Y, not_among(X,Ys).
```

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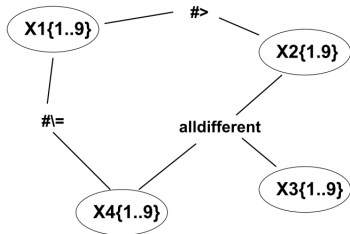
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An example constraint network (Cheadle et al., 2014):



Variables
with attributes
e.g. domain

Constraints
predicates involving
one or more variables

Model
= setup program:
`[X1,X2,X3,X4]::1..9,`
`X1 #> X2,`
`alldifferent([X2,X3,X4]),`
`X1 #\= X4.`

But, of course, one problem can be modeled in multiple ways..

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Same Problem – Different Model



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```
1 sendmore(Digits) :-
2   Digits = [S,E,N,D,M,O,R,Y],
3   Digits :: [0..9],
4   alldifferent(Digits),
5   S #\= 0, M #\= 0,
6       1000*S + 100*E + 10*N + D
7       + 1000*M + 100*O + 10*R + E
8       #= 10000*M + 1000*O + 100*N + 10*E + Y.
```

```
1 sendmore(Digits) :-
2   Digits = [S,E,N,D,M,O,R,Y],
3   Digits :: [0..9],
4   Carries = [C1,C2,C3,C4],
5   Carries :: [0..1],
6   alldifferent(Digits),
7   S #\= 0, M #\= 0,
8   C1      #= M,
9   C2 + S + M #= O + 10*C1,
10  C3 + E + O #= N + 10*C2,
11  C4 + N + R #= E + 10*C3,
12  D + E #= Y + 10*C4.
```

Both models work fine, but involve different variables and constraints.

⇒ “Finding good models [..] requires substantial **expertise** and **experience**.” (Cheadle et al., 2014)

Declarative model is constraint setup code ⇒ should be deterministic and terminating, so **general rules**:

- **Careful with disjunctions:** Don't leave choice points (i.e., alternatives for backtracking); should be deferred until search phase
- **Use only simple conditionals:** Conditions $(\dots \rightarrow \dots; \dots)$ must be true or false at modeling time!
- **Use only structural recursion and loops:** Termination conditions must be known at modeling time!

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ECLⁱPS^e :

- is a declarative constraint programming framework
- interfaces with many programming languages
- is based on the paradigm:
Solution = Logic + Control
- uses Prolog for problem modeling

⇒ Next, introduction to Prolog..

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- Terms and their data types
- Predicates, Goals, and Queries
- Conjunctions & Disjunctions
- Unification and Logical Variables

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Prolog data (terms) and programs are built from the following data types:

- Numbers
- Strings
- Atoms
- Lists
- Structures

They are introduced next..

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Numbers in *ECLⁱPS^e* come in several flavors:

- 1 Integers can be as large as fits into memory, e.g.:
123 0 -27 393423874981724
- 2 Floating point number (repr. as IEEE double floats), e.g.:
0.0 3.141592653589793 6.02e23 -35e-12 -1.0Inf
- 3 Also available: rationals and bounded reals

Beware: Performing arithmetic requires **is/2** predicate:

```
1 ?- X is 3 + 4.  
2 X = 7  
3 Yes
```

Predicate **=/2** constructs term corresp. to arithmetic expression:

```
1 ?- X = 3 + 4.  
2 X = 3 + 4  
3 Yes
```

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Strings represent arbitrary sequences of bytes:

```
1 "I am a string!"  
2 "string with a newline \n and a null \000 character"
```

Strings versus Atoms:

- 1 many predicates accept both strings and atoms
 - 2 internally, the data types are quite different:
 - string stored as character sequence
 - atom mapped into internal constant via dictionary table
- Copying and comparing:
- atoms in unit time
 - strings in time proportional to string length
- However, recollection of freed dictionary memory needs garbage collection

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Consider the following example:

```
1 [eclipse 1]: [user].
2 afather(john, george).
3 afather(sue, harry).
4 afather(george, edward).
5 sfather("john", "george").
6 sfather("sue", "harry").
7 sfather("george", "edward").
8 yes.
9
10 [eclipse 2]: afather(sue,X).
11 X = harry
12 yes.
13
14 [eclipse 3]: sfather("sue",X).
15 X = "harry"      More? (;)
16 no (more) solution.
```

⇒ Atoms should always be preferred when they are involved in unification and matching.

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Atoms are simple symbolic constants:

- 1 similar to enumeration type constants in other languages
- 2 no special meaning attached to them by the language
- 3 syntactically:
 - all words starting with a lower case letter are atoms
 - sequences of symbols are atoms
 - anything in single quotes is an atom
- 4 E.g.: atom `quark i5 -- ??? 'Atom' 'an atom'`

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Lists are:

- 1 ordered sequences of (any number of) elements, each of which is itself a term
- 2 delimited by square brackets (`[]`) and its elements comma separated

Examples: `[1,2,3]`, `[berlin, tokyo, freiburg]`,
`["csp1415", 42, [1,2,3], freiburg]`

More notation:

- 1 empty list: `[]`
 - 2 head and tail: `[Head|Tail]`, with
 - Head a single element
 - Tail a (possibly empty) list
- Equivalent lists: `[1,2,3]`, `[1|[2,3]]`, `[1|[2|[3]]]`,
`[1|[2|[3|[]]]]`

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Structures correspond to structs or records in other languages:

- 1 always has a name, which looks like an atom
- 2 aggregates a fixed number of components, i.e. arguments that themselves are terms
- 3 general structure: $\langle name \rangle (\langle arg \rangle_1, \dots, \langle arg \rangle_n)$
- 4 arity is the number of arguments
- 5 name and arity together is called **functor**, often written as name/arity, e.g., `flight/4`

Examples:

```
date(december, 25, "Christmas")
element(hydrogen, composition(1,0))
flight(london, new_york, 12.05, 17.55)
```

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Prefix, infix, and postfix notation:

- 1 Unary structures also possible in prefix or postfix notation, e.g., `old berta`. the same as `old(berta)`.
- 2 Binary structures also possible in prefix or infix notation, e.g., `1 plus 5`. the same as `plus(1, 5)`.
- 3 these notations need to be declared with
`:- op(+Precedence, +Associativity, ++Name)`
- 4 if in doubt, use `display/1` to check parsing of term:

```
[eclipse]: display(a+b*c).  
+(a, *(b, c))  
yes.
```

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- 1 **Numbers:** *ECLⁱPS^e* has intergers, floats, rationals, and bounded reals
- 2 **Strings:** character sequences in double quotes
- 3 **Atoms:** symbolic constants, usually lower case or in single quotes
- 4 **Lists:** constructed from cells that have an arbitrary head and a tail, which is again a (possibly empty) list
- 5 **Structures:** have a `name` and a certain number (`arity`) of arbitrary arguments, this characteristic is called the `functor`, and written `name/arity`

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Other programming languages have procedures and functions

⇒ Prolog and *ECLⁱPS^e* have predicates:

- 1 a predicate is something that has a truth value
- 2 a predicate *definition* defines what is true
- 3 a predicate *invocation* or *call* checks its truth value

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Predicate examples for integer/1:

```
integer(123)           is true
integer(atom)         is false
integer([1,2])        is false
```

These predicate calls are goals.

If supplied by a user as a *starting goal*, the goal becomes a query, e.g.:

```
?- integer(123).
```

Yes.

```
?- integer(atom).
```

No.

Queries always return either Yes. or No.

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Goals are often combined to form *conjunctions* (AND) or *disjunctions* (OR).

Conjunctions:

- 1 are built using commas
- 2 are only true if all conjuncts are true

Examples:

```
?- integer(5), integer(7), integer(9).
```

Yes.

```
?- integer(5), integer(hello).
```

No.

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Disjunctions:

- 1 are built using semicolons
- 2 are true if at least one disjunct is true

Examples:

```
?- ( integer(5); integer(hello); integer(world) ).
```

Yes.

```
?- ( integer(hello); integer(world) ).
```

No.

Use parentheses with disjunctions to clarify the structure.

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Special case: multiple answers in case of disjunctions!
 \Rightarrow *ECLⁱPS^e* gives separate **Yes** answers for every way in which a disjunctive query can be satisfied.

```
1 ?- ( integer(5) ; integer(7) ).  
2 Yes (0.00s cpu, solution 1, maybe more)  
3 Yes (0.02s cpu, solution 2)
```

```
1 ?- ( integer(5) ; integer(hello) ).  
2 Yes (0.00s cpu, solution 1, maybe more)  
3 No (0.02s cpu)
```

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Equality in Prolog:

- structural equality by pattern matching
 - two terms only equal, if they have exactly same structure
 - No evaluation of any kind involved

Examples:

```
1 ?- 3 = 3.  
2 Yes.  
3 ?- 3 = 4.  
4 No.  
5 ?- foo(a,2) = foo(a,2).  
6 Yes.  
7 ?- foo(a,2) = foo(b,2).  
8 No.  
9 ?- +(3,4) = 7.  
10 No.  
11 ?- 3 + 4 = 7.  
12 No.
```

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Logical variables:

- 1 are variables in the mathematical sense (not in the usual programming language sense)
- 2 are placeholders for values which are not yet known, not labels for storage locations
- 3 are aliases for logical values and refer to terms
- 4 keep their value once assigned to them
- 5 are written beginning with an upper-case letter or an underscore, e.g.:
X Var Quark _123 R2D2 Wumpus
- 6 same identifier multiple times in input term denotes the same variable

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With logical variables equality test become much more interesting: **Unification**

Unification:

- 1 is an extension of pattern matching of two terms
- 2 also causes binding (instantiation, aliasing) of variables in the two terms
- 3 Idea: instantiate variables such that terms become equal

Examples:

<code>X = 7</code>	is true with X instantiated to 7
<code>X = Y</code>	is true with X aliased to Y (or vice versa)
<code>foo(X) = foo(7)</code>	is true with X instantiated to 7
<code>foo(X,Y) = foo(3,4)</code>	is true with X instantiated to 3 and Y to 4
<code>foo(X,4) = foo(3,Y)</code>	is true with X instantiated to 3 and Y to 4
<code>foo(X) = foo(Y)</code>	is true with X aliased to Y (or vice versa)
<code>foo(X,X) = foo(3,4)</code>	is false because no possible value for X
<code>foo(X,4) = foo(3,X)</code>	is false because no possible value for X

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Terms and their data types

Predicates, Goals, and Queries

Conjunctions & Disjunctions

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- **Predicate:** Something that is true or false, depending on its definition and its arguments. Defines a relationship between its arguments.
- **Goal:** A logical formula whose truth value we want to know. A goal can be a conjunction or disjunction of other (sub-)goals.
- **Query:** The initial Goal given to a computation.
- **Unification:** An extension of pattern matching which can bind logical variables (placeholders) in the matched terms to make them equal.
- **Clause:** One alternative definition for when a predicate is true. A clause is logically an implication rule.

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Comments can be:

- 1 **Block comments** enclosed between `/*` and `*/`
- 2 **Line comments** anything following `%` in a line (unless `'%` character is part of a quoted atom or string)

(Nothing more to say..)

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In Prolog a program is a collection of predicates, and a predicate is a collection of clauses.

So, what is a clause:

- 1 defines that something is true
- 2 simplest form is a fact, which syntactically is a structure or an atom terminated by a full stop, e.g.:

```
capital(london, england).  
brother(fred, jane).
```

- 3 General form of a clause:

Head :- Body

Where Head is a structure (or atom) and Body is a Goal, e.g.:

```
uncle(X,Z) :- brother(X,Y), parent(Y,Z).
```

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The example clause:

```
uncle(X,Z) :- brother(X,Y), parent(Y,Z).
```

is equivalent to the following **reverse implication**:

$$uncle(X,Z) \leftarrow brother(X,Y) \wedge parent(Y,Z)$$

or more precisely:

$$\forall X \forall Z : uncle(X,Z) \leftarrow \exists Y : brother(X,Y) \wedge parent(Y,Z)$$

A fact is equivalent to a clause with its Body being true:

```
brother(fred, jane) :- true.
```

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One or multiple clauses with the same head functor define(s) a predicate, e.g. (with facts):

```
1 parent(abe, homer).
2 parent(abe, herbert).
3 parent(homer, bart).
4 parent(marge, bart).
```

Logically, multiple clauses:

- are read as disjunctions
- define multiple alternative ways a predicate can be true

Another example, the ancestor/2 predicate:

```
1 ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y).
2 ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(Z,Y), ancestor(X,Z).
```

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Resolution:

- **Given:** set of facts and rules as a program
- **Starting point:** a query as an initial goal to be resolved
- **Resolvent:** set of goals that still have to be resolved

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Execution scheme \Rightarrow resolution



Execution mechanism:

- 1 Pick one goal from the resolvent. If resolvent is empty, stop.
- 2 Find all clauses whose head successfully unifies with goal. If no such clause, *go to step 6*.
- 3 Select first of these clauses. If more exist, remember remaining ones. (choice point)
- 4 Unify goal with head of the selected clause. (may instantiate variables both in the goal and in the clause's body).
- 5 Prefix this clause body to the resolvent and *go to 1*.
- 6 Backtrack: Reset whole computation state to how it was when the most recent choice point was created. Take the clauses remembered in this choice point and *go to 3*.

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```
1 ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y).           % clause 1
2 ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(Z,Y), ancestor(X,Z). % clause 2
3 parent(abe, homer).                     % clause 3
4 parent(abe, herbert).                   % clause 4
5 parent(homer, bart).                    % clause 5
6 parent(marge, bart).                     % clause 6
```

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With query `?- ancestor(X, bart).` we get:

- both `ancestor/2` predicates can unify the goal
- but the textually first clause (1) is selected first:

```
Goal (Query):   ancestor(X,bart)
Selected:       clause 1
Unifying:       ancestor(X,bart) = ancestor(X1,Y1)
results in:     X=X1, Y1=bart
New resolvent:  parent(X, bart)
More choices:   clause 2
```

Execution scheme example



```
1 ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y).           % clause 1
2 ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(Z,Y), ancestor(X,Z). % clause 2
3 parent(abe, homer).                     % clause 3
4 parent(abe, herbert).                   % clause 4
5 parent(homer, bart).                    % clause 5
6 parent(marge, bart).                    % clause 6
```

- body of clause 1 `parent(X, bart)` is added to resolvent, i.e. a choice point is generated
- `parent(X, bart)` is next selected for unification
 \Rightarrow possible matches are clause 5 and 6, try 5 first
- no body goals to add, the resolvent is now empty

```
Goal:           parent(X, bart)
Selected:       clause 5
Unifying:       parent(X,bart) = parent(homer,bart)
results in:     X = homer
New resolvent:
More choices:   clause 6, then clause 2
```

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```
1 ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y).           % clause 1
2 ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(Z,Y), ancestor(X,Z). % clause 2
3 parent(abe, homer).                     % clause 3
4 parent(abe, herbert).                   % clause 4
5 parent(homer, bart).                     % clause 5
6 parent(marge, bart).                     % clause 6
```

3. **empty resolvent** \Rightarrow execution completes successfully, found first solution $X = \text{homer}$
3. *ECLⁱPS^e* returns solution and asks if more solutions wanted
3. If yes, **backtrack** to most recent *choice point*
3. any **variable bindings** done after *choice point* are **undone**, here binding of X to homer is undone

```
Goal:           parent(X, bart)
Selected:       clause 6
Unifying:       parent(X,bart) = parent(marge,bart)
results in:     X = marge
New resolvent:
More choices:   clause 2
```

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```
1 ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y).           % clause 1
2 ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(Z,Y), ancestor(X,Z). % clause 2
3 parent(abe, homer).                     % clause 3
4 parent(abe, herbert).                   % clause 4
5 parent(homer, bart).                    % clause 5
6 parent(marge, bart).                    % clause 6
```

4. **empty resolvent** \Rightarrow execution completes successfully, found second solution $X = \text{marge}$
4. If still more solutions wanted, **backtrack** to most recent *choice point*
4. no further alternatives for `parent/2` \Rightarrow check `ancestor/2`

```
Goal:          ancestor(X,bart)
Selected:      clause 2
Unifying:      ancestor(X,bart) = ancestor(X1,Y1)
results in:    Y1 = bart, X1 = X
New resolvent: parent(Z1, bart), ancestor(X1, Z1)
More choices:
```

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```
1 ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y).           % clause 1
2 ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(Z,Y), ancestor(X,Z). % clause 2
3 parent(abe, homer).                     % clause 3
4 parent(abe, herbert).                   % clause 4
5 parent(homer, bart).                    % clause 5
6 parent(marge, bart).                    % clause 6
```

5. new resolvent contains **two goals**: parent(Z1, bart), ancestor(X1, Z1)

5. Check leftmost first, parent(Z1, bart) \Rightarrow *new choice point*

5. Select clause 5 first

```
Goal:          parent(Z1, bart)
Selected:      clause 5
Unifying:      parent(Z1, bart) = parent(homer, bart)
results in:    Z1 = homer
New resolvent: ancestor(X1, homer)
More choices:  clause 6
```

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```
1 ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y).           % clause 1
2 ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(Z,Y), ancestor(X,Z). % clause 2
3 parent(abe, homer).                     % clause 3
4 parent(abe, herbert).                   % clause 4
5 parent(homer, bart).                    % clause 5
6 parent(marge, bart).                    % clause 6
```

6. Via finding the ancestor of homer a few steps later:

```
?- ancestor(X,bart).
X = abe      More? (;)
```

6. Finally, Z1 would be bound to marge for whom no ancestors are found \Rightarrow False.

Here, the execution terminates.

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■ Disjunction:

```
1 at_part(X) :- (X=proton ; X=neutron ; X=electron).
```

is logically equivalent to:

```
1 at_part(proton).
2 at_part(neutron).
3 at_part(electron).
```

■ Conditional:

- specified by the $\rightarrow/2$ operator
- combined with $;/2$, a conditional similar to 'if-then-else' can be constructed: $X \rightarrow Y ; Z$
- only **first solution** of X is explored \Rightarrow no new solutions are tried on **backtracking!**

```
1 max(X,Y, Max) :-
2   number(X), number(Y),
3   (X > Y -> Max = X ; Max = Y).
```

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■ Call:

- in Prolog: data == programs
- both are represented as terms
- use predicate `call` to treat terms as goals
- `call(X)`: at runtime `X` has to be instantiated, but not at compile time!
- possible definition of disjunction (`;`):

```
1 X ; Y :- call(X).  
2 X ; Y :- call(Y).
```

■ All solutions:

- Alternative to one-by-one solution computation:

```
1 ?- findall(X, weekday(X), List).  
2 X = X  
3 List = [mo, tu, we, th, fr, sa, su]  
4 Yes
```

- See also `setof/3` and `bagof/3` predicates

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Use cut (!) to prune away part of the Prolog search-space.

- Powerful mechanism to improve program performance
- Suppresses unwanted solutions
- BUT: easily mis- or overused!
- Cut does two things:
 - 1 **commit**: disregard later clauses for a predicate
 - 2 **prune**: Throw away alternative solutions to the goal to the left of the cut

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Commit to current clause

Consider the following encoding of the “minimum” predicate:

```
1 min(X,Y, Min) :- X < Y, Min = X.  
2 min(X,Y, Min) :- Y < X, Min = Y.
```

Problems:

- logically correct, but non-optimal performance
- with `:- min(2,3,M)`. Prolog leaves an open *choice point*
⇒ during backtracking another minimum would be searched for unnecessarily!
- unnecessary *choice point*:
 - 1 consumes memory
 - 2 costs execution time

Solution, use cut:

```
1 min(X,Y, Min) :- X < Y, !, Min = X.  
2 min(X,Y, Y).
```

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A cut may occur anywhere where a goal may occur:

```
1 first_prime(X, P) :-  
2   prime(X,P), !.
```

first_prime/2:

- returns the first prime number smaller than X
 - calls predicate prime/2, which generates prime numbers smaller than X in descending order
 - ! (cut) prunes away all remaining solutions
- on backtracking no alternatives are tried

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- Input and Output
- More functions
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Names for structures (so-called declared structures) make them more readable and maintainable, e.g. with:

```
1 :- local struct( book(author, title, year, publisher) ).
```

Structures with the functor `book/4` can be written as:

```
1 book{}  
2 book{title:'tom sawyer'}  
3 book{title:'tom sawyer', year:1876, author:twain}
```

which correspond to:

```
1 book( _, _, _, _ )  
2 book( _, 'tom sawyer', _, _ )  
3 book( twain, 'tom sawyer', 1876, _ )
```

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Properties of declared structure notation:

- the arguments can be written in any order
- “dummy” arguments with anonymous variables do not need to be written
- the arity of the structure is not implied
- the of-syntax can be used to return index of argument, e.g.:
`arg(year of book, B, Y)` is equiv. to `arg(3, B, Y)`

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To reduce the need for auxiliary predicates \Rightarrow iteration construct:

```
( IterationSpecs do Goals )
```

For example, iteration over a list:

```
1 ?- ( foreach(X,[1,2,3]) do writeln(X) )
2 1
3 2
4 3
5 Yes (0.00s cpu)
```

If a parameter remains **constant** across all loop iterations \Rightarrow must be specified explicitly (via **param**):

```
1 ?- Array = [](4,3,6,7,8),
2   (
3     for(I,1,5),
4     fromto(0,In,Out,Sum),
5     param(Array)
6   do
7     Out is In + Array[I]
8   ).
```

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Possible IterationSpecs:

- `fromto(First, In, Out, Last)`: iterate Goals starting with `In=First` until `Out=Last`.
- `foreach(X, List)`: iterate Goals with `X` ranging over all elements of `List`.
- `foreacharg(X, StructOrArray)`: iterate Goals with `X` ranging over all arguments of `StructOrArray`.
- `foreacharg(X, StructOrArray, Idx)`: same as before, but `Idx` is set to the argument position of `X` in `StructOrArray`.
- ...
- `for(I, MinExpr, MaxExpr, [Increment])`: iterate Goals with `I` ranging over integers from `MinExpr` to `MaxExpr` with optional increment.
- ... (see <http://eclipseclp.org/doc/tutorial/tutorial025.html>)

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Arrays can be of any dimension, indices start at 1, and they are declared with the `dim/2` predicate:

```
1 ?- dim(M, [3,4]).
2 M = [] ([ (_131, _132, _133, _134),
3         [_126, _127, _128, _129],
4         [_121, _122, _123, _124])
5 yes.
```

To query dimensions:

```
1 ?- dim(M, [3,4]), dim(M,D).
2 ...
3 D = [3, 4]
4 yes.
```

To access specific elements, specify its index:

```
1 ?- M = [] ([ (2, 3, 5),
2           [(1, 4, 7)]), X is M[1, 2] + M[2, 3].
3 X = 10
4 M = [] ([ (2, 3, 5), [(1, 4, 7)])
5 yes.
```

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Printing *ECLⁱPS^e* terms:

- `write(+Stream, ?Term)`: write one term in a default format
- `write_term(+Stream, ?Term, +Options)`: write one term, format options can be selected
- `printf(+Stream, +Format, +ArgList)`: write a string with embedded terms, according to a format string
- `writeq(+Stream, ?Term)`,
`write_canonical(+Stream, ?Term)`: write one term so that it can be read back
- `put(+Stream, +Char)`: write one character

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Reading *ECLⁱPS^e* terms:

- `read(+Stream, -Term, [Options])`: read one fullstop-terminated *ECLⁱPS^e* term.
- `get(+Stream, -Char)`: read one character
- `read_string(+Stream, +Terminator, -Length, -String)`: read a string up to a certain terminator character
- `read_token(+Stream, -Token, -Class)`: read one syntactic token (e.g. a number, an atom, a bracket, etc)

Example:

```
1 [eclipse 1]: read(X).
2 [3,X,foo(bar),Y].
3 X = [3, X, foo(bar), Y]
4 yes.
```

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Matching (one-way unification)



Clauses can use **matching** (or one-way unification) instead of head unification:

- written with `?-` functor instead of `:-`
- No variables in the caller will be bound

```
1 [eclipse 1]: [user].
2 p(f(a,X)) ?- writeln(X).
3 ?- p(F).
4 Query failed: ?- p(F)
5 ?- p(f(A,B)).
6 Query failed: ?- p(f(A, B))
7 ?- p(f(a,b)).
8 b
```

```
1 [eclipse 2]: [user].
2 p(f(a,X)) :- writeln(X).
3 ?- p(f(A,B)).
4 B
```

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ECL'PS^e provides `append/3`, `length/2`, `member/2`, and `sort/2`:

- `append/3`: append or split lists, e.g.

```
1 ?- append([1, 2], [3, 4], L).  
2 L = [1, 2, 3, 4]  
3 ?- append(A, [3, 4], [1, 2, 3, 4]).  
4 A = [1, 2]  
5 ?- append([1, 2], B, [1, 2, 3, 4]).  
6 B = [3, 4]
```

- `length/2`: compute the length of a list or construct list of given length, e.g.

```
1 ?- length([1, 2, 3, 4], N).  
2 N = 4  
3 ?- length(List, 4).  
4 List = [_1693, _1695, _1697, _1699]
```

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ECLⁱPS^e provides `append/3`, `length/2`, `member/2`, and `sort/2`:

- `member/2`: check membership in a list (but `memberchk/2` should be preferred), or backtrack over all list members, e.g.

```
1 ?- memberchk(2, [1, 2, 3]).
2 Yes (0.00s cpu)
3 ?- member(X, [1, 2, 3]).
4 X = 1
5 More (0.00s cpu)
6 X = 2
7 More (0.01s cpu)
8 X = 3
9 Yes (0.01s cpu)
```

- `sort/2`: sort any list and remove duplicates, e.g.

```
1 ?- sort([5, 3, 4, 3, 2], Sorted).
2 Sorted = [2, 3, 4, 5]
```

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Generic built-in predicates:

- `=..`: converts structures into lists and vice versa
- `arg/3`: extracts an argument from a structure
- `functor/3`: extracts functor name and arity from structured term
- `term_variables/2`: extracts all variables from arbitrarily complex terms
- `copy_term/2`: creates a copy of a term with fresh variables

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With `module` directive a new module is declared, e.g.:

```
1 :- module(greeting).
2 :- export hello/0.
3 hello :-
4     who(X),
5     printf("Hello %w!%n", [X]).
6 who(world).
7 who(friend).
```

and with `export` a predicate is exported.

One can now `import` the module and call its exported predicate, e.g.:

```
1 :- module(main).
2 :- import greeting. % or 'import hello/0 from greeting.'
3 main :-
4     hello. % or (without 'import') 'greeting:hello.'
```

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Exporting items other than predicates



Most commonly exported items (apart from predicates) are structure and operator declarations:

```
1 :- module(data).
2 :- export struct(employee(name,age,salary)).
3 :- export op(500, xfx, reports_to).
4 ...
```

Import declarations by importing module (`import data.`).

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Input and Output

More functions

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- Global Constraints

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The IC (Interval Constraints) library provides a general interval propagation solver which can be used to solve problems over both integer and real variables.

Load the IC library using either of the following:

```
1 :- lib(ic).
2 :- use_module(library(ic)).
```

The typical top-level structure of a constraint program:

```
1 solve(Variables) :-
2     read_data(Data),
3     setup_constraints(Data, Variables),
4     labeling(Variables).
```

The `labeling/2` predicate is the search part of the program and part of the IC library.

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Your code must:

- create variables with initial domains
- setup constraints between variables

Example, SEND+MORE = MONEY:

```
1 :- lib(ic).
2 sendmore(Digits) :-
3     Digits = [S,E,N,D,M,O,R,Y],
4 % Assign finite domain with each letter in list Digits
5     Digits :: [0..9],
6 % Constraints
7     alldifferent(Digits),
8     S #\= 0,
9     M #\= 0,
10          1000*S + 100*E + 10*N + D
11          + 1000*M + 100*O + 10*R + E
12     #= 10000*M + 1000*O + 100*N + 10*E + Y,
13 % Search
14     labeling(Digits).
```

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The *ic* library provides the following predicates:

- `Vars :: Domain`
 - constrains `Vars` to take only integer or real values from the domain specified by `Domain`
 - `Domain` can be simple range `Lo .. Hi`, or a list of subranges and/or individual elements (integer variables)
 - type of bounds determines type of the variable
 - also allowed: symbolic bound values `inf`, `+inf` and `-inf`
- `Vars $:: Domain`
 - like `::/2`, but for declaring real variables (never imposes integrality, regardless of the types of bounds)
- `Vars #:: Domain`
 - like `::/2`, but for declaring integer variables
- `reals(Vars)` and `integer(Vars)`
 - declares that variables are IC variables / constraints variables to integer values only

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Built-in constraints: examples



```
1 ?- X :: -10 .. 10. % integer values from -10 to 10
2 X = X{-10 .. 10}
3 Yes
4 ?- X :: -10.0 .. 10.0. % real values from -10 to 10
5 X = X{-10.0 .. 10.0}
6 Yes
7 ?- X #:: -10 .. 10. % explicitly declared integer values
8 X = X{-10 .. 10}
9 Yes
10 ?- X $:: -10 .. 10. % explicitly declared real values
11 X = X{-10.0 .. 10.0}
12 Yes
13 ?- X :: 0 .. 1.0Inf. % integers from zero to infinity
14 X = X{0 .. 1.0Inf}
15 Yes
16 ?- X :: 0.0 .. 1.0Inf. % reals from zero to infinity
17 X = X{0.0 .. 1.0Inf}
18 Yes
19 ?- X :: [1, 4 .. 6, 9, 10]. % subranges (integers only)
20 X = X{[1, 4 .. 6, 9, 10]}
21 Yes
```

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Arithmetic constraints in *integral* (#) and *non-integral* (\$) version:

- $\# =$ & $\$ =$: equality of integer (#) or general (\$) expressions
- $\# \geq$ & $\$ \geq$: greater than or equal
- $\# \leq$ & $\$ \leq$: less than or equal
- $\# >$ & $\$ >$: greater than
- $\# <$ & $\$ <$: less than
- $\# \neq$ & $\$ \neq$: not equal
- $\text{ac_eq}(X, Y, C)$: arc-consistent implementation of $X \# = Y + C$. X and Y are constrained to be integer variables and to have “reasonable” bounds. C must be an integer.

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Further notes:

- $X/2 + Y/2 \neq 1$ and $X + Y \neq 2$ are **different constraints** \Rightarrow the first constraints X and Y to be even
- Except for disequality and `ac_eq/3`, all basic constraints **propagate bound information** (performing interval reasoning), e.g.:

```
1 ?- [X, Y] :: 0 .. 10, X #>= Y + 2.  
2 X = X{2 .. 10}  
3 Y = Y{0 .. 8}  
4 There is 1 delayed goal.  
5 Yes
```

- `delayed goal` indicates that still some combinations of values for X and Y violate the constraint
- constraint remains until no such violation is possible anymore

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The following connectives can be used to combine constraint expressions:

- 1 and: Constraint conjunction, e.g. 'X $>$ 3 and X $<$ 8'
- 2 or: Constraint disjunction, e.g. 'X $<$ 3 or X $>$ 8'
- 3 \Rightarrow : Constraint implication, e.g. 'X $>$ 3 \Rightarrow X $<$ 8'
- 4 and: Constraint negation, e.g. 'neg X $>$ 3'

Example:

```
1 ?- [X, Y] :: 0..10, X #>= Y + 6 or X #< Y - 6.  
2 X = X{0 .. 10}  
3 Y = Y{0 .. 10}  
4 There are 3 delayed goals.  
5 Yes
```

No constraint can be enforced, but ...

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Once it is known that $X \#=< Y - 6$ cannot be true, the constraint $X \#>= Y + 6$ is enforced.

Example:

```
1 ?- [X, Y] :: 0..10, X #>= Y + 6 or X #=< Y - 6, X #>= 5.  
2 Y = Y{0 .. 4}  
3 X = X{6 .. 10}  
4 There is 1 delayed goal.  
5 Yes
```

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The IC (Interval Constraints) has optional components, which provide *global constraints* \Rightarrow high-level constraints that provide more global reasoning than the ones in main IC library.

- contained in `ic_global`, `ic_cumulative`, `ic_edge_finder`, and `ic_edge_finder3`

- To use, e.g., `ic_global`:

```
1 :- lib(ic_global).  
2 :- use_module(library(ic_global)).
```

- Note: some predicates appear in more than one library, e.g., `ic:alldifferent/1` and `ic_global:alldifferent/1`

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Different strength of propagation

Compare the `ic:alldifferent/1` version:

```
1 ?- [X1, X2] :: 1 .. 2, [X3, X4] :: 1 .. 4,  
2     ic:alldifferent([X1, X2, X3, X4]).  
3 X1 = X1{[1, 2]}  
4 X2 = X2{[1, 2]}  
5 X3 = X3{1 .. 4}  
6 X4 = X4{1 .. 4}  
7 There are 4 delayed goals.  
8 Yes
```

with the `ic_global:alldifferent/1` version:

```
1 ?- [X1, X2] :: 1 .. 2, [X3, X4] :: 1 .. 4,  
2     ic_global:alldifferent([X1, X2, X3, X4]).  
3 X1 = X1{[1, 2]}  
4 X2 = X2{[1, 2]}  
5 X3 = X3{[3, 4]}  
6 X4 = X4{[3, 4]}  
7 There are 2 delayed goals.  
8 Yes
```

Trade-off: longer propagation time for `ic_global` version

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N-Queens

Place N queens on an $N \times N$ chessboard so that no queen attacks another. A queen attacks all cells in horizontal, vertical and diagonal direction.

- certain solutions for all sizes can be constructed
- not a hard problem
- long history in AI and CP papers

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N-Queens problem: Column based Model



- A $1..N$ variable for each column, stating position of queen in the column
- ...because exactly one queen needed for each column
- N variables $\Rightarrow N^2/2$ binary constraints

assign $[X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N]$ so that:

$$\forall 1 \leq i \leq N: X_i \in 1..N$$

$$\forall 1 \leq i < j \leq N: X_i \neq X_j$$

$$\forall 1 \leq i < j \leq N: X_i \neq X_j + i - j$$

$$\forall 1 \leq i < j \leq N: X_i \neq X_j + j - i$$

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One possible *ECLⁱPS^e* -program is:

```
1 :-module(nqueen).
2 :-export(top/0).
3 :-lib(ic).
4 top:-
5     nqueen(8,L), writeln(L).
6 nqueen(N,L):-
7     length(L,N),
8     L :: 1..N,
9     alldifferent(L),
10    noattack(L),
11    labeling(L).
```

(see: <http://4c.ucc.ie/~hsimonis/ELearning/nqueen/slides.pdf>)

- noattack/2 defines binary constraints

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Definition of noattack/2:

```
1 noattack([ ]).
2 noattack([H|T]):-
3     noattack1(H,T,1),
4     noattack(T).
5 noattack1(_,[],_).
6 noattack1(X,[Y|R],N):-
7     X #\= Y+N,
8     Y #\= X+N,
9     N1 is N+1,
10    noattack1(X,R,N1).
```

see: <http://4c.ucc.ie/~hsimonis/ELearning/nqueen/slides.pdf>

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The search predicate:

```
1 [...]
2 top:-
3     nqueen(8,L), writeln(L).
4 nqueen(N,L):-
5     length(L,N),
6     L :: 1..N,
7     alldifferent(L),
8     noattack(L),
9     labeling(L). % <-- change this line
```

- last line can be changed to:

```
1 search(L,0,first_fail,indomain,complete,[])
```

- packaged search library in ic constraint solver
- provides many alternative search methods
- just select the right keywords as arguments

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`search(+L, ++Arg, ++Select, +Choice, ++Method, +Option):`

- 1 L: List / collection of terms / domain variables
- 2 Arg: 0 if list L is list of domain variables, greater than 0 if L consists of terms with arity at least Arg
- 3 Select: name of variable selection method (`input_order`, `first_fail`, `smallest`, `largest`, ...)
- 4 Choice: name of value choice method (`indomain`, `indomain_min`, `indomain_max`, `indomain_middle`, ...)
- 5 Method: tree search method (`complete`, `bbs(Steps:integer)`, `lds(Disc:integer)`, ...)
- 6 Option: list of option terms

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With `first_fail` strategy:

```
1 search(L,0,first_fail,indomain,complete,[])
```

- solution is different from naive `input_order` approach
- more solutions can be found

Further improvements:

- start from the middle of the board
- use `most_constraint` instead of `first_fail` (tie break based on number of constraints in which variable occurs)
- try **multiple strategies** in parallel (multi-core CPUs)
- limit number of backtracks for search attempt and use randomization (of value and/or variable choice)
- ...

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ECL'PS^e :

- interfaces with many programming languages
- provides a stand-alone and a command line user interface
- consists of a collection of libraries
- is intended for problem solving in a declarative fashion enabling rapid prototyping based on the CLP paradigm

Last but not least:

- It is actively developed,
- but already mature enough,
- and very well documented.

We only scratched its surface here.

Check out <http://eclipseclp.org/>, next...

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 **Sergii Dymchenko & Mariia Mykhailova.**
Declaratively solving tricky Google Code Jam problems with
Prolog-based ECLiPSe CLP system.
<http://arxiv.org/abs/1412.2304>

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 **Andrew M. Cheadle, Warwick Harvey, Andrew J. Sadler, Joachim Schimpf, Kish Shen, Mark G. Wallace.**
ECLiPSe: A Tutorial Introduction.
<http://eclipseclp.org/doc/tutorial/tutorial.html>

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 **Abderrahamane Aggoun et al.**
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<http://eclipseclp.org/doc/userman/umsroot.html>

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 **Helmut Simonis.**
ECLiPSe ELearning Website
<http://4c.ucc.ie/~hsimonis/ELearning/index.htm>

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