

# Value withdrawal explanations: a theoretical tool for programming environments

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**Abstract.** Constraint logic programming combines declarativity and efficiency thanks to constraint solvers implemented for specific domains. Value withdrawal explanations have been efficiently used in several constraints programming environments but there does not exist any formalization of them. This paper is an attempt to fill this lack. Furthermore, we hope that this theoretical tool could help to validate some programming environments. A value withdrawal explanation is a tree describing the withdrawal of a value during a domain reduction by local consistency notions and labeling. Domain reduction is formalized by a search tree using two kinds of operators: for local consistency notions and for labeling. These operators are defined by sets of rules. Proof trees are built with respect to these rules. For each removed value, there exists such a proof tree which is the withdrawal explanation of this value.

## 1 Introduction

Constraint logic programming is one of the most important computing paradigms of the last years. It combines declarativity and efficiency thanks to constraint solvers implemented for specific domains. The needs in programming environments is growing. But logic programming environments are not always sufficient to deal with the constraint side of constraint logic programming. Value withdrawal explanations have been efficiently used in several constraints programming environments but there does not exist any formalization of them. This paper is an attempt to fill this lack. This work is supported by the french RNTL<sup>1</sup> project OADymPPaC<sup>2</sup> whose aim is to provide constraint programming environments.

A value withdrawal explanation is a tree describing the withdrawal of a value during a domain reduction. This description is done in the framework of domain reduction of finite domains by notions of local consistency and labeling. A first work [7] dealt with explanations in the framework of domain reduction by local consistency notions only. A value withdrawal explanation contains the whole

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<sup>1</sup> Réseau National des Technologies Logicielles

<sup>2</sup> Outils pour l'Analyse Dynamique et la mise au Point de Programmes avec Contraintes <http://contraintes.inria.fr/OADymPPaC/>

information about a removal and may therefore be a useful tool for programming environments. Indeed it allows performing:

- failure analysis: a failure explanation being a set of value withdrawal explanations;
- constraint retraction: explanations provide the values which have been withdrawn directly or indirectly by the constraint and then allow to easily repair the domains;
- debugging: an explanation being a kind of declarative trace of a value withdrawal, it can be used to find an error from a symptom.

The first and second item have been implemented in the PaLM system [8]. PaLM is based on the constraint solver CHOCO [9] where labeling is replaced by the use of explanations. Note that the constraint retraction algorithm of PaLM has been proved correct thanks to our definition of explanations, and more generally a large family of constraint retraction algorithms are also included in this framework.

The main motivation of this work is not only to provide a common model for the partners of the OADymPPaC project but also to use explanations for the debugging of constraints programs. Nevertheless, the aim of this paper is not to describe the applications of value withdrawal explanations but to formally define this notion of explanation.

The definition of a Constraint Satisfaction Problem is given in the preliminary section. In third and fourth sections a theoretical framework for the computation of solutions is described in sections 3 and 4. A computation is viewed as a search tree where each branch is an iteration of operators. Finally, explanations are presented in the last section thanks to the definition of rules associated to these operators.

## 2 Preliminaries

Following [10], a *Constraint Satisfaction Problem* (CSP) is made of two parts: a syntactic part and a semantic part. The syntactic part is a finite set  $V$  of variables, a finite set  $C$  of constraints and a function  $\text{var} : C \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(V)$ , which associates a set of related variables to each constraint. Indeed, a constraint may involve only a subset of  $V$ .

For the semantic part, we need to introduce some preliminary concepts. We consider various *families*  $f = (f_i)_{i \in I}$ . Such a family is referred to by the *function*  $i \mapsto f_i$  or by the *set*  $\{(i, f_i) \mid i \in I\}$ .

Each variable is associated with a set of possible values. Therefore, we consider a family  $(D_x)_{x \in V}$  where each  $D_x$  is a *finite non empty set*.

We define the *domain* by  $\mathbb{D} = \bigcup_{x \in V} (\{x\} \times D_x)$ . This domain allows simple and uniform definitions of (local consistency) operators on a power-set. For domain reduction, we consider subsets  $d$  of  $\mathbb{D}$ . Such a subset is called an *environment*. We denote by  $d|_W$  the restriction of a set  $d \subseteq \mathbb{D}$  to a set of variables  $W \subseteq V$ , that is,  $d|_W = \{(x, e) \in d \mid x \in W\}$ . Any  $d \subseteq \mathbb{D}$  is actually a family

$(d_x)_{x \in V}$  with  $d_x \subseteq D_x$ : for  $x \in V$ , we define  $d_x = \{e \in D_x \mid (x, e) \in d\}$  and call it the *environment of  $x$* .

Constraints are defined by their set of allowed tuples. A *tuple*  $t$  on  $W \subseteq V$  is a particular environment such that each variable of  $W$  appears only once:  $t \subseteq \mathbb{D}|_W$  and  $\forall x \in W, \exists e \in D_x, t|_{\{x\}} = \{(x, e)\}$ . For each  $c \in C$ ,  $T_c$  is a set of tuples on  $\text{var}(c)$ , called the solutions of  $c$ .

We can now formally define a CSP.

**Definition 1.** A Constraint Satisfaction Problem (CSP) is defined by:

- a finite set  $V$  of variables;
- a finite set  $C$  of constraints;
- a function  $\text{var} : C \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(V)$ ;
- the family  $(D_x)_{x \in V}$  (the domains);
- a family  $(T_c)_{c \in C}$  (the constraints semantics).

Note that a tuple  $t \in T_c$  is equivalent to the family  $(e_x)_{x \in \text{var}(c)}$  and that  $t$  is identified with  $\{(x, e_x) \mid x \in \text{var}(c)\}$ .

A user is interested in particular tuples (on  $V$ ) which associate a value to each variable, such that all the constraints are satisfied.

**Definition 2.** A tuple  $t$  on  $V$  is a solution of the CSP if  $\forall c \in C, t|_{\text{var}(c)} \in T_c$ .

*Example 1.* Conference problem

Mike, Peter and Alan want to give a talk about their work to each other during three half-days. Peter knows Alan's work and vice versa. There are four talks (and so four variables): Mike to Peter (MP), Peter to Mike (PM), Mike to Alan (MA) and Alan to Mike (AM). Note that Mike can not listen to Alan and Peter simultaneously ( $AM \neq PM$ ). Mike wants to know the works of Peter and Alan before talking ( $MA > AM, MA > PM, MP > AM, MP > PM$ ).

This can be written in GNU-PROLOG [4] (with a labeling on PM) by:

```
conf(AM,MP,PM,MA):-
    fd_domain([MP,PM,MA,AM],1,3),
    MA #> AM,
    MA #> PM,
    MP #> AM,
    MP #> PM,
    AM #\= PM,
    fd_labeling(PM).
```

The values 1, 2, 3 corresponds to the first, second and third half-days. Note that the labeling on  $PM$  is sufficient to obtain the solutions. Without this labeling, the solver provides reduced domains only (no solution).

This example will be continued throughout the paper. □

The aim of a solver is to provide one (or more) solutions. In order to obtain them, two methods are interleaved: domain reduction thanks to local consistency

notions and labeling. The first one is correct with respect to the solutions, that is it only removes values which cannot belong to any solution, whereas the second one is used to restrict the search space. Note that to do a labeling amounts to cutting a problem in several sub-problems.

In the next section, we do not consider the whole labeling (that is the passage from a problem to a set of sub-problems) but only the passage from a problem to one of its sub-problems. The whole labeling will be considered in section 4 with the well-known notion of search tree.

### 3 Domain reduction mechanism

In practice, operators are associated with the constraints and are applied with respect to a propagation queue. This method is interleaved with some restriction (due to labeling). In this section, this computation of a reduced environment is formalized thanks to a chaotic iteration of operators. The reduction operators can be of two types: operators associated with a constraint and a notion of local consistency, and operators associated with a restriction. The resulting environment is described in terms of closure ensuring confluence.

Domain reduction with respect to notions of consistency can be expressed in terms of operators. Such an operator computes a set of consistent values for a set of variables  $W_{out}$  according to the environments of another set of variables  $W_{in}$ .

**Definition 3.** A local consistency operator of type  $(W_{in}, W_{out})$ , with  $W_{in}, W_{out} \subseteq V$  is a monotonic function  $f : \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{D}) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{D})$  such that:  $\forall d \subseteq \mathbb{D}$ ,

- $f(d)|_{V \setminus W_{out}} = \mathbb{D}|_{V \setminus W_{out}}$ ,
- $f(d) = f(d|_{W_{in}})$

Note that the first item ensures that the operator is only concerned by the variables  $W_{out}$ . The second one ensures that this result only depends on the variable  $W_{in}$ .

These operators are associated with constraints of the CSP. So each operator must not remove solutions of its associated constraint (and of course of the CSP). These notions of correction are detailed in [6].

*Example 2.* In GNU-PROLOG, two local consistency operators are associated with the constraint **MA #> PM**: the operator which reduces the domain of MA with respect to PM and the one which reduces the domain of PM with respect to MA.  $\square$

From now on, we denote by  $L$  a set of local consistency operators (the set of local consistency operators associated with the constraints of the CSP).

Domain reduction by notions of consistency alone is not always sufficient. The resulting environment is an approximation of the solutions (that is all the solutions are included in this environment). This environment must be restricted

(for example, by the choice of a value for a variable). Of course, such a restriction (formalized by the application of a restriction operator) does not have the properties of correctness of a local consistency operator: the application of such an operator may remove solutions. But, in the next section, these operators will be considered as a set (corresponding to the whole labeling on a variable). Intuitively, if we consider a labeling search tree, this section deals with only one branch of this tree.

In the same way local consistency operators have been defined, restriction operators are now introduced.

**Definition 4.** A restriction operator on  $x \in V$  is a constant function  $f : \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{D}) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{D})$  such that:  $\forall d \subseteq \mathbb{D}, f(d)|_{V \setminus \{x\}} = \mathbb{D}|_{V \setminus \{x\}}$ .

*Example 3.* The function  $f$  such that  $\forall d \in \mathbb{D}, f(d) = \mathbb{D}|_{V \setminus \{PM\}} \cup \{(PM, 1)\}$  is a restriction operator.  $\square$

From now on we denote by  $R$  a set of restriction operators.

These two kind of operators are successively applied to the environment. The environment is replaced by its intersection with the result of the application of the operator. We denote by  $F$  the set of operators  $L \cup R$ .

**Definition 5.** The reduction operator associated with the operator  $f \in F$  is the monotonic and contracting function  $d \mapsto d \cap f(d)$ .

A common fix-point of the reduction operators associated with  $F$  starting from an environment  $d$  is an environment  $d' \subseteq d$  such that  $\forall f \in F, d' = d' \cap f(d')$ , that is  $\forall f \in F, d' \subseteq f(d')$ . The greatest common fix-point is this greatest environment  $d$ . To be more precise:

**Definition 6.** The downward closure of  $d$  by  $F$  is  $\max\{d' \subseteq \mathbb{D} \mid d' \subseteq d \wedge \forall f \in F, d' \subseteq f(d')\}$  and is denoted by  $CL \downarrow (d, F)$ .

Note that  $CL \downarrow (d, \emptyset) = d$  and  $CL \downarrow (d, F) \subseteq CL \downarrow (d, F')$  if  $F' \subseteq F$ .

In practice, the order of application of these operators is determined by a propagation queue. It is implemented to ensure to never forget any operator and to always reach the closure  $CL \downarrow (d, F)$ . From a theoretical point of view, this closure can also be computed by *chaotic iterations* introduced for this aim in [5]. The following definition is taken from Apt [2].

**Definition 7.** A run is an infinite sequence of operators of  $F$ , that is, a run associates with each  $i \in \mathbb{N}$  ( $i \geq 1$ ) an element of  $F$  denoted by  $f^i$ . A run is fair if each  $f \in F$  appears in it infinitely often, that is,  $\forall f \in F, \{i \mid f = f^i\}$  is infinite.

The iteration of the set of operators  $F$  from the environment  $d \subseteq \mathbb{D}$  with respect to an infinite sequence of operators of  $F$ :  $f^1, f^2, \dots$  is the infinite sequence  $d^0, d^1, d^2, \dots$  inductively defined by:

1.  $d^0 = d$ ;

2. for each  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $d^{i+1} = d^i \cap f^{i+1}(d^i)$ .

Its limit is  $\bigcap_{i \in \mathbb{N}} d^i$ .

A chaotic iteration is an iteration with respect to a sequence of operators of  $F$  (with respect to  $F$ , in short) where each  $f \in F$  appears infinitely often.

Note that an iteration may start from a domain  $d$  which can be different from  $\mathbb{D}$ . This is more general and convenient for a lot of applications (dynamic aspects of constraint programming, for example).

The next well-known result of confluence [3, 5] ensures that any chaotic iteration reaches the closure. Note that, since  $\subseteq$  is a well-founded ordering (i.e.  $\mathbb{D}$  is a finite set), every iteration from  $d \subseteq \mathbb{D}$  is stationary, that is,  $\exists i \in \mathbb{N}, \forall j \geq i, d^j = d^i$ .

**Lemma 1.** *The limit  $d^F$  of every chaotic iteration of a set of operators  $F$  from  $d \subseteq \mathbb{D}$  is the downward closure of  $d$  by  $F$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $d^0, d^1, d^2, \dots$  be a chaotic iteration of  $F$  from  $d$  with respect to  $f^1, f^2, \dots$ .

[ $CL \downarrow (d, F) \subseteq d^F$ ] For each  $i$ ,  $CL \downarrow (d, F) \subseteq d^i$ , by induction:  $CL \downarrow (d, F) \subseteq d^0 = d$ . Assume  $CL \downarrow (d, F) \subseteq d^i$ ,  $CL \downarrow (d, F) \subseteq f^{i+1}(CL \downarrow (d, F)) \subseteq f^{i+1}(d^i)$  by monotonicity. Thus,  $CL \downarrow (d, F) \subseteq d^i \cap f^{i+1}(d^i) = d^{i+1}$ .

[ $d^F \subseteq CL \downarrow (d, F)$ ] There exists  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $d^F = d^k$  because  $\subseteq$  is a well-founded ordering. The iteration is chaotic, hence  $d^k$  is a common fix-point of the set of operators associated with  $F$ , thus  $d^k \subseteq CL \downarrow (d, F)$  (the greatest common fix-point).

In order to obtain a closure, it is not necessary to have a chaotic iteration. Indeed, since restriction operators are constant functions, they can be apply only once.

**Lemma 2.**  $d^{L \cup R} = CL \downarrow (CL \downarrow (d, R), L)$

*Proof.*  $d^{L \cup R} = CL \downarrow (d, L \cup R)$  by lemma 1 and  $CL \downarrow (d, L \cup R) = CL \downarrow (CL \downarrow (d, R), L)$  because operators of  $R$  are constant functions.

As said above, we have considered in this section a computation in a single branch of a labeling search tree. This formalization is extended in the next section in order to take the whole search tree into account.

## 4 Search tree

A labeling on a variable can be viewed as the passage from a problem to a set of problems. The previous section has treated the passage from this problem to one of its sub-problems thanks to a restriction operator. In order to consider the whole set of possible values for the labeling on a variable, restriction operators on a same variable must be grouped together. The union of the environments of the variable (the variable concerned by the labeling) of each sub-problem obtained by the application of each of these operators must be a partition of the environment of the variable in the initial problem.

**Definition 8.** A set  $\{d_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$  is a partition of  $d$  on  $x$  if:

- $\forall i, 1 \leq i \leq n, d|_{V \setminus \{x\}} \subseteq d_i|_{V \setminus \{x\}},$
- $d|_{\{x\}} \subseteq \cup_{1 \leq i \leq n} d_i|_{\{x\}},$
- $\forall i, j, 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq n, i \neq j, d_i|_{\{x\}} \cap d_j|_{\{x\}} = \emptyset.$

In practice, environment reductions by local consistency operators and labeling are interleaved to be the most efficient.

A labeling on  $x \in V$  can be a complete enumeration (each environment of the partition is reduced to a singleton) or a splitting. Note that the partitions always verify:  $\forall i, 1 \leq i \leq n, d_i|_{\{x\}} \neq \emptyset.$

*Example 4.*  $\{\mathbb{D}|_{V \setminus \{PM\}} \cup \{(PM, 1)\}, \mathbb{D}|_{V \setminus \{PM\}} \cup \{(PM, 2)\}, \mathbb{D}|_{V \setminus \{PM\}} \cup \{(PM, 3)\}\}$  is a partition of  $\mathbb{D}.$   $\square$

Next lemma ensures that no solution is lost during a labeling step (each solution will remain in exactly one branch of the search tree defined later).

**Lemma 3.** If  $t \subseteq d$  is a solution of the CSP and  $\{d_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$  is a partition of  $d$  then  $t \subseteq \cup_{1 \leq i \leq n} CL \downarrow (d_i, L).$

*Proof.* straightforward.

Each node of a search tree can be characterized by a quadruple containing the environment  $d$  (which have been computed up to now), the depth  $p$  in the tree, the operator  $f$  (local consistency operator or restriction operator) connecting it with its father and the restricted environment  $e$ . The restricted environment is obtained from the initial environment when only the restricted operators are applied.

**Definition 9.** A search node is a quadruple  $(d, e, f, p)$  with  $d, e \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{D}), f \in F \cup \{\perp\}$  and  $p \in \mathbb{N}.$

The depth and the restricted environment allow to localize the node in the search tree.

There exists two kinds of transition in a search tree: those caused by a local consistency operator which ensure the passage to one only son and the transitions caused by a labeling which ensure the passage to some sons (as many as environments in the partition).

**Definition 10.** A search tree is a tree for which each node is a search step inductively defined by:

- $(\mathbb{D}, \mathbb{D}, \perp, 0)$  is the root of the tree,
- if  $(d, e, op, p)$  is a non leaf node then it has:
  - one son:  $(d \cap f(d), e, f, p + 1)$  with  $f \in L;$
  - $n$  sons:  $(d \cap f_i(d), e \cap f_i(d), f_i, p + 1)$  with  $\{f_i(d) \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$  a partition of  $d$  and  $f_i \in R.$

**Definition 11.** A search tree is said complete if each leaf  $(d, e, f, p)$  is such that:  $d = CL \downarrow (e, L).$

This section has formally described the computation of solvers in terms of search trees. Each branch is an iteration of operators.

## 5 Value withdrawal explanations

This section is devoted to value withdrawal explanations. These explanations are defined as trees which can be extracted from a computation. First, rules are associated with local consistency operators, restriction operators and the labeling process. Explanations are then defined from a system of such rules [1].

From now on we consider a fixed CSP and a fixed computation. The set of local consistency operators is denoted by  $L$  and the set of restriction operators by  $R$ . The labeling introduces a notion of context based on the restricted environments of the search node. The following notation is used:  $\Gamma \vdash h$  with  $\Gamma \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{D})$  and  $h \in \mathbb{D}$ .  $\Gamma$  is named a *context*.

Intuitively,  $\Gamma \vdash h$  means  $\forall e \in \Gamma, h \notin CL \downarrow (e, L \cup R)$ . A  $\Gamma$  is an union of restricted environments, that is each  $e \in \Gamma$  corresponds to a branch of the search tree. If an element  $h$  is removed in different branches of the search tree, then a context for  $h$  may contain all these branches.

### 5.1 Rules

The definition of explanations is based on three kinds of rules. These rules explain the removal of a value as the consequence of other value removals or as the consequence of a labeling.

First kind of rule is associated with a local consistency operator. Indeed, such an operator can be defined by a system of rules [1]. If the type of this operator is  $(W_{in}, W_{out})$ , each rule explains the removal of a value in the environment of  $W_{out}$  as the consequence of the lack of values in the environment of  $W_{in}$ .

**Definition 12.** *The set of local consistency rules associated with  $l \in L$  is:*

$$\mathcal{R}_l = \left\{ \frac{\Gamma \vdash h_1 \dots \Gamma \vdash h_n}{\Gamma \vdash h} \mid \Gamma \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{D}), \forall d \subseteq \mathbb{D}, h_1, \dots, h_n \notin d \Rightarrow h \notin l(d) \right\}$$

Intuitively, these rules explain the propagation mechanism. Using its notation, the definition 12 justifies the removal of  $h$  by the removals of  $h_1, \dots, h_n$ .

*Example 5.*  $\forall e \in \mathbb{D}$ , the rule

$$\frac{\{e\} \vdash (\text{PM}, 2) \quad \{e\} \vdash (\text{PM}, 3)}{\{e\} \vdash (\text{AM}, 1)}$$

is associated with the local consistency operator of type  $(\{\text{PM}\}, \{\text{AM}\})$  (for the constraint  $\text{AM} \neq \text{PM}$ ).  $\square$

As said above, the context is only concerned by labeling. So, here, the rule does not modify it. Note that if we restrict ourselves to solving by consistency techniques alone (that is without any labeling), then the context will always be the initial environment and can be forgotten [7].

From now on, we consider  $\mathcal{R}_L = \cup_{l \in L} \mathcal{R}_l$ .

The second kind of rules is associated with restriction operators. In this case the removal of a value is not the consequence of any other removal and so these rules are facts.

**Definition 13.** *The set of restriction rules associated with  $r \in R$  is:*

$$\mathcal{R}_r = \left\{ \frac{}{\{d\} \vdash h} \mid h \notin r(\mathbb{D}), d \subseteq r(\mathbb{D}) \right\}$$

These rules provide the values which are removed by a restriction.

*Example 6.* The set of restriction rules associated with the restriction operator  $r$  such that  $\forall d \in \mathbb{D}, r(d) = \mathbb{D} \setminus \{PM\} \cup \{(PM, 1)\}$  is:

$$\left\{ \frac{}{\{e_1\} \vdash (PM, 2)}, \frac{}{\{e_1\} \vdash (PM, 3)} \right\} \text{ with } e_1 \subseteq r(\mathbb{D}). \quad \square$$

This restriction ensures the computation goes to in a branch of the search tree and must be memorized because future removals may be true only in this branch. The context is modified in order to remember that the computation is in this branch.

From now on, we consider  $\mathcal{R}_R = \cup_{r \in R} \mathcal{R}_r$ .

The last kind of rule corresponds to the reunion of information coming from several branches of the search tree.

**Definition 14.** *The set of labeling rules for  $h \in \mathbb{D}$  is defined by:*

$$\mathcal{R}_h = \left\{ \frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash h \dots \Gamma_n \vdash h}{\Gamma_1 \cup \dots \cup \Gamma_n \vdash h} \mid \Gamma_1, \dots, \Gamma_n \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{D}) \right\}$$

Intuitively, if the value  $h$  has been removed in several branches, corresponding to the contexts  $\Gamma_1, \dots, \Gamma_n$ , then a unique context can be associated with  $h$ : this context is the union of these contexts.

*Example 7.* For all  $e_1, e_2, e_3 \in \mathbb{D}$ , 
$$\frac{\{e_1\} \vdash (MP, 2) \quad \{e_2\} \vdash (MP, 2) \quad \{e_3\} \vdash (MP, 2)}{\{e_1\} \cup \{e_2\} \cup \{e_3\} \vdash (MP, 2)}$$
 is a labeling rule.

From now on, we consider  $\mathcal{R}_{\mathbb{D}} = \cup_{h \in \mathbb{D}} \mathcal{R}_h$ .

The system of rules  $\mathcal{R}_L \cup \mathcal{R}_R \cup \mathcal{R}_{\mathbb{D}}$  can now be used to build explanations of value withdrawal.

## 5.2 Proof trees

In this section, proof trees are described from the rules of the previous section. It is proved that there exists such a proof tree for each element which is removed during a computation. And finally, it is shown how to obtain these proof trees.

**Definition 15.** A proof tree with respect to a set of rules  $\mathcal{R}_L \cup \mathcal{R}_R \cup \mathcal{R}_D$  is a finite tree such that, for each node labeled by  $\Gamma \vdash h$ , if  $B$  is the set of labels of its children, then

$$\frac{B}{\Gamma \vdash h} \in \mathcal{R}_L \cup \mathcal{R}_R \cup \mathcal{R}_D.$$

Next theorem ensures that there exists a proof tree for each element which is removed during a computation.

**Theorem 1.**  $\Gamma \vdash h$  is the root of a proof tree if and only if  $\forall e \in \Gamma, h \notin CL \downarrow (e, R)$ .

*Proof.*  $\Rightarrow$ : inductively on each kind of rule:

- for local consistency rules, if  $\forall i, 1 \leq i \leq n, h_i \notin CL \downarrow (e_i, R)$  then  $h_i \notin CL \downarrow (e_1 \cap \dots \cap e_n, R)$  and so (because  $h \leftarrow \{h_1, \dots, h_n\} \in \mathcal{R}$ )  $h \notin CL \downarrow (\{e_1 \cap \dots \cap e_n\}, R)$ ;
- for restriction rules,  $h \notin e$  so  $h \notin CL \downarrow (e, R)$ ;
- straightforward for labeling rules.

$\Leftarrow$ : if  $\forall i, 1 \leq i \leq n, h \notin CL \downarrow (e_i, R)$  then ([6]) there exists a proof tree rooted by  $h$  for each  $e_i$ . So, with context notion,  $\forall i, 1 \leq i \leq n, \{e_i\} \vdash h$  is the root of a proof tree. Thus, thanks to the labeling rule,  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\} \vdash h$  is the root of a proof tree.

Last part of the section is devoted to show how to obtain these trees from a computation, that is from a search tree.

Let us recall that  $\text{cons}(h, T)$  is the tree rooted by  $h$  and with the set of sub-trees  $T$ . The traversal of the search tree in depth first. Each branch can then be considered separately. The descent in each branch can be viewed as an iteration of local consistency operators and restriction operators. During this descent, proof trees are inductively built thanks to the rules associated with these two kind of operators (labeling rules are not necessary for the moment). Each node being identified by its depth, the set of trees associated with the node  $(d_p, e_p, f_p, p)$  is denoted by  $S^p \downarrow$ .

These sets are inductively defined as follows:

- $S^0 \downarrow = \emptyset$ ;
- if  $f_{p+1} \in R$  then:
 
$$S^{p+1} \downarrow = S^p \downarrow \cup \left\{ \text{cons}(\{e_p\} \vdash h, T) \mid T \subseteq S^p \downarrow, h \in d_p, \frac{\{\text{root}(t) \mid t \in T\}}{\{e_p\} \vdash h} \in \mathcal{R}_{f_{p+1}} \right\}$$
- if  $f_{p+1} \in L$  then:
 
$$S^{p+1} \downarrow = S^p \downarrow \cup \left\{ \text{cons}(\{e_{p+1}\} \vdash h, \emptyset) \mid h \in d_p, \frac{}{\{e_{p+1}\} \vdash h} \in \mathcal{R}_{f_{p+1}} \right\}$$

To each node  $(d, e, f, p)$  is then associated a set of proof tree denoted by  $S\downarrow(d, e, f, p)$ .

A second phase consists in climbing these sets to the root, grouping together the trees rooted by a same element but with different contexts. To each node  $(d, e, f, p)$  is associated a new set of proof trees  $S\uparrow(d, e, f, p)$ . This set is inductively defined:

- if  $(d, e, f, p)$  is a leaf then  $S\uparrow(d, e, f, p) = S\downarrow(d, e, f, p)$ ;
- if  $l \in L$  then  $S\uparrow(d, e, f, p) = S\downarrow(d \cup l(d), e, l, p + 1)$ ;
- if  $\{r_i(d) \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$  is a partition of  $d$  then  $S\uparrow(d, e, f, p) = S \cup S'$  with  
 $S = \cup_{1 \leq i \leq n} S\uparrow(d \cap r_i(d), e \cap r_i(e), r_i, p + 1)$  and  
 $\{root(t) \mid t \in T\}$   
 $S' = \{\text{cons}(\Gamma \vdash h, T) \mid \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash h} \in \mathcal{R}_{\mathbb{D}}, T \subseteq S\}$ .

**Corollary 1.** *If the search tree rooted by  $(\mathbb{D}, \mathbb{D}, \perp, 0)$  is complete then  $\{root(t) \mid t \in S\uparrow(\mathbb{D}, \mathbb{D}, \perp, 0)\} = \{\Gamma \vdash h \mid \forall e \in \Gamma, h \notin CL \downarrow(e, L)\}$ .*

*Proof.* by theorem 1.

These proof trees are explanations for the removal of their root.

*Example 8.* An explanation for the withdrawal of the value 2 from the domain of MP can be:

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{}{\{e_1\} \vdash (\text{PM}, 2)} \qquad \frac{}{\{e_1\} \vdash (\text{PM}, 3)} \\
 \hline
 \frac{}{\{e_1\} \vdash (\text{AM}, 1)} \qquad \frac{}{\{e_2\} \vdash (\text{PM}, 1)} \quad \frac{}{\{e_3\} \vdash (\text{PM}, 1)} \\
 \hline
 \frac{}{\{e_1\} \vdash (\text{MP}, 2)} \qquad \frac{}{\{e_2\} \vdash (\text{MP}, 2)} \quad \frac{}{\{e_3\} \vdash (\text{MP}, 2)} \\
 \hline
 \frac{}{\{e_1\} \cup \{e_2\} \cup \{e_3\} \vdash (\text{MP}, 2)}
 \end{array}$$

with  $e_1, e_2$  and  $e_3$  such that:

- $e_1 = \mathbb{D} \setminus \{PM\} \cup \{(PM, 1)\}$
- $e_2 = \mathbb{D} \setminus \{PM\} \cup \{(PM, 2)\}$
- $e_3 = \mathbb{D} \setminus \{PM\} \cup \{(PM, 3)\}$

This tree must be understood as follows: the restriction of the search space to  $e_1$  eliminates the values 2 and 3 of PM. Since  $AM \neq PM$ , the value 1 is removed of AM. And since  $MP > AM$ , the value 2 is removed of MP. In the same way, the value 2 is also removed of MP with the restriction  $e_2$  and  $e_3$ . And finally, the root ensures that this value is removed in each of these branches.  $\square$

The size of explanations strongly depends on the consistency used, the size of the domains and the type of constraint. Note that even if the width of explanations is large, their height remains correct in general. It is important to recall that these explanations are a theoretical tool. So, an implementation could be more efficient.

## 6 Interest for Programming Environments

The understanding of solvers computation provided by the explanations is an interesting source of information for constraint (logic) programming environments. Moreover, explanations have already been used in several ones. The theoretical model of value withdrawal explanation given in the paper can therefore be an interesting tool for constraint (logic) programming environments.

The main application using explanations concerns over-constrained problems. In these problems, the user is interesting in information about the failure, that is to visualize the set of constraints responsible for this failure. He can therefore relax one of them and may obtain a solution.

In the PaLM system, a constraint retraction algorithm have been implemented thanks to explanations. Indeed, for each value removed from the environment, there exists an explanation set containing the operators responsible for the removal. So, to retract a constraint consists in two main steps: to re-introduce the values which contain an operator associated with the retracted constraint in their explanation, and to wake up all the operators which can remove a re-introduced value, that is which are defined by a rule having such a value as head. The theoretical approach of the explanations have permitted to prove the correctness of this algorithm based on explanations. There did not exist any proof of it whereas the one we propose is immediate. Furthermore, this approach have proved the correctness of a large family of constraints retraction algorithms used in others constraints environments and not only the one based on explanations.

The interest for explanations in debugging is growing. Indeed, to debug a program is to look for something which is not correct in a solver computation. So, the information about the computation given by the explanations can be very precious.

They have already been used for failure analysis. In constraint programming, a failure is characterized by an empty domain. A failure explanation is then a set of explanations (one explanation for each value of the empty domain). Note that in the PaLM system, labeling has been replaced by dynamic backtracking based on the combination of failure explanation and constraint retraction.

An interesting perspective seems to be the use of explanations for the declarative debugging of constraint programs. Indeed, when a symptom of error (a missing solution) appears after a constraint solving, explanations can help to find the error (the constraint responsible for the symptom). For example, if a user expects a solution containing the value  $v$  for a variable  $x$  but does not obtain any such solution, an explanation for the removal of  $(x, v)$  is a useful structure to localize the error. The idea is to go up in the tree from the root (the symptom) to a node (the minimal symptom) for which each son is correct. The error is then the constraint which ensures the passage between the node and its sons.

The theoretical model given in the paper will, I wish, bring new ideas and solutions for the debugging in constraint programming and other environments.

## 7 Conclusion

The paper was devoted to the definition of value withdrawal explanations. The previous notions of explanations (theoretically described in [7]) only dealt with domain reduction by local consistency notions. Here, the notion of labeling have been fully integrated in the model.

A solver computation is formalized by a search tree where each branch is an iteration of operators. These operators can be local consistency operators or restriction operators. Each operator is defined by a set of rules describing the removal of a value as the consequence of the removal of other values. Finally, proof trees are built thanks to these rules. These proof trees are explanations for the removal of a value (their root).

The interest in explanations for constraint (logic) programming environment is undoubtedly. The theoretical model proposed here have already validate some algorithms used in some environments and will, I wish, bring new ideas and solutions for constraint (logic) programming environments, in particular debugging of constraint programs.

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