Generating Random Logic Programs Using Constraint Programming

Paulius Dilkas $^{[0000-1111-2222-3333]}$

University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, United Kingdom p.dilkas@sms.ed.ac.uk

Abstract. The abstract should briefly summarize the contents of the paper in 150-250 words.

Keywords: Constraint Programming \cdot Logic Programming \cdot Probabilistic Logic Programming.

1 Introduction

Motivation:

- Generating random programs that generate random data.
- Learning: how this can be used for (targeted) learning, when (atomic) probabilities can be assigned based on counting and we can have extra constraints.
 A more primitive angle: generate structures, learn weights.

TODO: define all the relevant terminology from logic and constraint programming.

If a predicate has arity n and it is as of yet undecided what n terms will fill those spots, we will say that the predicate has n gaps. We say that a constraint variable is (fully) determined if its domain (at the given moment in the execution) has exactly one value.

A (logic) program is a multiset of clauses. Given a program \mathscr{P} , a subprogram \mathscr{R} of \mathscr{P} is a subset of the clauses of \mathscr{P} and is denoted by $\mathscr{R} \subseteq \mathscr{P}$.

We will often use \square as a special domain value indicating a 'disabled' (i.e., fixed and ignored) part of the model. We write $\mathtt{a}[b] \in c$ to mean that \mathtt{a} is an array of variables of length b such that each element of \mathtt{a} has domain c. Similarly, we write $\mathtt{c}[b]$ a to denote an array \mathtt{a} of length b such that each element of \mathtt{a} has type \mathtt{c} . All constraint variables in the model are integer variables, but, e.g., if the integer i refers to a logical variable X, we will use i and X interchangeably. All indices start at zero.

We also use Choco 4.10.2 [3]. This works with both Prolog [1] and ProbLog [4]. Tested with SWI-Prolog [5].

1.1 Parameters

Parameters:

- a list of predicates P,
- a list of their arities \mathcal{A} (including zero, but assuming that at least one predicate has non-zero arity),
 - maximum arity $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{A}} := \max \mathcal{A}$.
- a list of variables \mathcal{V} ,
- and a list of constants \mathcal{C} .
 - Each of them can be empty, but $|\mathcal{C}| + |\mathcal{V}| > 0$.
- a list of probabilities that are randomly assigned to clauses,
- option to forbid all cycles or just negative cycles,
- $-\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{N}} \geq 1$: maximum number of nodes in the tree representation of a clause,
- $-\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{C}} \geq |\mathcal{P}|$: maximum number of clauses in a program,
- maximum number of solutions,

We also define $\mathcal{T} = \{\neg, \land, \lor, \top\}$. All decision variables of the model are contained in two arrays:

- Body $[\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{C}}]$ bodiesOfClauses,
- Head[$\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{C}}$] headsOfClauses

2 Heads of Clauses

Definition 1. The head of a clause is composed of:

- -a predicate $\in \mathcal{P} \cup \{\Box\}$.
- and $arguments[\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{A}}] \in \mathcal{C} \cup \mathcal{V} \cup \{\Box\}$

The reason why \square must be a separate value will become clear in Section 4.

Definition 2. The predicate's arity $\in [0, \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{A}}]$ can then be defined using the table constraint as

$$ext{arity} = egin{cases} the \ arity \ of \ ext{predicate} & if \ ext{predicate} \in \mathcal{P} \ 0 & otherwise. \end{cases}$$

Constraint 1 For $i = 0, ..., \mathcal{M}_{A} - 1$,

$$arguments[i] = \square \iff i \ge arity.$$

3 Bodies of Clauses

Definition 3. The body of a clause is defined by:

- treeStructure $[\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{N}}] \in [0, \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{N}} 1]$ such that:
 - treeStructure[i] = i: the i-th node is a root.
 - treeStructure[i] = j: the i-th node's parent is node j.
- Node $[\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{N}}]$ treeValues.

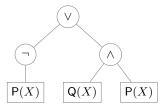


Fig. 1. A tree representation of the formula from Example 1

Example 1. Let $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{N}} = 8$. Then $\neg \mathsf{P}(X) \lor (\mathsf{Q}(X) \land \mathsf{P}(X))$ corresponds to the tree in Fig. 1 and can be encoded as:

$$\begin{split} \text{treeStructure} &= [0,0,0,\quad 1,\quad 2,\quad 2,\quad 6,7],\\ \text{treeValues} &= [\vee,\neg,\wedge,\mathsf{P}(X),\mathsf{Q}(X),\mathsf{P}(X),\top,\top],\\ \text{numNodes} &= 6,\\ \text{numTrees} &= 3. \end{split}$$

In the rest of this section, we will describe how the elements of treeValues are encoded and list a series of constraints that make this representation unique.

3.1 Nodes

Definition 4. A node has a name $\in \mathcal{T} \cup \mathcal{P}$ and arguments $[\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{A}}] \in \mathcal{V} \cup \mathcal{C} \cup \{\Box\}$. The node's arity can then be defined analogously to Definition 2.

We can use Constraint 1 again to disable extra arguments.

Example 2. Let $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{A}} = 2$, $\mathcal{P} = [\mathsf{P}, \dots]$, $\mathcal{A} = [1, \dots]$, and $X \in \mathcal{V}$. Then the node representing atom $\mathsf{P}(X)$ has:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathtt{name} &= \mathsf{P}, \\ \mathtt{arguments} &= [X, \square], \\ \mathtt{arity} &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

3.2 Constraints

Definition 5. We define numTrees $\in \{1, \dots, \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{N}}\}$ to count the number of trees in our representation of a clause using the tree(treeStructure, numTrees)¹ constraint.

Definition 6. For convenience, we also define numNodes $\in \{1, ..., \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{N}}\}$ to count the number of nodes in the main tree. We define it as

$$numNodes = \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{N}} - numTrees + 1.$$

¹ This constraint uses dominator-based filtering by Fages and Lorca [2].

Constraint 2 treeStructure[0] = 0.

Constraint 3 treeStructure is sorted.

Constraint 4 For $i = 0, ..., \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{N}} - 1$, if numNodes $\leq i$, then

$$\texttt{treeStructure}[i] = i \quad and \quad \texttt{treeValues}[i]. \texttt{name} = \top,$$

else

treeStructure[i] < numNodes.

Constraint 5 For $i = 0, ..., \mathcal{M}_{N} - 1$,

```
\begin{aligned} & \operatorname{count}(i, \operatorname{treeStructure}_{-i}) = 0 \iff \operatorname{treeValues}[i].\operatorname{name} \in \mathcal{P} \cup \{\top\}, \\ & \operatorname{count}(i, \operatorname{treeStructure}_{-i}) = 1 \iff \operatorname{treeValues}[i].\operatorname{name} = \neg, \\ & \operatorname{count}(i, \operatorname{treeStructure}_{-i}) > 1 \iff \operatorname{treeValues}[i].\operatorname{name} \in \{\land, \lor\}, \end{aligned}
```

where $treeStructure_{-i}$ denotes array treeStructure with position i skipped.

Each constraint corresponds to node i having no children, one child, and multiple children, respectively.

Constraint 6 For $i = 0, ..., \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{N}} - 1$,

 $treeStructure[i] \neq i \implies treeValues[i].name \neq \top.$

Constraint 7 For $i=0,\ldots,\mathcal{M_C}-1,\ if\ \mathtt{headsOfClauses}[i].\mathtt{predicate}=\square,\ then$

$$bodiesOfClauses[i].numNodes = 1,$$

and

bodiesOfClauses[i].treeValues[0].name = \top .

4 Eliminating Variable Symmetries

Given any clause, we can permute the variables in it without changing the meaning of the clause or the entire program. Thus, we want to fix the order of variables to eliminate unnecessary symmetries. Informally, we can say that variable X goes before variable Y if its first occurrence in either the head or the body of the clause is before the first occurrence of Y. Note that the constrains described in this section only make sense if $|\mathcal{V}| > 1$. Also note that all definitions and constraints here are on a per-clause basis.

Definition 7. Let $N = \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{A}} \times (\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{N}} + 1)$. Let $terms[N] \in \mathcal{C} \cup \mathcal{V} \cup \{\Box\}$ be a flattened array of all gaps in a particular clause.

Then we can use the setsIntsChanneling constraint to define occurrences[$|\mathcal{C}|+|\mathcal{V}|+1$] as an array of subsets of $\{0,\ldots,N-1\}$ such that for all $i=0,\ldots,N-1$, and $t\in\mathcal{C}\cup\mathcal{V}\cup\{\Box\}$,

$$i \in \mathtt{occurrences}[t] \iff \mathtt{terms}[i] = t$$

Definition 8. We define introductions $[|\mathcal{V}|] \in \{0, ..., N\}$ such that for $v \in \mathcal{V}$,

$$\mathtt{introductions}[v] = \begin{cases} 1 + \min \mathtt{occurrences}[v] & \textit{if} \ \mathtt{occurrences}[v] \neq \emptyset \\ 0 & \textit{otherwise}. \end{cases}$$

Constraint 8 introductions are sorted.

Example 3. Let $\mathcal{C} = \emptyset$, $\mathcal{V} = \{X, Y, Z\}$, $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{A}} = 2$, $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{N}} = 3$, and consider the clause

$$\mathsf{sibling}(X,Y) \leftarrow \mathsf{parent}(X,Z) \land \mathsf{parent}(Y,Z).$$

Then $terms = [X, Y, \square, \square, X, Z, Y, Z]$ (the boxes represent the conjunction node), occurrences = $[\{0, 4\}, \{1, 6\}, \{5, 7\}, \{2, 3\}]$, and introductions = [0, 1, 5].

4.1 Redundant Constraints

Constraint 9 For $u \neq v \in \mathcal{C} \cup \mathcal{V} \cup \{\Box\}$,

$$occurrences[u] \cap occurrences[v] = \emptyset.$$

Constraint 10 allDifferentExcept0(introductions).

Constraint 11 For $v \in \mathcal{V}$,

$$introductions[v] \neq 0 \implies introductions[v] - 1 \in occurrences[v].$$

Definition 9. We define an auxiliary set variable

potentialIntroductions
$$\subseteq \{0, \dots, N\}$$

by: for
$$i = 0, ..., \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{N}} - 1$$
, if treeValues[i].name $\in \mathcal{T}$, then

$$\texttt{potentialIntroductions} \cap \{\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{A}} \times (i+1) + j + 1 \mid j = 0, \dots, \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{A}} - 1\} = \emptyset.$$

In other words, if the node not a predicate, a variable cannot be introduced as one of its 'arguments'.

Constraint 12 For $v \in \mathcal{V}$, introductions $[v] \in \text{potentialIntroductions}$.

5 Interactions Between Clauses

Constraint 13 Each predicate gets at least one clause. Let

$$P = \{h.\mathtt{predicate} \mid h \in \mathtt{headsOfClauses}\}.$$

Then

$$\mathtt{nValues}(P) = \begin{cases} \mathtt{numPredicates} + 1 & \textit{if} \ \mathtt{count}(\square, P) > 0 \\ \mathtt{numPredicates} & \textit{otherwise}. \end{cases}$$

Here, nValues(P) counts the number of unique values in P.

Constraint 14 Clauses are sorted.

6 Counting Programs

In order to demonstrate the correctness of the model and explain it in more detail, in this section we are going to derive combinatorial expressions for counting the number of programs with up to $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{C}}$ clauses and up to $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{N}}$ nodes per clause, and arbitrary \mathcal{P} , \mathcal{A} , \mathcal{V} , and \mathcal{C} . To simplify the task, we only consider clauses without probabilities and disable (negative) cycle elimination. It was experimentally confirmed that the model agrees with the combinatorial formula from this section in 985 different scenarios. The total arity of a body of a clause is the sum total of arities of all predicates in the body.

We will first consider clauses with gaps, i.e., without taking variables and constants into account. Let T(n,a) denote the number of possible clause bodies with n nodes and total arity a. Then T(1,a) is the number of predicates in \mathcal{P} with arity a, and the following recursive definition can be applied for n > 1:

$$T(n,a) = T(n-1,a) + 2 \sum_{\substack{c_1 + \dots + c_k = n-1, \\ 2 \le k \le \frac{a}{\min{\mathcal{A}}, \\ c_i \ge 1 \text{ for all } i}} \sum_{\substack{d_1 + \dots + d_k = a, \\ d_i \ge \min{\mathcal{A}} \text{ for all } i}} \prod_{i=1}^k T(c_i, d_i).$$

The first term here represents negation, i.e., negating an expression consumes one node but otherwise leaves the task unchanged. If the first operation is not negation, then it must be either conjunction or disjunction (hence the coefficient '2'). In the first sum, k represents the number of children of the root node, and each c_i is the number of nodes dedicated to child i. Thus, the first sum iterates over all possible ways to partition the remaining n-1 nodes. Similarly, the second sum considers every possible way to partition the total arity a across the k children nodes.

We can then count the number of possible clause bodies with total arity a (and any number of nodes) as

$$C(a) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a = 0\\ \sum_{n=1}^{\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{N}}} T(n, a) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Here, the empty clause is considered separately.

The number of ways to fill n gaps with terms can be expressed as

$$P(n) = |\mathcal{C}|^n + \sum_{\substack{1 \le k \le |\mathcal{V}|, \\ 0 = s_0 < s_1 < \dots < s_k < s_{k+1} = n+1}} \prod_{i=0}^k (|\mathcal{C}| + i)^{s_{i+1} - s_i - 1}.$$

The first term is simply the number of ways to fill all n gaps with constants. The parameter k is the number of variables used in the clause, and s_1, \ldots, s_k mark the first occurrence of each variable. For each gap between any two introductions (or before the first introduction, or after the last introduction), we have $s_{i+1} - s_i - 1$ spaces to be filled with any of the \mathcal{C} constants or any of the i already-introduced variables.

Let us order the elements of \mathcal{P} , and let a_i be the arity of the *i*-th predicate. The number of programs is then:

$$\sum_{\substack{\sum_{i=1}^{|\mathcal{P}|} h_i = n, \\ |\mathcal{P}| \leq n \leq \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{C}}, \\ h_i > 1 \text{ for all } i}} \prod_{i=1}^{|\mathcal{P}|} \left(\left(\sum_{a=0}^{\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{A}} \times \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{N}}} C(a) P(a+a_i) \right) \right),$$

where

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n+k-1}{k}$$

counts the number of ways to select k out of n items with repetition (and without ordering). Here, we sum over all possible ways to distribute $|\mathcal{P}| \leq n \leq \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{C}}$ clauses among $|\mathcal{P}|$ predicates so that each predicate gets at least one clause. For each predicate, we can then count the number of ways to select its clauses out of all possible clauses. The number of possible clauses can be computed by considering each possible arity a, and multiplying the number of 'unfinished' clauses C(a) by the number of ways to fill the $a+a_i$ gaps in the body and the head of the clause with terms.

7 Predicate Independence

In this section, we define a notion of predicate independence as a way to constrain the probability distributions defined by the generated programs. We also describe efficient algorithms for propagation and entailment checking.

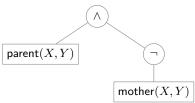
Definition 10. Let \mathscr{P} be a probabilistic logic program. Its predicate dependency graph is a directed graph $G_{\mathscr{P}} = (V, E)$ with the set of nodes V consisting of all predicates in \mathscr{P} . For any two different predicates P and Q, we add an edge from P to Q if there is a clause in \mathscr{P} with Q as the head and P mentioned in the body. We say that the edge is negative if there exists a clause with Q as the head and at least one instance of P at the body such that the path from the root to the P node in the tree representation of the clause passes through at least one negation node. Otherwise it is positive. We say that \mathscr{P} (or $G_{\mathscr{P}}$) has a negative cycle if $G_{\mathscr{P}}$ has a cycle with at least one negative edge.

Definition 11. Let P be a predicate in a program \mathscr{P} . The dependencies of P is the smallest set D_P such that:

- $-P \in D_{P}$,
- for every $Q \in D_P$, the nodes with arrows to Q in $G_{\mathscr{P}}$ are all in D_P .

Definition 12. Two predicates P and Q are independent if $D_P \cap D_Q = \emptyset$.

of Clause (1).



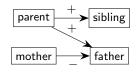


Fig. 3. The predicate dependency graph of the program in Example 4. Positive edges Fig. 2. The tree representation of the body are labeled with '+', and negative edges with '-'.

Example 4. Consider the following program:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{sibling}(X,Y) &\leftarrow \mathsf{parent}(X,Z) \land \mathsf{parent}(Y,Z), \\ \mathsf{father}(X,Y) &\leftarrow \mathsf{parent}(X,Y) \land \neg \mathsf{mother}(X,Y). \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Its predicate dependency graph is in Fig. 3. Because of the negation in Eq. (1) (as seen in Fig. 2), the edge from mother to father is negative, while the other two edges are positive.

We can now list the dependencies of each predicate:

$$\begin{split} D_{\mathsf{parent}} &= \{\mathsf{parent}\}, \quad D_{\mathsf{sibling}} = \{\mathsf{sibling}, \mathsf{parent}\}, \\ D_{\mathsf{mother}} &= \{\mathsf{mother}\}, \quad D_{\mathsf{father}} &= \{\mathsf{father}, \mathsf{mother}, \mathsf{parent}\}. \end{split}$$

Hence, we have two pairs of independent predicates, i.e., mother is independent from parent and sibling.

Definition 13 (Adjacency matrix representation). $An |\mathcal{P}| \times |\mathcal{P}|$ adjacency matrix **A** with $\{0,1\}$ as its domain is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}[i][j] = 0 &\iff \nexists k \in \{0,\dots,\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{C}}\} : \mathtt{headsOfClauses}[k].\mathtt{predicate} = j \ and \\ i \in \{a.\mathtt{name} \mid a \in \mathtt{bodiesOfClauses}[k].\mathtt{treeValues}\}. \end{aligned}$$

We define a dependency as an algebraic data type that is either determined (in which case it holds only the index of the predicate) or undetermined (in which case it also holds the indices of the source and target vertices, corresponding to the edge responsible for making the dependency undetermined (exactly one, otherwise we don't consider the edge)).

Propagation for independence:

- Look up the dependencies of both predicates. For each pair of matching dependencies:
 - If both are determined, fail.
 - If one is determined, the selected edge of the other must not exist.

 $\langle dependency \rangle ::= Determined p \mid Undetermined p \mid Almost Determined (p, s, t)$

Algorithm 1: Propagation algorithm for predicate independence

```
Data: predicates p_1, p_2; adjacency matrix \mathbf{A} for (d_1,d_2) \in \mathtt{getDependencies}(p_1,\mathtt{false}) \times \mathtt{getDependencies}(p_2,\mathtt{false}) such that d_1.predicate = d_2.predicate do

if d_1 is Determined and d_2 is Determined then fail();

if d_1 is Determined and d_2 is AlmostDetermined(_, s, t) or

d_2 is Determined and d_1 is AlmostDetermined(_, s, t) then

\mathbf{A}[s][t].removeValue(1);
```

Algorithm 2: Entailment check for predicate independence

```
Data: predicates p_1, p_2
D \leftarrow \{(d_1, d_2) \in \text{getDependencies}(p_1, \text{true}) \times \text{getDependencies}(p_2, \text{true}) \mid d_1.\text{predicate} = d_2.\text{predicate}\};
if D = \emptyset then return TRUE;
if \exists (\text{Determined }\_, \text{Determined }\_) \in D then return FALSE;
return UNDEFINED;
```

Algorithm 3: Computing the dependencies of a predicate

```
Data: a |\mathcal{P}| \times |\mathcal{P}| adjacency matrix A with \{0,1\} as the domain
Function getDependencies (p, allDependencies):
     D \leftarrow \{ \text{Determined } p \};
     while true do
         D' \leftarrow \emptyset;
         for d \in D and q \in \mathcal{P} do
              edgeExists \leftarrow A[q][d.predicate] = \{1\};
              if edgeExists and d is Determined then
                   D' \leftarrow D' \cup \{ \text{Determined } q \}
               else if edgeExists and d is AlmostDetermined(,s,t) then
                   D' \leftarrow D' \cup \{\text{AlmostDetermined}(q, s, t)\};
              else if |\mathbf{A}[q][d].predicate] |\mathbf{A}[q]| = 1 and d is Determined r then
                   D' \leftarrow D' \cup \{\text{AlmostDetermined}(q, q, r)\};
               else if |\mathbf{A}[q][d].predicate] > 1 and allDependencies then
                   D' \leftarrow D' \cup \{\text{Undetermined } q\};
         if D' = D then return D;
         D \leftarrow D';
```

father mother
$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & \{0, 1\} & \{0, 1\} & \{0, 1\} \\ \text{sibling} & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

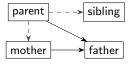


Fig. 5. The predicate dependency graph that corresponds to Fig. 4. Dashed edges are undetermined—they may or may not exist

Fig. 4. The adjacency matrix defined using Definition 13 for Example 5

where $p, s, t \in \mathcal{P}$. For a dependency d—regardless of its exact type—we will refer to its predicate p as d-predicate.

Example 5. Consider this partially determined (fragment of a) program:

$$\square(X,Y) \leftarrow \mathsf{parent}(X,Z) \land \mathsf{parent}(Y,Z),$$
$$\mathsf{father}(X,Y) \leftarrow \mathsf{parent}(X,Y) \land \neg \mathsf{mother}(X,Y)$$

where \square indicates an unknown predicate with domain

$$D = \{father, mother, parent, sibling\}.$$

The predicate dependency graph (without positivity/negativity) defined by Definition 13 is represented in Figs. 4 and 5.

Suppose we have a constraint that mother and parent must be independent. The lists of potential dependencies for both predicates are:

$$D_{\mathsf{mother}} = \{ \text{Determined mother}, \text{AlmostDetermined(parent, parent, mother)} \},$$

$$D_{\mathsf{parent}} = \{ \text{Determined parent} \}.$$

An entailment check at this stage would produce UNDEFINED, but propagation replaces the boxed value in Fig. 4 with zero, eliminating the potential edge from parent to mother. This also eliminates mother from D, and, although some undetermined variables remain, this is enough to make Algorithm 2 return TRUE.

8 Entailment Checking for Negative/All Cycles

9 Experimental Results

10 Conclusion & Future Work

 A constraint for logical equivalence. An algorithm to reduce each tree to some kind of normal form. Not doing this on purpose. Leaving for further work.

² Due to the definition of independence, the arguments of the head atom need not be determined.

Algorithm 4: Entailment check for negative cycles

Data: a constraint model for a logic program \mathscr{P} amid execution

Let $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \mathcal{P}$ be the largest subprogram of \mathcal{P} with all bodies and all predicates in heads fully determined²;

if $\mathcal{R} = \emptyset$ then return UNDEFINED;

if hasNegativeCycles $(G_{\mathcal{R}})$ then return FALSE;

if $\mathscr{R} = \mathscr{P}$ then return TRUE;

return UNDEFINED;

- Perhaps negative cycle detection could use the same graph as the independence propagator? If we extend each domain to -1, 0, 1, but that might make propagation weaker or slower.
- Could investigate how uniform the generated distribution of programs is.
 Distributions of individual parameters will often favour larger values because,
 e.g., there are more 5-tuples than 4-tuples.
- Inference options to explore. Logspace vs normal space. Symbolic vs non-symbolic. Propagate evidence (might be irrelevant)? Propagate weights?
 Supported knowledge compilation techniques: sdd, sddx, bdd, nnf, ddnnf, kbest, fsdd, fbdd.
- Mention the random heuristic. Mention that restarting gives better randomness, but duplicates become possible. Restarting after each run is expensive.
 Periodic restarts could be an option.
- Could add statistics about what constraints tend to conflict.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the EPSRC Centre for Doctoral Training in Robotics and Autonomous Systems, funded by the UK Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council (grant EP/S023208/1).

References

- Bratko, I.: Prolog Programming for Artificial Intelligence, 4th Edition. Addison-Wesley (2012)
- Fages, J., Lorca, X.: Revisiting the tree constraint. In: Lee, J.H. (ed.) Principles and Practice of Constraint Programming - CP 2011 - 17th International Conference, CP 2011, Perugia, Italy, September 12-16, 2011. Proceedings. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 6876, pp. 271–285. Springer (2011). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-23786-7_22
- Prud'homme, C., Fages, J.G., Lorca, X.: Choco Documentation. TASC LS2N CNRS UMR 6241, COSLING S.A.S. (2017), http://www.choco-solver.org
- 4. Raedt, L.D., Kimmig, A., Toivonen, H.: ProbLog: A probabilistic Prolog and its application in link discovery. In: Veloso, M.M. (ed.) IJCAI 2007, Proceedings of the 20th International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence, Hyderabad, India, January 6-12, 2007. pp. 2462–2467 (2007), http://ijcai.org/Proceedings/07/Papers/396.pdf

12 P. Dilkas

5. Wielemaker, J., Schrijvers, T., Triska, M., Lager, T.: SWI-Prolog. TPLP $\bf 12$ (1-2), 67–96 (2012). https://doi.org/10.1017/S1471068411000494