An Assertion language for slicing Constraint Logic Languages

M. Falaschi¹ C. Olarte²

¹ Dipartimento di Ingegneria dell'Informazione e Scienze Matematiche Università di Siena, Italy. moreno.falaschi@unisi.it. ² ECT, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Norte, Brazil carlos.olarte@gmail.com.

Abstract. Constraint Logic Programming is a language scheme for combining 9 two declarative paradigms: constraint solving and logic programming. Concur-10 rent Constraint Programming (CCP) is a declarative model for concurrency where 11 agents interact by telling and asking constraints (pieces of information) in a 12 shared store. In a previous paper we have developed a framework for dynamic 13 slicing of CCP. Slicing is useful for debugging. The main idea in dynamic slicing 14 is that the user is able to recognize that a partial computation is wrong. Hence the 15 user marks some parts of the final state (a subset of the constraints and processes), 16 17 which correspond to the data and processes that she wants to emphasize and study more deeply. Then, an automatic process of slicing begins, and the partial com-18 putation is "depurated", by removing the information which is not relevant to 19 compute the emphasized information. In this paper we extend the framework to 20 Constraint Logic Programs, generalizing the previous work. Moreover, we make 21 one step further in the direction of automatizing the slicing process. We provide 22 an assertion language suitable for these languages, which allows the user to spec-23 ify some properties of the computations in her program. If a state in a compu-24 tation does not satisfy an assertion then some "wrong" information is identified 25 and an automatic slicing process can start. We show that our framework can be 26 integrated with the previous semi-automatic one, giving the user more choices 27 and flexibility. We show by means of examples and experiments the usefulness 28 of our approach. 29

³⁰ Keywords: CLP, Dynamic slicing, Debugging, Assertion language.

31 **1 Introduction**

Constraint Logic Programming (CLP) is a language scheme [14] for combining two 32 declarative paradigms: constraint solving and logic programming ([11] gives an overview 33 of the various languages of the scheme and a variety of applicative areas in which CLP 34 proved successful). Concurrent constraint programming (CCP) [19] (see a survey in 35 [17]) combines concurrency primitives with the ability to deal with constraints, and 36 hence, with partial information. The notion of concurrency is based upon the shared-37 variables communication model. CCP is intended for reasoning, modeling and pro-38 gramming concurrent agents (or processes) that interact with each other and their en-39 vironment by posting and asking information in a medium, a so-called store. CCP is 40

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

a very flexible model and has been applied to an increasing number of different fields
such as probabilistic and stochastic, timed and mobile systems, and more recently to
social networks with spatial and epistemic behaviors [17].

One crucial problem with constraint logic languages is to define appropriate debugging tools. Various techniques and several works have been defined for debugging these languages. Abstract interpretation techniques have been considered (e.g. in [4, 5, 9]) as well as (abstract) declarative debuggers following the seminal work of Shapiro [21]. However, these techniques are approximated (case of abstract interpretation) or it can be difficult to apply them when dealing with complex programs (case of declarative debugging) as the user should answer to too many questions.

In this paper we follow a technique inspired by slicing. Slicing was introduced in 51 some pioneer works by Mark Weiser [24]. It was originally defined as a static technique, 52 independent of any particular input of the program. Then, the technique was extended 53 by introducing the so called dynamic program slicing [13]. This technique is useful for 54 simplifying the debugging process, by selecting a portion of the program containing the 55 faulty code. In the context of constraint logic languages we define a tool able to inter-56 act with the user and filter, in a given computation, the information which is relevant 57 to a particular observation or result. In other words, the programmer could mark the 58 information (constraints and agents or atoms) that she is interested to check in a partic-59 ular computation that she suspects to be wrong. Then, a corresponding depurated par-60 tial computation is obtained automatically, where only the information relevant to the 61 marked parts is present. Dynamic program slicing has been applied to several program-62 ming paradigms, for instance to imperative programming [13], functional programming 63 [16], Term Rewriting [1], and functional logic programming [2]. See [12] for a survey. 64

In a previous paper [8] we presented the first formal framework for CCP dynamic 65 slicing. Our aim was to help the programmer to debug her program, in cases where she 66 could not find the bugs by using other debuggers. In this paper we investigate an exten-67 sion of the framework to Constraint Logic Programs (CLP), and we try to automatize 68 the slicing process by integrating it with a suitable assertion language. The extension 69 to CLP is not immediate, as while for CCP programs non-deterministic choices give 70 rise to one single computation, in CLP all computations corresponding to different non-71 deterministic choices can be followed and can lead to different solutions. So, some 72 rethinking of the framework is necessary. We show that it is possible to define a 73 transformation from CLP programs to CCP programs, which allows to show that the 74 set of observables of one CLP program and of the corresponding translated CCP pro-75 gram correspond. This result also shows that the computations in the two languages are 76 pretty similar and the framework for CCP can be extended to deal with CLP programs. 77 Our framework [8] consists of three main steps. First the standard operational seman-78 tics of the sliced language is extended to a "collecting semantics" that adds the needed 79 information for the slicer. Second, we consider several analyses of the faulty situation 80 based on error symptoms, including causality, variable dependencies, unexpected be-81 haviors and store inconsistencies. This second step was left to the user's responsibility 82 83 in our previous work [8]. The user had to examine a state of a partial computation that she recognized to be wrong. Then she had to mark some information (a subset of con-84 straints in the last state) that she wanted to study further, removing the information in 85

the computation not relevant to derive the marked one. Thirdly, we considered an automatic marking algorithm of the redundant items and define a trace slice. This algorithm was flexible and applicable to timed extensions of CCP [18]. Here, for CLP programs we introduce also the possibility to mark atoms, besides constraints.

We believe that the second step above, namely identifying the right state and the 90 relevant information to be marked, can be difficult for the user and we believe that it 91 is possible to improve automatization of this step. For this reason, in this paper we 92 introduce a specialized assertion language which allows the user to state properties 93 of the computations in her program. If a state in a computation does not satisfy an 94 assertion then some "wrong" information is identified and an automatic slicing process 95 can start. We show that assertions can be integrated in our previous semi-automatic 96 framework [8], giving the user more choices and flexibility. The assertion language is 97 a good companion to the already implemented tool for the slicing of CCPprograms to 98 automatically deduce (possible) symptoms and stop the computation when need it. The framework can also be applied to timed variants of CCP. 100

Organization. Section 2 describes CCP and CLP and their operational semantics. In 101 this section we also introduce a translation from CLP to CCP programs and prove a 102 correspondence theorem between successful computations. In Section 3 we recall the 103 slicing technique for CCP and extend it to CLP. Then, in Section 4 we present our 104 specialized assertion language and describe its main operators and functionalities. In 105 Section 4.2 we show some examples to illustrate the expressive power of our extension, 106 and that it can be integrated into the former tool. Within our examples we show how 107 to automatically debug a biochemical system specified in timed CCP and one classical 108 search problem in CLP. Finally, Section 5 discusses some related work and concludes. 109

110 2 Constraint Logic Languages

In this section we define an operational semantics suitable for both, Constraint Logic 111 Programming [11] and for CCP programs. We start by defining CCP programs and 112 then we obtain CLP programs by restricting the set of operators in CCP. More pre-113 cisely, we remove the synchronization operator (ask (c) then P) and we interpret 114 non-determinism in a different manner. In practice, in CLP, we have to consider non-115 determinism of the type "don't know" [20], which means that each predicate call can 116 be reduced by using each rule which defines such predicate. This is different from the 117 kind of non-determinism in CCP, where the choice operator selects randomly one of the 118 choices whose ask guard is entailed by the constraints in the current store. 119

Processes in CCP *interact* with each other by *telling* and *asking* constraints (pieces 120 of information) in a common store of partial information. The type of constraints is 121 not fixed but parametric in a constraint system (CS). The notion of CS is central to both 122 CCP and CLP. Intuitively, a CS provides a signature from which constraints can be built 123 from basic tokens (e.g., predicate symbols), and two basic operations: conjunction (\Box) 124 and variable hiding (\exists). The CS defines also an *entailment* relation (\models) specifying inter-125 dependencies between constraints: $c \models d$ means that the information d can be deduced 126 from the information c. Following [6], a cylindric algebra gives a general notion of 127 constraint system (see the details, e.g., in [9]). 128

A cylindric constraint system is a structure $\mathbf{C} = \langle \mathcal{C}, \leq, \sqcup, t, f, Var, \exists, D \rangle$ s.t. 129 $\langle \mathcal{C}, <, \sqcup, t, f \rangle$ is a complete algebraic lattice with \sqcup the *lub* operation (representing 130 conjunction). Elements in C are called *constraints* with typical elements c, c', d, d'..., 131 and t, f the least and the greatest elements. If $c \leq d$, we say that d entails c and we 132 write $d \models c$. Var is a denumerable set of variables and for each $x \in Var$ the function 133 $\exists x : \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{C}$ is a cylindrification operator (representing information hiding). As usual, 134 $\exists x.c \text{ binds } x \text{ in } c.$ We use $fv(\cdot)$ (resp. $bv(\cdot)$) to denote the set of free (resp. bound) 135 variables. For each $x, y \in Var$, the constraint $d_{xy} \in D$ is a *diagonal element* can be 136 thought of as the equality x = y, useful to define substitutions of the form [t/x]. 137

As an example, consider the finite domain constraint system (FD) [10]. This system assumes variables to range over finite domains and, in addition to equality, one may have predicates that restrict the possible values of a variable as in x < 42.

The language of CCP processes. In the spirit of process calculi, the language of processes in CCP is given by a small number of primitive operators or combinators. Processes are built from constraints in the underlying constraint system and the syntax:

144
$$P, Q ::= \mathbf{skip} \mid \mathbf{tell}(c) \mid \sum_{i \in I} \mathbf{ask} (c_i) \mathbf{then} P_i \mid P \parallel Q \mid (\mathbf{local} x) P \mid p(\overline{x})$$

The process skip represents inaction. The process tell(c) adds c to the current store d producing the new store $c \sqcup d$. Given a non-empty finite set of indexes I, the process $\sum_{i \in I} ask(c_i)$ then P_i non-deterministically chooses P_k for execution if the store en-

tails c_k . The chosen alternative, if any, precludes the others. This provides a powerful synchronization mechanism based on constraint entailment. When *I* is a singleton, we shall omit the " \sum " and we simply write **ask** (*c*) **then** *P*.

The process $P \parallel Q$ represents the parallel (interleaved) execution of P and Q. The process $(\mathbf{local} x) P$ behaves as P and binds the variable x to be local to it. We use fv(P), bv(P) to denote, respectively, the set of free and bound variables of P.

Given a process definition $p(\overline{y}) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} P$, where all free variables of P are in the set of pairwise distinct variables \overline{y} , the process $p(\overline{x})$ evolves into $P[\overline{x}/\overline{y}]$. A CCP program takes the form $\mathcal{D}.P$ where \mathcal{D} is a set of process definitions and P is a process.

The Structural Operational Semantics (SOS) of CCP is given by the transition rela-157 tion $\gamma \longrightarrow \gamma'$ satisfying the rules in Fig. 1. Here we follow the formulation in [7] where 158 the local variables created by the program appear explicitly in the transition system and 159 parallel composition of agents is identified to a multiset of agents. More precisely, a 160 configuration γ is a triple of the form $(X; \Gamma; c)$, where c is a constraint representing 161 the store, Γ is a multiset of processes, and X is a set of hidden (local) variables of c 162 and Γ . The multiset $\Gamma = P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_n$ represents the process $P_1 \parallel P_2 \parallel \cdots \parallel P_n$. 163 We shall indistinguishably use both notations to denote parallel composition. More-164 over, processes are quotiented by a structural congruence relation \cong satisfying: (STR1) 165 $P \cong Q$ if they differ only by a renaming of bound variables (alpha conversion); (STR2) 166 $P \parallel Q \cong Q \parallel P$; (STR3) $P \parallel (Q \parallel R) \cong (P \parallel Q) \parallel R$; (STR4) $P \parallel \mathbf{skip} \cong P$. 167

Let us briefly explain Figure 1. A tell agent tell(c) adds c to the current store d(Rule R_{TELL}); the process $\sum_{i \in I} ask(c_i)$ then P_i executes P_k if its corresponding guard

 c_k can be entailed from the store (Rule R_{SUM}); a local process (local x) P adds x to the set of hidden variable X when no clashes of variables occur (Rule R_{LOC}). Observe



Fig. 1: Operational semantics for CCP calculi

that Rule R_{EQUIV} can be used to do alpha conversion if the premise of R_{LOC} cannot be satisfied; finally the call $p(\overline{x})$ executes the body of the process definition (Rule R_{CALL}).

Definition 1 (Observables). Let \longrightarrow^* denote the reflexive and transitive closure of \longrightarrow If $(X; \Gamma; d) \longrightarrow^* (X'; \Gamma'; d')$ and $\exists X'.d' \models c$ we write $(X; \Gamma; d) \Downarrow_c$. If $X = \emptyset$ and d = t we simply write $\Gamma \Downarrow_c$.

Intuitively, if *P* is a process then $P \Downarrow_c$ says that *P* can reach a store *d* strong enough to entail *c*, *i.e.*, *c* is an output of *P*. Note that the variables in X' above are hidden from *d'* since the information about them is not observable.

180 2.1 The language of CLP

A CLP program [14] is a finite set of rules of the form

$$A \leftarrow A_1, \ldots, A_n$$

where A is an atom, and A_1, \ldots, A_n , with $n \ge 0$, are literals, i.e. either atoms or primitive constraints. An atom has the form $p(t_1, \ldots, t_m)$, where p is a user defined predicate symbol and the t_i are terms from the constraint domain.

¹⁸⁴ The top-down operational semantics is given in terms of derivations from goals [14].

¹⁸⁵ A configurations takes the form $(\Gamma; c)$ where Γ (a goal) is a multiset of literals and c is ¹⁸⁶ a constraint (the current store). The reduction relation is defined as follows.

Definition 2 (Semantics of CLP [14]). A configuration $\gamma = (L_1, ..., L_i, ...L_n; c)$ reduces to ψ , notation $\gamma \longrightarrow_{CLP} \psi$, by selecting a literal L_i and then:

- 189 1. If L_i is a constraint d and $d \sqcup c \neq f$, then $\gamma \longrightarrow_{CLP} (L_1, ..., L_n; c \sqcup d)$.
- 190 2. If L_i is a constraint d and $d \sqcup c = f$ (i.e., the conjunction of c and d is inconsistent), 191 then $\gamma \longrightarrow_{CLP} (\Box; f)$ where \Box represents the empty multiset of literals.
- ¹⁹² 3. If L_i is a user defined predicate $A(t_1, ..., t_k)$, then $\gamma \longrightarrow_{CLP} (L_1, ..., \Delta, ..., L_n; c)$

where one of the definitions for A, $A(s_1, ..., s_k) \leftarrow A_1, ..., A_n$, is selected and $\Delta = A_1, ..., A_n, s_1 = t_1, ..., s_k = t_k.$

A computation from a goal G is a (possibly infinite) sequence $\gamma_1 = (G; t) \longrightarrow_{CLP} CLP$

- $\gamma_2 \longrightarrow_{CLP} \cdots$. We say that a computation finishes if the last configuration γ_n cannot
- be reduced, i.e., $\gamma_n = (\Box; c)$. If c = f then the derivation fails otherwise it succeeds.

We shall use \longrightarrow_{CLP}^* to denote the reflexive and transitive closure of \longrightarrow_{CLP} . Following Definition 1 for CCP, given a goal with free variables $\overline{x} = var(G)$, we shall also use the notation $G \downarrow_c$ to denote that there is a successful computation $(G; t) \longrightarrow_{CLP}^*$ $(\Box; d)$ s.t. $\exists \overline{x}.d \models c$. We note that the free variables of a goal are progressively "instantiated" during computations by adding new constraints. Finally, the answers of a goal G, notation $G \downarrow$ is the set $\{\exists_{var(c)\setminus var(G)}(c) \mid (G; t) \longrightarrow_{CLP}^* (\Box; c), c \neq f\}$.

The CCP model traces its origins back to the ideas of computing with constraints, 204 Concurrent Logic Programming and Constraint Logic Programming (CLP) [19]. Hence, 205 CCP can simulate computations of such models. In Definition 3 below, we give a CCP 206 interpretation to single computations in CLP programs. We emphasize that one exe-207 cution of a CCP program will give rise to a single computation (due to the kind of 208 non-determinism in CCP) while the CLP abstract computation model characterizes the 209 set of all possible successful derivations and corresponding answers. In other terms, for 210 a given initial goal G, the CLP model defines the full set of answer constraints for G, 211 while the CCP translation will compute only one of them, as only one possible deriva-212 tion will be followed. 213

Definition 3 (Translation). Let C be a constraint system and \mathcal{H} be a CLP program consisting of a set of clauses and G be a goal. We define the set of CCP process definitions $[\![\mathcal{H}]\!] = \mathcal{D}$ as follows. For each user defined predicate symbol p of arity j and 1..mdefined clauses of the form $p(t_1^i, ..., t_j^i) \leftarrow A_1^i, ..., A_{n_i}^i$, we add to \mathcal{D} the following process definition

 $A(x_1, ..., x_j) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \mathbf{ask} (\exists \overline{y_1} \bigsqcup E_1) \mathbf{then} (\mathbf{local} \ \overline{z_1}) \prod D_1 \| \llbracket A_1^1 \rrbracket \| \cdots \| \llbracket A_{n_1}^1 \rrbracket + ... + \mathbf{ask} (\exists \overline{y_m} \bigsqcup E_m) \mathbf{then} (\mathbf{local} \ \overline{z_m}) \prod D_m \| \llbracket A_1^m \rrbracket \| \cdots \| \llbracket A_{n_m}^m \rrbracket$

where $\overline{y_i} = var(t_1^i, ..., t_j^i)$, $\overline{z_i} = \overline{y_i} \cup var(A_1^i, ..., A_{n_i}^i)$, D_i is the set of constraints $\{x_1 = t_1^i, ..., x_j = t_j^i\}$, $E_i = \{x = t \in D_i \mid var(t) \neq \emptyset\}$, $\prod D_i$ means $tell(x_1 = t_1^i) \parallel \cdots \parallel tell(x_j = t_j^i)$ and literals are translated as $\llbracket A(\overline{t}) \rrbracket = A(\overline{t})$ (case of atoms) and $\llbracket c \rrbracket = tell(c)$ (case of constraints). Moreover, we translate the goal $\llbracket l_1, ..., l_n \rrbracket$ as the process $(\llbracket l_1 \rrbracket \parallel \cdots \parallel \llbracket l_n \rrbracket)$.

We note that the head $p(\overline{x})$ of a process definitions $p(\overline{x}) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} P$ in CCP can only have variables while a head of a CLP rule $A(\overline{t}) \leftarrow B$ may have arbitrary terms with (free) variables. The set of constraints D_i allows us to introduce constraints which also establish the connection between the formal and the actual parameters of the predicates. Take for instance the following CLP rules dealing with lists:

p([], []). p([H1 | L1], [H2 | L2]) :- c(H1,H2), p(L,M) .

The translation will be

$$p(x,y) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \mathbf{ask} (t) \mathbf{then} \mathbf{tell}(x = []) \parallel \mathbf{tell}(y = []) + \mathbf{ask} (\exists X \bigsqcup D) \mathbf{then} (\mathbf{local} X) (\prod D \parallel c(H1, H2) \parallel p(L1, L2))$$

where $D = \{x = [H1|L1], y = [H2|L2]\}$ and $X = \{H1, H2, L1, L2\}$.

Theorem 1 (Adequacy). Let C by a constraint system, \mathcal{H} be a set of clauses and G be a goal. Then, $G \Downarrow_c iff [G] \Downarrow_c$. (Proof in Appendix A).

3 Slicing a CCP and CLP program

Dynamic slicing is a technique that helps the user to debug her program by simplifying a
partial execution trace, thus depurating it from parts which are irrelevant to find the bug.
It can also help to highlight parts of the programs which have been wrongly ignored by
the execution of a wrong piece of code. In [8] we defined a slicing technique for CCP
programs that consisted of three main steps:

- S1 Generating a (finite) trace of the program. For that, a collecting semantics is needed
 in order to generate the (meta) information needed for the slicer.
- S2 Marking the final store, to choose some of the constraints that, according to the
 symptoms detected, should or should not be in the final store.
- S3 Computing the trace slice, to select the processes and constraints that were relevant to produce the (marked) final store.

We shall briefly recall the step **S1** in [8] which remains the same here. Steps **S2** and **S3** need further adjustments to deal with CLP programs. In particular, we shall allow the user to select processes (literals in the CLP terminology) in order to start the debugging. Moreover, in Section 4, we provide further tools to automatize the process of highlighting the symptoms of erros.

Collecting Semantics (Step S1) The slicing process requires some extra information 250 from the execution of the processes. More precisely, (1) in each operational step $\gamma \rightarrow \gamma'$, 251 we need to highlight the process that was reduced; and (2) the constraints accumulated 252 in the store must reflect, exactly, the contribution of each process to the store. In order to 253 solve (1) and (2), we introduced in [8] the collecting semantics that extracts the needed 254 meta information for the slicer. Roughly, we identify the parallel composition $Q = P_1 \parallel$ 255 $\cdots \parallel P_n$ with the sequence $\Gamma_Q = P_1 : i_1, \cdots, P_n : i_n$ where $i_j \in \mathbb{N}$ is a unique identifier 256 for P_j . The use of indexes allow us to distinguish, e.g., the three different occurrences of P in " $\Gamma_1, P : i, \Gamma_2, P : j$, (ask (c) then P) : k". The collecting semantics uses 257 258 transitions with labels of the form $\xrightarrow{[i]_k}$ where *i* is the identifier of the reduced process 259 and k can be either \perp (undefined) or a natural number indicating the branch chosen in 260 a non-deterministic choice (Rule R'_{SUM}). This allows us to identify, unequivocally, the 261 selected alternative in an execution. Finally, the store in the collecting semantics is not a 262 constraint (as in Fig. 1) but a set of (atomic) constraints where $\{d_1, \dots, d_n\}$ represents 263 the store $d_1 \sqcup \cdots \sqcup d_n$ in the operational semantics. For that, the rule of tell(c) first 264 decomposes c in its atomic components before add them to the store. 265

Marking the Store (Step S2). In [8] we identified several alternatives for marking the final store in order to indicate the symptoms that are relevant to the slice that the programmer wants to recompute. Let us suppose that the final configuration in a partial computation is $(X; \Gamma; S)$. The symptoms that something is wrong may be (and not limited to) the following:

1. *Causality:* the user identifies, according to her knowledge, a subset $S' \subseteq S$ that needs to be explained (i.e., we need to identify the processes that produced S').

```
\xrightarrow{[i_1]_{k_1}} \cdots \xrightarrow{[i_n]_{k_n}} \gamma_n \text{ where } \gamma_i = (X_i; \Gamma_i; S_i)
      Input: - a trace \gamma_0
                     - a marking (S_{sliced}, \Gamma_{sliced}) s.t. S_{sliced} \subseteq S_n and \Gamma_{sliced} \subseteq \Gamma_n
      Output: a sliced trace \gamma'_0 \longrightarrow \cdots \longrightarrow \gamma'_n
 1 begin
                let \theta = \emptyset in
 2
                        \leftarrow (X_n \cap vars(S_{sliced}); \Gamma_{sliced}; S_{sliced});
 3
                 for l = n - 1 to 0 do
 4
                          \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{let} \langle \theta', c \rangle = sliceProcess(\gamma_l, \gamma_{l+1}, i_{l+1}, k_{l+1}, \theta, S) \circ \theta & \mathbf{in} \\ S_{sliced} \leftarrow S_{sliced} \cup S_{minimal}(S_l, c) \end{array}
 5
 6
 7
                          \theta \leftarrow \theta' \circ \theta
                           \gamma_l' \leftarrow (X_l \cap vars(S_{sliced}, \Gamma_{sliced}) \; ; \; \Gamma_l \theta \; ; \; S_l \cap S_{sliced})
 8
                end
 9
10 end
```

Algorithm 1: Trace Slicer. $S_{minimal}(S,c) = \emptyset$ if c = t; otherwise, $S_{minimal}(S,c) = \bigcup \{S' \subseteq S \mid \bigsqcup S' \models c \text{ and } S' \text{ is set minimal} \}.$

273 2. Variable Dependencies: The user may identify a set of relevant variables $V \subseteq fv(S)$ and then, we mark $S_{sliced} = \{c \in S \mid vars(c) \cap V \neq \emptyset\}$.

3. Unexpected behaviors: there is a constraint c entailed from the final store that is not expected from the intended behavior of the program. Then, one would be interested in the following marking $S_{sliced} = \bigcup \{S' \subseteq S \mid \bigsqcup S' \models c \text{ and } S' \text{ is set minimal}\},$ where "S' is set minimal" means that for any $S'' \subset S', S'' \nvDash c$.

4. *Inconsistent output*: The final store should be consistent with respect to a given specification (constraint) c, i.e., S in conjunction with c must not be inconsistent.

In this case, we have $S_{sliced} = \bigcup \{S' \subseteq S \mid | S' \sqcup c \models f \text{ and } S' \text{ is set minimal} \}$.

For the analysis of CLP programs, it is important also to mark literals (i.e., calls to procedures in CCP). In particular, the programmer may find that a particular goal p(x) is not correct if x does not satisfy a constraint (e.g., x > 6). Hence, we shall consider also markings on the set of processes, i.e., the marking can be also a subset $\Gamma_{sliced} \subseteq \Gamma$. More conveniently, we shall allow markings of the form

$$\Gamma_{sliced} = \{ p(t_1, ..., t_n) \in \Gamma \mid \bigsqcup S \models F \}$$

where $p(\bar{t})$ is marked if its parameters satisfy a condition F (see Def. 5 in Sec. 4).

Trace Slice (Step S3) Starting from the pair $\gamma_{sliced} = (S_{sliced}, \Gamma_{sliced})$ denoting 283 the user's marking, we define a backward slicing step. Roughly, this step allows us to 284 eliminate from the execution trace all the information not related to γ_{sliced} . For that, the 285 fresh constant symbol • is used to denote an "irrelevant" constraint or process. Then, 286 for instance, " $c \sqcup \bullet$ " results from a constraint $c \sqcup d$ where d is irrelevant. Similarly in 287 processes as, e.g., ask (c) then $(P \parallel \bullet) + \bullet$. A replacement is either a pair of the 288 shape [T/i] or [T/c]. In the first (resp. second) case, the process with identifier i (resp. 289 constraint c) is replaced with T. We shall use θ to denote a set of replacements and we 290 call these sets as "replacing substitutions". The composition of replacing substitutions 291 θ_1 and θ_2 is given by the set union of θ_1 and θ_2 , and is denoted as $\theta_1 \circ \theta_2$. 292

Alg. 1 extends the one in [8] to deal with the marking on processes (Γ_{sliced}). The last configuration (γ'_n in line 3) means that we only observe the local variables of interest, i.e., those in $vars(S_{sliced}, \Gamma_{sliced})$ as well as the relevant processes (Γ_{sliced}) and

constraints (S_{sliced}) . The algorithm backwardly computes the slicing by accumulating 296 replacing pairs in θ (line 7). The new replacing substitutions are computed by the func-297 tion *sliceProcess* that returns both, a replacement substitution and a constraint needed 298 in the case of ask agents as explained below. Definition of *sliceProcess* is the same 299 as in [8] and we have added it in Appendix ??. Let us give some intuitions on how it 300 works. Suppose that $\gamma \xrightarrow{[i]_k} \psi$. We consider each kind of process. For instance, assume a 30 $\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{TELL}}' \text{ transition } \gamma = (X_{\gamma}; \Gamma_1, \mathbf{tell}(c) : i, \Gamma_2; S_{\gamma}) \xrightarrow{[i]} (X_{\psi}; \Gamma_1, \Gamma_2; S_{\psi}) = \psi. \text{ We note } i \in \mathbb{C}$ 302 that $X_{\gamma} \subseteq X_{\psi}$ and $S_{\gamma} \subseteq S_{\psi}$ and the contribution of $\mathbf{tell}(c)$ to the store is $S_c = S_{\psi} \setminus S_{\gamma}$. 303 We replace the constraint c with its sliced version c' where any atom $c_a \in S_c$ not in 304 the relevant set of constraints S_{sliced} is replaced by \bullet . By joining together the resulting 305 atoms, and existentially quantifying the variables in $X_{\psi} \setminus X_{\gamma}$ (if any), we obtain the 306 sliced constraint c'. In order to further simplify the trace, if c' is \bullet or $\exists \overline{x} \bullet$ then we 307 substitute tell(c) with \bullet . In a non-deterministic choice, all the precluded choices are 308 discarded (" $+ \bullet$ "). Moreover, if the chosen alternative Q_k does not contribute to the 309 final store (i.e., $\Gamma_Q \theta = \bullet$), then the whole process $\sum \mathbf{ask} (c_l)$ then P_l becomes \bullet . 310 If this is not the case, besides the needed substitution replacement, we also return the 311 constraint c_k (the entailed guard of the ask agent). Note that in line 6 of Algorithm 1, we 312 add to S_{sliced} the minimal set of constraints that "explains" the entailed guard c_k . This 313 allows us to highlight also the processes that added the needed information to entail 314 such constraint. 315

316 *Example 1*. Consider the following (wrong) CLP program:

```
length([],0).
length([A | L],M) :- M = N, length(L, N).
```

The translation to CCP is similar to the one we gave in Section 2.1. An excerpt of a possible trace for the execution of the goal length ([10;20], Ans). is

```
[0 ; length([10;20],Ans); t] -->
[0 ; loask() ... ; t] ->
[0 ; loask() ... ; t] ->
[H1 L1 N1 M1 ; [10;20]= [H1 L1] || Ans=N1 || N1=M1 || length(L1, M1) ; t] ->
...
[... H2 L2 N2 M2 ; [20]=[H2 | L2] || M1=N2 || N2=M2 || length(L2, M2) ; [10;20]= [H1 L1], Ans=N1, N1=M1] ->
[... H2 L2 N2 M2 ; M1=N2 || N2=M2 || length(L2, M2) ; [10;20]= [H1 L1], Ans=N1, N1=M1, [20]=[H2 | L2]] ->
...
[... H2 L2 N2 M2 ; M2=0 ; [10;20]= [H1 |L1], Ans=N1, N1=M1, [20]=[H2 | L2], M1=N2, N2=M2, L2=[]] ->
[... H2 L2 N2 M2 ; [10;20]= [H1 |L1], Ans=N1, N1=M1, [20]=[H2 | L2], M1=N2, N2=M2, L2=[]] ->
[... H2 L2 N2 M2 ; [10;20]= [H1 |L1], Ans=N1, N1=M1, [20]=[H2 | L2], M1=N2, N2=M2, L2=[]] ->
[... H2 L2 N2 M2 ; [10;20]= [H1 |L1], Ans=N1, N1=M1, [20]=[H2 | L2], M1=N2, N2=M2, L2=[]] ->
[... H2 L2 N2 M2 ; [10;20]= [H1 |L1], Ans=N1, N1=M1, [20]=[H2 | L2], M1=N2, N2=M2, L2=[]] ->
[... H2 L2 N2 M2 ; [10;20]= [H1 |L1], Ans=N1, N1=M1, [20]=[H2 | L2], M1=N2, N2=M2, L2=[]] ->
[... H2 L2 N2 M2 ; [10;20]= [H1 |L1], Ans=N1, N1=M1, [20]=[H2 | L2], M1=N2, N2=M2, L2=[]] ->
[... H2 L2 N2 M2 ; [10;20]= [H1 |L1], Ans=N1, N1=M1, [20]=[H2 | L2], M1=N2, N2=M2, L2=[]] ->
[... H2 L2 N2 M2 ; [10;20]= [H1 |L1], Ans=N1, N1=M1, [20]=[H2 | L2], M1=N2, N2=M2, L2=[]] ->
[... H2 L2 N2 M2 ; [10;20]= [H1 |L1], Ans=N1, N1=M1, [20]=[H2 | L2], M1=N2, N2=M2, L2=[]] ->
[... H2 L2 N2 M2 ; [10;20]= [H1 |L1], Ans=N1, N1=M1, [20]=[H2 | L2], M1=N2, N2=M2, L2=[]] ->
[... H2 L2 N2 M2 ; [10;20]= [H1 |L1], Ans=N1, N1=M1, [20]=[H2 | L2], M1=N2, N2=M2, L2=[]] ->
[... H2 L2 N2 M2 ; [10;20]= [H1 |L1], Ans=N1, N1=M1, [20]=[H2 | L2], M1=N2, N2=M2, L2=[]] ->
[... H2 L2 N2 M2 ; [10;20]= [H1 |L1], [N1=M1, [N1=M2, [N2=M2, [N1=M2, [N1=M1, [N1=M
```

In the last configuration, we can mark only the equalities dealing with numerical expressions (i.e., Ans=N1, N1=M1, M1=N2, N2=M2, M2=0) and the resulting trace will abstract away from all the constraints and processes dealing with equalities on lists:

```
[0 ; length([10;20],Ans) ; t] -->
[0 ; t + ask() ... ; t] ->
[0 ; local ... ; t] ->
[N1 M1 ; * || Ans=N1 || NI=M1 || length(L1, M1) ; t] ->
[N1 M1 ; Ans=N1 || NI=M1 || length(L1, M1) ; ] ->
[N1 M1 ; N1=M1 || length(L1, M1) ; *, Ans=N1] ->
[N1 M1 ; length(L1, M1) ; *, Ans=N1, N1=M1] ->
...
```

The forth line should be useful to discover that Ans cannot be equal to M1 (the parameter used in the second invocation to length).

³²⁴ 4 An assertion language for logic programs

The declarative flavor of programming with constraints in CCP and CLP allows the user to reason about (partial) invariants that must hold during the execution of her programs. In this section we give a simple yet powerful language of assertion to state such invariants. Then, we give a step further in automatizing the process of debugging.

Definition 4 (Assertion Language). Assertions are built from the following syntax. $F ::= pos(c) \mid neg(c) \mid cons(c) \mid icons(c) \mid F \oplus F \mid p(\overline{x})[F] \mid p(\overline{x})\langle F \rangle$

```
where c is a constraint (c \in C), p(\cdot) is a process name and \oplus \in \{\land, \lor, \rightarrow\}.
```

The first four constructs deal with partial assertions about the current store. These constructs check, respectively, whether the constraint c: (1) is entailed, (2) is not entailed, (3) is consistent wrt the current store or (4) leads to an inconsistency when added to the current store. Assertions of the form $F \oplus F$ have the usual meaning. The assertions $p(\bar{x})[F]$ states that all instances of $p(\bar{t})$ in the current configuration must satisfy the assertion F. The assertions $p(\bar{x})\langle F \rangle$ is similar to the previous one but it checks for the existence of an instance $p(\bar{t})$ that satisfies the the assertion F.

We shall use π to denote a trace (in the collecting semantics). Moreover, $\pi(i)$ denotes the *i*-th position in the sequence π . Let $\pi(i) = (X_i; \Gamma_i; S_i)$. We shall use $store(\pi(i))$ to denote the constraint $\exists X_i . \bigsqcup S_i$ and $procs(\pi(i))$ to denote the sequence of processes Γ_i . The semantics for assertions is formalized next.

Definition 5 (Semantics). Let π be a sequence of configurations and F be an assertion. We inductively define π , $i \models_{\mathcal{F}} F$ (read as π satisfies the formula F at position i) as:

- 345 $-\pi, i \models_{\mathcal{F}} pos(c) \text{ if } store(\pi(i)) \models c.$
- 346 $-\pi, i \models_{\mathcal{F}} neg(c) \text{ if } store(\pi(i)) \not\models c.$
- 347 $-\pi, i \models_{\mathcal{F}} cons(c) \text{ if } store(\pi(i)) \sqcup c \not\models f.$
- 348 $\pi, i \models_{\mathcal{F}} icons(c) \text{ if } store(\pi(i)) \sqcup c \models f.$
- 349 $\pi, i \models_F F \land G \text{ if } \pi, i \models_F F \text{ and } \pi, i \models_F G.$
- 350 $\pi, i \models_{\mathcal{F}} F \lor G \text{ if } \pi, i \models_{\mathcal{F}} F \text{ and } \pi, i \models_{\mathcal{F}} G.$
- $J_{351} \quad -\pi, i \models_{\mathcal{F}} F \to G \text{ if } \pi, i \models_{\mathcal{F}} F \text{ implies } \pi, i \models_{\mathcal{F}} G.$
- $-\pi, i \models_{\mathcal{F}} p(\overline{x})[F] \text{ if for all } p(\overline{t}) \in procs(\pi(i)), \pi, i \models_{\mathcal{F}} F[\overline{t}/\overline{x}].$
- $-\pi, i \models_{\mathcal{F}} p(\overline{x}) \langle F \rangle \text{ if there exists } p(\overline{t}) \in procs(\pi(i)), \pi, i \models_{\mathcal{F}} F[\overline{t}/\overline{x}].$

If it is not the case that $\pi, i \models_{\mathcal{F}} F$, then we say that F does not hold at $\pi(i)$ and we write $\pi(i) \not\models_{\mathcal{F}} F$.

Example 2. Consider the current store in $\pi(1)$ is $S = x \in 0..10$. we then have:

- π π , 1 $\models_{\mathcal{F}} \operatorname{cons}(x = 5)$, i.e., the current store is consistent wrt the specification x = 5.
- π π , 1 $\not\models_{\mathcal{F}}$ icons(x = 5), i.e., the store is not inconsistent wrt the specification x = 5.

 $\pi, 1 \not\models_{\mathcal{F}} pos(x = 5)$, i.e., the store is not "strong enough" in order to satisfy the 363 specification x = 5. 364

 $-\pi, 1 \models_{\mathcal{F}} \operatorname{neg}(x=5)$, i.e., store is "consistent enough" to guarantee that it is not the 365 case that x = 5. 366

Note that $\pi, i \models_{\mathcal{F}} pos(c)$ implies $\pi, i \models_{\mathcal{F}} cons(c)$. However, the other direction 367 is in general not true (as shown above). We note that CCP and CLP are monotonic in 368 the sense that when the store c evolves into d, it must be the case that $d \models c$ (i.e., 369 information is monotonically accumulated). Hence, $\pi, i \models pos(c)$ implies $\pi, i + j \models$ 370 pos(c). Finally, if the store becomes inconsistent, cons(c) does not hold for any c. 371 Temporal [15] and linear [7] variants of CCP remove such restriction on monotonicity. 372 We note that checking assertions amounts, roughly, for testing the entailment rela-373 tion in the underlying constraint system. Checking entailments is the basic operation 374 CCP agents perform. Hence, from the implementation point of view, the verification of 375 assertions does not introduce a significant extra computational cost. 376

Example 3 (Conditional assertions). Let us introduce some useful patterns for verifi-377 cation. - Conditional constraints : The assertion $pos(c) \rightarrow F$ checks for F only if 378 c can be deduced from the store. For instance, the assertion $pos(c) \rightarrow neq(d)$ says 379 that d must not be deduced when the store implies c. - Conditional predicates : Let 380 $G = p(\overline{x}) \langle \text{cons}(t) \rangle$. The assertion $G \to F$ states that F must be verified whenever 381 there is a call/goal of the form $p(\bar{t})$ in the context. Moreover, $(\sim G) \rightarrow F$ verifies F 382 when there is no calls of the form $p(\bar{t})$ in the context. 383

4.1 Dynamic slicing with assertions 384

Assertions allows the user to specify conditions that her program must satisfy during 385 execution. If this is not the case, the program should stop and start the debugging pro-386 cess. In fact, the assertions may help to give a suitable marking pair ($S_{sliced}, \Gamma_{sliced}$) 387 for the step S2 of our algorithm as we show in the next definition. 388

Definition 6. Let F be an assertion and π be a partial computation such that $\pi, n \not\models_{\mathcal{F}}$ 389 F, i.e., $\pi(n)$ fails to establish the assertion F. Let $\pi(n) = (X; \Gamma; S)$. As testing hy-390 potheses for the symptoms of errors, we define $symp(\pi, F, n) = (S_{sl}, \Gamma_{sl})$ where 39

- $I. If F = pos(c) then S_{sl} = \{d \in S \mid vars(d) \cap vars(c) \neq \emptyset\}, \Gamma_{sl} = \emptyset.$ 392
- 2. If F = neg(c) then $S_{sl} = \bigcup \{S' \subseteq S \mid \bigsqcup S' \models c \text{ and } S' \text{ is set minimal}\}, \Gamma_{sl} = \emptyset$ 3. If F = cons(c) then $S_{sl} = \bigcup \{S' \subseteq S \mid \bigsqcup S' \sqcup c \models f \text{ and } S' \text{ is set minimal}\},$ 393
- 394 $\Gamma_{sl} = \emptyset.$ 395
- 4. If $F = icons(c) S_{sl} = \{d \in S \mid vars(d) \cap vars(c) \neq \emptyset\}$ and $\Gamma_{sl} = \emptyset$. 396
- 5. If $F = F_1 \wedge F_2$ then $symp(\pi, F_1, n) \cup symp(\pi, F_2, n)$. 397
- 6. If $F = F_1 \lor F_2$ then $symp(\pi, F_1, n) \cap symp(\pi, F_2, n)$. 398
- 7. If $F = F_1 \rightarrow F_2$ then $symp(\pi, \sim F_1, n) \cup symp(\pi, F_2, n)$. 399
- 8. If $F = p(\overline{x})[F_1]$ then $S_{sl} = \emptyset$ and $\Gamma_{sl} = \{p(\overline{t}) \in \Gamma \mid \pi, n \not\models_{\mathcal{F}} F_1[\overline{t}/\overline{x}]\}.$ 400
- 9. If $F = p(\overline{x})\langle F_1 \rangle$ then $S_{sl} = \{d \in S \mid vars(d) \cap vars(F_1) \neq \emptyset\}, \Gamma_{sl} = \{p(\overline{t}) \in \Gamma\}$ 401

Let us give some intuitions about the above definition. Consider a (partial) compu-402 tation π of length n where $\pi(n) \not\models_{\mathcal{F}} F$. In the case (1) above, c must be entailed but 403 the current store is not strong enough to do it. A good guess is to start examining the 404 processes that added constraints using the same variables as in c. It may be the case 405 that such processes should have added more information to entail c as expected in the 406 specification F. Similarly for the case (4): c in conjunction with the current store should 407 be inconsistent but it is not. Then, more information on the common variables should 408 have been added. In the case (2), c should not be entailed but the store indeed entails c. 400 In this case, we mark the set of constraints that entails c. The case (3) is similar. In cases 410 (5) to (7) we use \cup and \cap respectively for point-wise union and intersection in the pair 411 (S_{sl}, Γ_{sl}) . This cases are self-explanatory (e.g., if $F_1 \wedge F_2$ fails, we collect the failure 412 symptoms of either F_1 or F_2). In (8), we mark all the calls that do not satisfy the ex-413 pected assertion $F(\bar{x})$. In (9), if F fails, it means that either (a) there are no calls of the 414 shape $p(\bar{t})$ in the context or (b) none of the calls $p(\bar{t})$ satisfy F_1 . For (a), similar to the 415 case (1), a good guess is to examine the processes that added constraints with common 416 variables to F_1 and see which one should have added more information to entail F_1 . As 417 for (b), we also select all the calls of the form $p(\bar{t})$ from the context. The reader may 418 compare these definitions with the symptoms we proposed in Step S2 in Section 3. 419

420 Classification of Assertions. As we explained in Section 2.1, computations in CLP 421 can succeed or fail and the answers to a goal is the set of constraints obtained from 422 successful computations. Hence, according to the kind of assertion, it is important to 423 determine when the assertions in Definition 5 must stop or not the computation to start 424 the debugging process. For that, we introduce the following classification:

- **post-conditions, post**(F) assertions : assertions that are meant to be verified only when an answer is found. This kind of assertions are used to test the "quality" of the answers wrt the specification. In this case, the slicing process begins only when an answer is computed and it does not satisfy one of the assertions. Note that assertions of the form $p(\overline{x})[F(\overline{x})]$ and $p(\overline{x})\langle F(\overline{x})\rangle$ are irrelevant as post-conditions since the set of goals in an answer must be empty.

- path invariants, inv(F) assertions: assertions that are meant to hold along the whole 431 computation. Then, not satisfying an invariant must be understood as a symptom of an 432 error and the computation must stop. We note that due to monotonicity, only assertions 433 of the form neq(c) and cons(c) can be used to stop the computation (note that if the 434 current configuration fails to satisfy $n \in q(c)$, then any successor state will also fail to 435 satisfy that assertion). Constraints of the form pos(c), icons(c) can be only checked 436 when the answer is found since, not satisfying those conditions in the partial computa-437 tion, does not imply that the final state will not satisfy them. 438

439 4.2 Experiments

We conclude this section with a series of examples showing the use of assertions. Examples 4 and 5 deal with CLP programs while Examples 6 and 7 with CCP programs.

Example 4. The debugger can automatically start and produce the same marking in Example 1 with the following (invariant) assertion:

length([A | L], M) :- M = N, length(L, N), inv(pos(M>0)).

Example 5. Consider the following CLP program (written in GNU-Prolog with integer finite domains) for solving the well known problem of posing N queens on a $N \times N$ chessboard in such a way that they do not attach to each other.

The program contains one mistake, which causes the introduction of a few additional and not correct solutions, e.g., [1, 5, 4, 3, 2] for the goal queens (5, X). The user now has two possible strategies: either she lets the interpreter to compute the solutions, one by one and then, when she sees a wrong solution she uses the slicer for marking manually the final store to get the sliced computation; or she can define an assertion to be verified. For instance, she can introduce the following a post-condition assertion:

Now the slicer stops as soon as the constraint X # = Q+1 becomes inconsistent with the store in a successful computation (e.g., the assertion fails on the –partial– assignment "5,4") and an automatic slicing of the successful computation is performed.

Example 6. In [8] we presented a compelling example of slicing for a timed CCP pro-456 gram modeling the synchronization of events in musical rhythmic patterns. As shown 457 in Example 2 at http://subsell.logic.at/slicer/, the slicer for CCP was 458 able to sufficiently abstract away from irrelevant processes and constraints to highlight 459 the problem in a faulty program. However, the process of stopping the computation to 460 start the debugging was left to the user. The property that failed in the program can be 461 naturally expresses as an assertion. Namely, in the whole computation, if the constraint 462 beat is present (representing a sound in the musical rhythm), the constraint stop 463 cannot be present (representing the end of the rhythm). This can be written as the con-464 ditional assertion $pos(beat) \rightarrow neq(stop)$. Following Definition 6, the constraints 465 marked in the wrong computation are the same we considered in [8], thus automatizing 466 completely the process of identifying the wrong computation. 467

Example 7. Example 3 in the URL above illustrates the use of timed CCP for the spec-468 ification of biochemical systems (we invite the reader to compare in the website the 469 sliced and non-sliced traces). Roughly, in that model, constraints of the form Mdm2 470 (resp. Mdm2A) state that the protein Mdm2 is present (resp. absence). The model in-471 cludes activation (and inhibition) biological rules modeled as processes (omitting some 472 details) of the form ask (Mdm2A) then next tell(Mdm2) modeling that "if Mdm2 473 474 is absent now, then it must be present in the next time-unit". The interaction of many of these rules makes trickier the model since rules may "compete" for resources and 475 then, we can wrongly observe at the same time-unit that Mdm^2 is both present and 476

absence. An assertion of the form $(pos(Mdm2A) \rightarrow neg(Mdm2)) \land (pos(Mdm2) \rightarrow neg(Mdm2A))$ will automatically stop the computation and produce the same marking we used to depurate the program in the website.

480 5 Related work and conclusions

Related work Assertions for automatizing a slicing process have been previously in-481 troduced in [3] for the functional logic language Maude. The language they consider as 482 well as the type of assertions are completely different from ours. They do not have con-483 straints, and deal with functional and equational computations. Another previous work 484 [22] introduced static and dynamic slicing for CLP programs. However, [22] essentially 485 aims to identify the parts of a goal which do not share variables, so that to slice them 486 apart. Our approach consider more situations, not only variable dependencies, but also 487 other kinds of error symptoms. Moreover we have assertions, and hence an automatic 488 slicing mechanism not considered in [22]. The well known debugging box model of 489 Prolog [23] introduces a tool for observing the evolution of atoms during their reduc-490 tion in the search tree. We believe that our methodology might be integrated with the 491 box model and may extend some of its features. For instance, the box model makes ba-492 sic simplifications by asking the user to specify which predicates she wants to observe. 493 In our case one entire computational path is simplified automatically by considering the 494 marked information and identifying the constraints and the atoms which are relevant 495 for such information. 496

Conclusions and future work In this paper we have first extended a previous frame-497 work for dynamic slicing of (timed) CCP programs to the case of CLP programs. We 498 considered a slightly different marking mechanism, extended to atoms besides con-499 straints. Don't know non-determinism in CLP requires a different identification of the 500 computations of interest for debugging wrt CCP. We consider different modalities spec-501 ified by the user for selecting successful computations rather than all possible partial 502 computations. As another contribution of this paper, in order to automatize the slicing 503 process, we have introduced an assertion language. This language is rather flexible and 504 allows to specify different types of assertions which then implies them to be applied 505 to successful computations or to all possible partial computations. There are several 506 different possible properties which can be specified, such as consistency with a given 507 constraint of the constraint store, the fact that a constraint should be satisfied or not 508 satisfied by the constraint store, a pattern to select the states on which to apply the 509 assertions, etc. The user can specify assertions which are checked automatically and 510 when assertions are not satisfied by a state of a selected computation then an auto-511 matic slicing of such computation can start. We implemented a prototype of the slicer 512 in Maude and showed its use in debugging several programs including a specification of 513 a biochemical system in CCP and a classical search problem in CLP. We are currently 514 extending the tool to deal with CLP don't know non-determinism. We plan to add more 515 advanced graphical tools to our prototype, as well as to study the integration of our 516 framework with other debugging techniques, such as the box model and declarative or 517 approximated debuggers. We also want to investigate the relation of our technique with 518

⁵¹⁹ dynamic testing (e.g. concolic techniques) and extend the assertion language with tem-

- poral operators, e.g. the past operator (\odot), to better deal with temporal CCP and for
- ⁵²¹ expressing the relation between two consecutive temporal units.

522 **References**

523	1.	M. Alpuente, D. Ballis, J. Espert, and D. Romero. Backward trace slicing for rewriting logic
524		theories. In Proc. of CADE'11, pages 34-48, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2011. Springer-Verlag.
525	2.	M. Alpuente, D. Ballis, F. Frechina, and D. Romero. Using conditional trace slicing for
526		improving maude programs. Sci. Comput. Program., 80:385-415, 2014.
527	3.	M. Alpuente, D. Ballis, F. Frechina, and J. Sapiña. Debugging maude programs via runtime
528		assertion checking and trace slicing. J. Log. Algebr. Meth. Program., 85:707-736, 2016.
529	4.	M. Codish, M. Falaschi, and K. Marriott. Suspension Analyses for Concurrent Logic Pro-
530		grams. ACM Transactions on Programming Languages and Systems, 16(3):649–686, 1994.
531	5.	M. Comini, L. Titolo, and A. Villanueva. Abstract Diagnosis for Timed Concurrent Con-
532		straint programs. Theory and Practice of Logic Programming, 11(4-5):487–502, 2011.
533	6.	F. S. de Boer, A. Di Pierro, and C. Palamidessi. Nondeterminism and infinite computations
534		in constraint programming. Theoretical Computer Science, 151(1):37-78, 1995.
535	7.	F. Fages, P. Ruet, and S. Soliman. Linear concurrent constraint programming: Operational
536		and phase semantics. Inf. Comput., 165(1):14-41, 2001.
537	8.	M. Falaschi, M. Gabbrielli, C. Olarte, and C. Palamidessi. Slicing concurrent constraint
538		programs. In M. Hermenegildo and P. López-García, editors, Proc. of LOPSTR 2016, volume
539		10184 of Lecture Notes in Computer Science, pages 76–93. Springer, 2016.
540	9.	M. Falaschi, C. Olarte, and C. Palamidessi. Abstract interpretation of temporal concurrent
541		constraint programs. TPLP, 15(3):312–357, 2015.
542	10.	P. Van Hentenryck, V. A. Saraswat, and Y. Deville. Design, implementation, and evaluation
543		of the constraint language cc(fd). Journal of Logic Programming, 37(1-3):139–164, 1998.
544	11.	J. Jaffar and M. Maher. Constraint logic programming: a survey. The Journal of Logic
545		Programming, 19-20(Supplement 1):503–581, 1994.
546	12.	S. Josep. A vocabulary of program slicing-based techniques. ACM Comput. Surv.,
547		44(3):12:1–12:41, June 2012.
548	13.	B. Korel and J. Laski. Dynamic program slicing. Inf. Process. Lett., 29(3):155-163, 1988.
549	14.	J. Jaff.ichael J. Maher, K. Marriott, and P. J. Stuckey. The semantics of constraint logic
550		programs. J. Log. Program., 37(1-3):1-46, 1998.
551	15.	M. Nielsen, C. Palamidessi, and F. D. Valencia. Temporal concurrent constraint program-
552		ming: Denotation, logic and applications. Nord. J. Comput., 9(1):145-188, 2002.
553	16.	C. Ochoa, J. Silva, and G. Vidal. Dynamic slicing of lazy functional programs based on
554		redex trails. Higher Order Symbol. Comput., 21(1-2):147–192, June 2008.
555	17.	C. Olarte, C. Rueda, and F. D. Valencia. Models and emerging trends of concurrent constraint
556		programming. Constraints, 18(4):535-578, 2013.
557	18.	V. A. Saraswat, R. Jagadeesan, and V. Gupta. Timed default concurrent constraint program-
558		ming. J. Symb. Comput., 22(5/6):475-520, 1996.
559	19.	V. A. Saraswat, M. C. Rinard, and P. Panangaden. Semantic foundations of concurrent con-
560		straint programming. In D. S. Wise, editor, POPL, pages 333-352. ACM Press, 1991.
561	20.	E. Shapiro. The family of concurrent logic programming languages. ACM Comput. Surv.,

- 562 21(3):413–510, 1989.
- ⁵⁶³ 21. E. Y. Shapiro. *Algorithmic Program DeBugging*. MIT Press, 1983.
- G. Szilágyi, T. Gyimóthy, and J. Maluszyński. Static and dynamic slicing of constraint logic
 programs. *Automated Software Engg.*, 9(1):41–65, 2002.
- ⁵⁶⁶ 23. C. S. Mellish W. F. Clocksin. *Programming in Prolog.* Springer Verlag, 1981.
- ⁵⁶⁷ 24. M. Weiser. Program slicing. *IEEE Trans. on Software Engineering*, 10(4):352–357, 1984.

568 A Proof of Adequacy

Theorem 1 (Adequacy) Let C by a constraint system, \mathcal{H} be a set of clauses and G be a goal. Then, $G \Downarrow_c$ iff $[\![G]\!] \Downarrow_c$.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) The proof proceeds by induction on the derivation \longrightarrow_{CLP} . Assume that 571 $(G; c) \longrightarrow_{CLP} (G'; c')$. If such reduction corresponds to adding a constraint c (cases 572 (1) and (2) in Definition 2), then it is easy to see that the process [G] can also execute the 573 corresponding tell(c) process and the result holds. Reductions of constraints represent-574 ing equality on terms ((3) in Definition 2) are matched by introducing the corresponding 575 constraint in D (Definition 3). Finally, if the reduction $(G; c) \longrightarrow_{CLP} (G'; c')$ is due 576 to the application of (3) in Definition 2, clearly we can apply the rules R_{CALL} and then 577 R_{ASK} to obtain the needed result. The (\Leftarrow) follows from similar arguments. 578

579 Marking algorithms

```
1 Function sliceProcess(\gamma, \psi, i, k, \theta, S)
               let \gamma = (X_{\gamma}; \Gamma, P; i, \Gamma'; S_{\gamma}) and \psi = (X_{\psi}; \Gamma, \Gamma_Q, \Gamma'; S_{\psi}) in
 2
                match P with
 3
 4
                         case tell(c) do
                                 let c' = sliceConstraints(X_{\gamma}, X_{\psi}, S_{\gamma}, S_{\psi}, S) in
 5
                                 if c' = \bullet or c' = \exists \overline{x} \cdot \bullet then return \langle [\bullet/i], t \rangle else return \langle [tell(c')/i], t \rangle;
 6
                         case \sum \mathbf{ask} (c_l) \mathbf{then} Q_l \mathbf{do}
                                  if \Gamma_Q \theta = \bullet then return \langle [\bullet/i], t \rangle else return \langle [ask (c_k) then (\Gamma_Q \theta) + \bullet / i], c_k \rangle;
 8
                         case (\mathbf{local} x) Q \mathbf{do}
                                 let \{x'\} = X_{\psi} \setminus X_{\gamma} in
10
                                  \text{if } \Gamma_Q[x'/x]\theta = \bullet \text{ then return } \langle [\bullet/i], t \rangle \text{ else return } \langle [(\operatorname{local} x') \, \Gamma_Q[x'/x]\theta/i], t \rangle; 
11
12
                         case p(\overline{y}) do
                                 if \Gamma_Q \theta = \bullet then return \langle [\bullet/i], t \rangle else return \langle \emptyset, t \rangle;
13
14
               end
15 end
16 Function sliceConstraints(X_{\gamma}, X_{\psi}, S_{\gamma}, S_{\psi}, S)
               let S_c = S_{\psi} \setminus S_{\gamma} and \theta = \emptyset in
foreach c_a \in S_c \setminus S do \theta \leftarrow \theta \circ [\bullet/c_a];
17
18
               return \exists_{X_{\psi} \setminus X_{\gamma}}. \bigsqcup S_c \theta
19
20 end
```

Algorithm 2: Slicing Processes and Constraints

Algorithm 2, from [8], reported above, shows the procedures to mark processes 580 and constraints during the backward slicing computation. The correctness of such algo-581 rithms can be stated as follows. The slicing procedure computes a suitable approxima-582 tion of the concrete trace. Given two processes P, P', we say that P' approximates P, 583 notation $P \leq^{\sharp} P'$, if there exists a (possibly empty) replacement θ s.t. $P' = P\theta$ (i.e., P'584 is as P but replacing some subterms with \bullet). Let $\gamma = (X; \Gamma; S)$ and $\gamma' = (X'; \Gamma'; S')$ 585 be two configurations s.t. $|\Gamma| = |\Gamma'|$. We say that γ' approximates γ , notation $\gamma \preceq^{\sharp} \gamma'$, 586 if $X' \subseteq X, S' \subseteq S$ and $P_i \preceq^{\sharp} P'_i$ for all $i \in 1..|\Gamma|$. 587

Theorem 2. (see [8]) Let $\gamma_0 \xrightarrow{[i_1]_{k_1}} \cdots \xrightarrow{[i_n]_{k_n}} \gamma_n$ be a partial computation and $\gamma'_0 \xrightarrow{[i_1]_{k_1}} \cdots \xrightarrow{[i_n]_{k_n}} \gamma'_n$ be the resulting sliced trace according to an arbitrary slicing criterion. Then, for all $t \in 1..n$, $\gamma_t \preceq^{\sharp} \gamma'_t$. Moreover, let $Q = \sum \operatorname{ask}(c_k)$ then P_k and assume that $(X_{t-1}; \Gamma, Q: i_t, \Gamma'; S_{t-1}) \xrightarrow{[i_t]_{k_t}} (X_t; \Gamma, P_{k_t}: j, \Gamma'; S_t)$ for some $t \in 1..n$. Then, $\exists X'_{t-1}(\bigsqcup S'_{t-1}) \models c_{k_t}$.