Fixpoint & Proof-theoretic Semantics
for CLP with Qualification and Proximity *

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Abstract

Uncertainty in Logic Programming has been investigated during the last decades, dealing with various extensions of the classical LP paradigm and different applications. Existing proposals rely on different approaches, such as clause annotations based on uncertain truth values, qualification values as a generalization of uncertain truth values, and unification based on proximity relations. On the other hand, the CLP scheme has established itself as a powerful extension of LP that supports efficient computation over specialized domains while keeping a clean declarative semantics. In this report we propose a new scheme SQ-CLP designed as an extension of CLP that supports qualification values and proximity relations. We show that several previous proposals can be viewed as particular cases of the new scheme, obtained by partial instantiation. We present a declarative semantics for SQCLP that is based on observables, providing fixpoint and proof-theoretical characterizations of least program models as well as an implementation-independent notion of goal solutions.

KEYWORDS: Constraint Logic Programming, Qualification Domains and Values, Proximity Relations.

1 Introduction

Many extensions of logic programming (shortly LP) to deal with uncertainty have been proposed in the last decades. A line of research not related to this report is based on probabilistic extensions of LP such as [Ng and Subrahmanian 1992]. Other proposals in the field replace classical two-valued logic by some kind of many-valued logic whose truth values can be attached to computed answers and are usually interpreted as certainty degrees. The next paragraphs summarize some relevant approaches of this kind.

There are extensions of LP using annotations in program clauses to compute a certainty degree for the head atom from the certainty degrees previously computed...

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for the body atoms. This line of research includes the seminal proposal of Quantitative Logic Programming by (van Emden 1986) and inspired later works such as the Generalized Annotated logic Programs (shortly GAP) by (Kifer and Subrahmanian 1992) and the QLP scheme for Qualified LP (Rodríguez-Artalejo and Romero-Díaz 2008b). While (van Emden 1986) and other early approaches used real numbers of the interval \([0, 1]\) as certainty degrees, QLP and GAP take elements from a parametrically given lattice to be used in annotations and attached to computed answers. In the case of QLP, the lattice is called a qualification domain and its elements (called qualification values) are not always understood as certainty degrees. As argued in (Rodríguez-Artalejo and Romero-Díaz 2008b), GAP is a more general framework, but QLP’s semantics have some advantages for its intended scope.

There are also extended LP languages based on fuzzy logic (Zadeh 1965; Hájek 1998), which can be classified into two major lines. The first line includes Fuzzy LP languages such as (Vojtáš 2001; Vaucheret et al. 2002; Guadarrama et al. 2004) and the Multi-Adjoint LP (shortly MALP) framework by (Medina et al. 2001a; Medina et al. 2001b). All these approaches extend classical LP by using clause annotations and a fuzzy interpretation of the connectives and aggregation operators occurring in program clauses and goals. There is a relationship between Fuzzy LP and GAP that has been investigated in (Krajčí et al. 2004). Intended applications of Fuzzy LP languages include expert knowledge representation.

The second line includes Similarity-based LP (shortly SLP) in the sense of (Arcelli and Formato 1999; Sessa 2002; Loia et al. 2004) and related proposals, which keep the classical syntax of LP clauses but use a similarity relation over a set of symbols \(S\) to allow “flexible” unification of syntactically different symbols with a certain approximation degree. Similarity relations over a given set \(S\) have been defined in (Zadeh 1971; Sessa 2002) and related literature as fuzzy relations represented by mappings \(S : S \times S \to [0, 1]\) which satisfy reflexivity, symmetry and transitivity axioms analogous to those required for classical equivalence relations. A more general notion called proximity relation was introduced in (Dubois and Prade 1980) by omitting the transitivity axiom. As noted by (Shenoi and Melton 1999) and other authors, the transitivity property required for similarity relations may conflict with user’s intentions in some cases. The Bousi-Prolog language (Julían-Iránzó et al. 2009; Julián-Iránzó and Rubio-Manzano 2009b; Julián-Iránzó and Rubio-Manzano 2009a) has been designed with the aim of generalizing SLP to work with proximity relations. A different generalization of SLP is the SQLP scheme (Caballero et al. 2008), designed as an extension of the QLP scheme. In addition to clause annotations in QLP style, SQLP uses a given similarity relation \(S : S \times S \to \mathcal{D}\) (where \(\mathcal{D}\) is the carrier set of a parametrically given qualification domain) in order to support flexible unification. In the sequel we use the acronym SLP as including proximity-based LP languages also. Intended applications of SLP include flexible query answering. An analogy of proximity relations in a different context (namely partial constraint satisfaction) can be found in (Freuder and Wallace 1992), where several metrics are proposed to measure the proximity between the solution sets of two different constraint satisfaction problems.

Several of the above mentioned LP extensions (including GAP, QLP, the Fuzzy
LP language in (Guadarrama et al. 2004) and SQLP) have used constraint solving as an implementation technique. However, we only know two approaches which have been conceived as extensions of the classical CLP scheme (Jaffar and Lassez 1987). Firstly, (Riezler 1996; Riezler 1998) extended the formulation of CLP by (Höhfeld and Smolka 1988) with quantitative LP in the sense of (van Emden 1986); this work was motivated by problems from the field of natural language processing. Secondly, (Bistarelli et al. 2001) proposed a semiring-based approach to CLP, where constraints are solved in a soft way with levels of consistency represented by values of a semiring. This approach was motivated by constraint satisfaction problems and implemented with clp(FD,S) in (Georget and Codognet 1998) for a particular class of semirings which enable to use local consistency algorithms. The relationship between (Riezler 1996; Riezler 1998; Bistarelli et al. 2001) and the results of this report will be further discussed in Section 4.

Finally, there are a few preliminary attempts to combine some of the above mentioned approaches with the Functional Logic Programming (shortly FLP) paradigm found in languages such as Curry (Hanus) and TOY (Arenas et al. 2007). Similarity-based unification for FLP languages has been investigated by (Moreno and Pascual 2007), while (Caballero et al. 2009) have proposed a generic scheme QCFLP designed as a common extension of the two schemes CLP and QLP with first-order FLP features.

In this report we propose a new extension of CLP that supports qualification values and proximity relations. More precisely, we define a generic scheme SQCLP whose instances SQCLP(S, D, C) are parameterized by a proximity relation S, a qualification domain D and a constraint domain C. We will show that several previous proposals can be viewed as particular cases of SQCLP, obtained by partial instantiation. Moreover, we will present a declarative semantics for SQCLP that is inspired in the observable CLP semantics by (Gabbrielli and Levi 1991) and provides fixpoint and proof-theoretical characterizations of least program models as well as an implementation-independent notion of goal solution that can be used to specify the expected behavior of goal solving systems.

The reader is assumed to be familiar with the semantic foundations of LP (Lloyd 1987; Apt 1990) and CLP (Jaffar and Lassez 1987; Jaffar et al. 1998). The rest of the report is structured as follows: Section 2 introduces constraint domains, qualification domains and proximity relations. Section 3 presents the SQCLP scheme and the main results on its declarative semantics. Finally, Section 4 concludes by giving an overview of related approaches (many of which can be viewed as particular cases of SQCLP) and pointing to some lines open for future work.

### 2 Constraints, Qualification & Proximity

#### 2.1 Constraint Domains

The Constraint Logic Programming paradigm (CLP) was introduced in (Jaffar and Lassez 1987) with the aim of generalizing the Herbrand Universe which underlies classical Logic Programming (LP) to other domains tailored to specific applica-
tion areas. In this seminal paper, CLP was introduced as a generic scheme with instances CLP(\(C\)) parameterized by constraint domains \(C\), each of which supplies several items: a constraint language providing a class of domain specific formulae, called constraints and serving as logical conditions in CLP(\(C\)) programs and computations; a constraint structure serving as interpretation of the constraint language; a constraint theory serving as a basis for proof-theoretical deduction with constraints; and a constraint solver for checking constraint satisfiability. Certain assumptions were made to ensure the proper relationship between the constraint language, structure, theory and solver, so that the classical results on the operational and declarative semantics of LP [Lloyd 1987; Apt 1990] could be extended to all the CLP(\(C\)) languages. A revised and updated presentation of the main results from (Jaffar and Lassez 1987) can be found in (Jaffar et al. 1998), while a survey of CLP as a programming paradigm is given in (Jaffar and Maher 1994).

The notion of constraint domain is a key ingredient of the CLP scheme. In addition to the classical formulation in (Jaffar and Lassez 1987; Jaffar et al. 1998), other formalizations have been used for different purposes. Some significative examples are: the CLP scheme proposed in (Höhfeld and Smolka 1988), motivated by applications to computational linguistics and allowing more than one constraint structure to come along with a given constraint language; the proof-theoretical notion of constraint system given in (Saraswat 1992), intended for application to concurrent constraint languages; and the constraint systems proposed in (Lucio et al. 2008) as the basis of a functorial semantics for CLP with negation, where a single constraint structure is replaced by a class of elementary equivalent structures.

In this paper we will use a simple notion of constraint domain, motivated by three main considerations: firstly, to focus on declarative semantics, rather than proof-theoretic or operational issues; secondly, to provide a purely relational framework; and thirdly, to clarify the interplay between domain-specific programming resources such as basic values and primitive predicates, and general-purpose programming resources such as data constructors and defined predicates.

2.1.1 Preliminary notions

Before presenting constraint domains in a formal way, let us introduce some mainly syntactic notions that will be used all along the paper.

Definition 2.1 (Signatures)
We assume a universal programming signature \(\Gamma = (DC, DP)\) where \(DC = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} DC^n\) and \(DP = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} DP^n\) are infinite and mutually disjoint sets of free function symbols (called data constructors in the sequel) and defined predicate symbols, respectively, ranked by arities. We will use domain specific signatures \(\Sigma = (DC, DP, PP)\) extending \(\Gamma\) with a disjoint set \(PP = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} PP^n\) of primitive predicate symbols, also ranked by arities. The idea is that primitive predicates come along with constraint domains, while defined predicates are specified in user programs. Each \(PP^n\) maybe any countable set of \(n\)-ary predicate symbols. In practice, \(PP\) is expected to be a finite set.
In the sequel, we assume that any signature $\Sigma$ includes two nullary constructors $\text{true}, \text{false} \in DC^0$ to represent the boolean values, a binary constructor $\text{pair} \in DC^2$ to represent ordered pairs, as well as constructors to represent lists and other common data structures. Given a signature $\Sigma$, a set $B$ of basic values $u$ and a countably infinite set $\text{Var}$ of variables $X$, terms and atoms are built as defined below, where $\mathcal{S}_n$ abbreviates the $n$-tuple of syntactic objects $o_1, \ldots, o_n$ and $\text{var}(o)$ denotes the set of all variables occurring in the syntactic object $o$.

Definition 2.2 (Terms and atoms)

- **Constructor Terms** $t \in \text{Term}(\Sigma, B, \text{Var})$ have the syntax $t ::= X | u | c(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$, where $c \in DC^n$. They will be called just terms in the sequel. In concrete examples, we will use Prolog syntax for terms built with list constructors, and we will write $(t_1, t_2)$ rather than $\text{pair}(t_1, t_2)$ for terms representing ordered pairs.

- The set of all the variables occurring in $t$ is noted as $\text{var}(t)$. A term $t$ is called *ground* iff $\text{var}(t) = \emptyset$. $\text{Term}(\Sigma, B)$ stands for the set of all ground terms.

- **Atoms** $A \in \text{At}(\Sigma, B, \text{Var})$ can be defined atoms $r(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$, where $r \in DP^n$ and $t_i \in \text{Term}(\Sigma, B, \text{Var})$ (1 $\leq$ $i$ $\leq$ $n$); primitive atoms $p(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$, where $p \in PP^n$ and $t_i \in \text{Term}(\Sigma, B, \text{Var})$ (1 $\leq$ $i$ $\leq$ $n$); and equations $t_1 \equiv t_2$, where $t_1, t_2 \in \text{Term}(\Sigma, B, \text{Var})$ and $\equiv$ is the equality symbol, which does not belong to the signature $\Sigma$. Primitive atoms are noted as $\kappa$ and the set of all primitive atoms is noted $\text{PAt}(\Sigma, B, \text{Var})$. Equations and primitive atoms are collectively called *C-based atoms*.

- The set of all the variables occurring in $A$ is noted as $\text{var}(A)$. An atom $A$ is called *ground* iff $\text{var}(A) = \emptyset$. The set of all ground atoms (resp. ground primitive atoms) is noted as $\text{GAt}(\Sigma, B)$ (resp. $\text{GPAt}(\Sigma, B)$).

Note that the equality symbol $\equiv$ used as part of the syntax of equational atoms is not the same as the symbol $=$ generally used for mathematical equality. In particular, metalevel equations $o = o'$ can be used to assert the identity of two syntactical objects $o$ and $o'$.

Following well-known ideas, the syntactical structure of terms and atoms can be represented by means of trees with nodes labeled by signature symbols, basic values and variables. In the sequel we will use the notation $\|t\|$ to denote the *syntactical size* of $t$ measured as the number of nodes in the tree representation of $t$. The positions of nodes in this tree can be noted as finite sequences $p$ of natural numbers. In particular, the empty sequence $\varepsilon$ represents the root position. The next definition presents essential notions concerning positions in terms. Positions in atoms can be treated similarly.

Definition 2.3 (Positions)

1. The set $\text{pos}(t)$ of positions of the term $t$ is defined by recursion on the structure of $t$:

   - $\text{pos}(X) = \{\varepsilon\}$ for each variable $X \in \text{Var}$.
   - $\text{pos}(u) = \{\varepsilon\}$ for each basic value $u \in B$.
   - $\text{pos}(c(t_1, \ldots, t_n)) = \{\varepsilon\} \cup \bigcup_{i=1}^n \{iq \mid q \in \text{pos}(t_i)\}$ for each $c \in DC^n$. 

2. Given \( p \in \text{pos}(t) \), the symbol \( t \circ p \) of \( t \) at position \( p \) is defined recursively:
   - \( X \circ \varepsilon = X \) for each variable \( X \in \text{Var} \).
   - \( u \circ \varepsilon = u \) for each basic value \( u \in B \).
   - \( c(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \circ \varepsilon = c \) if \( c \in DC^n \).
   - \( c(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \circ i q = t_i \circ q \) if \( c \in DC^n \), \( 1 \leq i \leq n \) and \( q \in \text{pos}(t_i) \).

3. Given \( p \in \text{pos}(t) \), the subterm \( t|_p \) of \( t \) at position \( p \) is defined as follows:
   - \( t|_p = t \) for any \( t \).
   - \( c(t_1, \ldots, t_n)|_q = t_i|_q \) if \( c \in DC^n \), \( 1 \leq i \leq n \) and \( q \in \text{pos}(t_i) \).

4. \( p \in \text{pos}(t) \) is called a \textit{variable position} of \( t \) iff \( t|p \) is a variable, and a \textit{rigid position} of \( t \) otherwise. We define \( \text{vpos}(t) = \{ p \in \text{pos}(t) \mid p \text{ is a variable position} \} \) and \( \text{rpos}(t) = \{ p \in \text{pos}(t) \mid p \text{ is a rigid position} \} \).

5. Given \( p \in \text{vpos}(t) \) and another term \( s \), the result of replacing \( s \) for the subterm of \( t \) at position \( p \) is noted as \( t[s]|_p \). See e.g. \cite{Baader} for a recursive definition.

As usual, \textit{substitutions} are defined as mappings \( \sigma : \text{Var} \to \text{Term}(\Sigma, B, \text{Var}) \) assigning terms to variables. The set of all substitutions is noted as \( \text{Subst}(\Sigma, B, \text{Var}) \). Substitutions are extended to act over terms and other syntactic objects \( o \) in the natural way. By convention, the result of replacing each variable \( X \) occurring in \( o \) by \( \sigma(X) \) is noted as \( o \sigma \). Other common notions concerning substitutions are defined as follows:

\textbf{Definition 2.4 (Notions concerning Substitutions)}

- The \textit{composition} \( \sigma \sigma' \) of two substitutions is such that \( o(\sigma \sigma') \) equals \( (o \sigma) \sigma' \).
- For a given \( \sigma \in \text{Subst}(\Sigma, B, \text{Var}) \), the \textit{domain} \( \text{dom}(\sigma) \) is defined as \( \{ X \in \text{Var} \mid X \sigma \neq X \} \), and the \textit{variable range} \( \text{var}(\sigma) \) is defined as \( \bigcup_{X \in \text{dom}(\sigma)} \text{var}(X \sigma) \).
- A substitution \( \sigma \) is called \textit{ground} iff \( X \sigma \) is a ground term for all \( X \in \text{dom}(\sigma) \). The set of all ground substitutions is noted \( \text{GSubst}(\Sigma, B) \).
- A substitution \( \sigma \) is called \textit{finite} iff \( \text{dom}(\sigma) \) is a finite set, say \( \{ X_1, \ldots, X_k \} \). In this case, \( \sigma \) can be represented as the \textit{set of bindings} \( \{ X_1 \mapsto t_1, \ldots, X_k \mapsto t_k \} \), where \( t_i = X_i \sigma \) for all \( 1 \leq i \leq k \).
- Assume two substitutions \( \sigma, \sigma' \), a set of variables \( \mathcal{X} \) and a variable \( \mathcal{Y} \). The notation \( \sigma =_{\mathcal{X}} \sigma' \) means that \( X \sigma = X \sigma' \) holds for all variables \( X \in \mathcal{X} \). We also write \( \sigma =_{\mathcal{Y} \setminus \mathcal{X}} \sigma' \) and \( \sigma =_{\mathcal{Y} \setminus \mathcal{X} \setminus \mathcal{Y}} \sigma' \) to abbreviate \( \sigma =_{\text{Var} \setminus \mathcal{X}} \sigma' \) and \( \sigma =_{\text{Var} \setminus \{ \mathcal{Y} \}} \sigma' \), respectively.

\textit{2.1.2 Constraint domains, constraints and their solutions}

We are now prepared to present constraint domains as mathematical structures providing a set of basic values along with an terms and an interpretation of primitive predicates\(^1\). The formal definition is as follows:

\(^1\) As we will see in Section 3, the interpretation of defined predicate symbols is program dependent.
Definition 2.5 (Constraint Domains)

A Constraint Domain of signature \( \Sigma \) is any relational structure of the form \( \mathcal{C} = \langle C, \{ p^C \mid p \in PP \} \rangle \) such that:

1. The carrier set \( C \) is Term(\( \Sigma \), \( B \)) for a certain set \( B \) of basic values. When convenient, we note \( B \) and \( C \) as \( B^C \) and \( C^C \), respectively.
2. \( p^C : C^n \rightarrow \{ 0, 1 \} \), written simply as \( p^C \in \{ 0, 1 \} \) in the case \( n = 0 \), is called the interpretation of \( p \) in \( C \). A ground primitive atom \( p(\tilde{t}_n) \) is true in \( C \) iff \( p^C(\tilde{t}_n) = 1 \); otherwise \( p(\tilde{t}_n) \) is false in \( C \).

For the examples in this paper we will use a constraint domain \( \mathcal{R} \) which allows to work with arithmetic constraints over the real numbers, as formalized in Definition 2.6 below.

Definition 2.6 (The Real Constraint Domain \( \mathcal{R} \))

The constraint domain \( \mathcal{R} \) is defined to include:

- The set of basic values \( B_\mathcal{R} = \mathbb{R} \). Note that \( C_\mathcal{R} \) includes ground terms built from real values and data constructors, in addition to real numbers.
- Primitive predicates for encoding the usual arithmetic operations over \( \mathbb{R} \). For instance, the addition operation \( + \) over \( \mathbb{R} \) is encoded by a ternary primitive predicate \( op_+ \) such that, for any \( t_1, t_2 \in C_\mathcal{R} \), \( op_+(t_1, t_2, t) \) is true in \( \mathcal{R} \) iff \( t_1, t_2, t \in \mathbb{R} \) and \( t_1 + t_2 = t \). In particular, \( op_+(t_1, t_2, t) \) is false in \( \mathcal{R} \) if either \( t_1 \) or \( t_2 \) includes data constructors. The primitive predicates encoding other arithmetic operations such as \( \times \) and \( - \) are defined analogously.
- Primitive predicates for encoding the usual inequality relations over \( \mathbb{R} \). For instance, the ordering \( \leq \) over \( \mathbb{R} \) is encoded by a binary primitive predicate \( cp_\leq \) such that, for any \( t_1, t_2 \in C_\mathcal{R} \), \( cp_\leq(t_1, t_2) \) is true in \( \mathcal{R} \) iff \( t_1, t_2, t \in \mathbb{R} \) and \( t_1 \leq t_2 \). In particular, \( cp_\leq(t_1, t_2) \) is false in \( \mathcal{R} \) if either \( t_1 \) or \( t_2 \) includes data constructors. The primitive predicates encoding the other inequality relations, namely \( > \), \( \geq \), \( \leq \) and \( \geq \), are defined analogously.

The domain \( \mathcal{R} \) is well known as the basis of the CLP(\( \mathcal{R} \)) language and system (Jaffar et al. 1992). Some presentations of \( \mathcal{R} \) known in the literature represent the arithmetical operations by using primitive functions instead of primitive predicates. In this paper we have chosen to work in a purely relational framework in order to simplify some technicalities without loss of real expressivity.

Other useful instances of constraint domains are known in the Constraint Programming literature; see e.g. (Jaffar and Maher 1994; López-Fraguas et al. 2007). In particular, the Herbrand domain \( \mathcal{H} \) is intended to work just with equality constraints, while \( \mathcal{FD} \) allows to work with constraints involving finite domain variables. The set of basic values of \( \mathcal{FD} \) is \( \mathbb{Z} \). There are also known techniques for combining several given constraint domains into a more expressive one; see e.g. the coordination domains defined in (Estévez-Martín et al. 2009).

The following definition introduces constraints over a given domain:
Definition 2.7 (Constraints and Their Solutions)

Given a constraint domain \( \mathcal{C} \) of signature \( \Sigma \):

1. **Atomic constraints** over \( \mathcal{C} \) are of two kinds: primitive atoms \( p(\overline{t}_n) \) and equations \( t_1 == t_2 \).

2. **Compound constraints** are built from atomic constraints using logical conjunction \( \land \), existential quantification \( \exists \), and sometimes other logical operations. Constraints of the form \( \exists X_1 \ldots \exists X_n (B_1 \land \ldots \land B_m) \) —where \( B_j \) (\( 1 \leq j \leq m \)) are atomic— are called *existential*. The set of all constraints over \( \mathcal{C} \) is noted \( \text{Con}_\mathcal{C} \).

3. Substitutions \( \sigma : \text{Var} \to \text{Term}(\Sigma, B, \text{Var}) \) where \( \text{Term}(\Sigma, B, \text{Var}) \) is built using the set \( B_\mathcal{C} \) of basic values are called \( \mathcal{C} \)-substitutions. Ground substitutions \( \eta \in \text{GSubst}(\Sigma, B) \) are called variable valuations. The set of all possible variable valuations is noted \( \text{Val}_\mathcal{C} \).

4. **The solution set** \( \text{Sol}_\mathcal{C}(\pi) \) of a constraint \( \pi \in \text{Con}_\mathcal{C} \) is defined by recursion on \( \pi \)'s syntactic structure as follows:
   - If \( \pi \) is a primitive atom \( p(\overline{t}_n) \), then \( \text{Sol}_\mathcal{C}(\pi) \) is the set of all \( \eta \in \text{Val}_\mathcal{C} \) such that \( p(\overline{t}_n)\eta \) is ground and true in \( \mathcal{C} \).
   - If \( \pi \) is an equation \( t_1 == t_2 \), then \( \text{Sol}_\mathcal{C}(\pi) \) is the set of all \( \eta \in \text{Val}_\mathcal{C} \) such that \( t_1\eta \) and \( t_2\eta \) are ground and syntactically identical terms.
   - If \( \pi \) is \( \pi_1 \land \pi_2 \) then \( \text{Sol}_\mathcal{C}(\pi) = \text{Sol}_\mathcal{C}(\pi_1) \cap \text{Sol}_\mathcal{C}(\pi_2) \).
   - If \( \pi \) is \( \exists X \pi' \) then \( \text{Sol}_\mathcal{C}(\pi) \) is the set of all \( \eta \in \text{Val}_\mathcal{C} \) such that \( \eta' \in \text{Sol}_\mathcal{C}(\pi') \) holds for some \( \eta' \in \text{Val}_\mathcal{C} \) verifying \( \eta =_{\mathcal{C}} \eta' \).

   \( \pi \) is called *satisfiable* over \( \mathcal{C} \) iff \( \text{Sol}_\mathcal{C}(\pi) \neq \emptyset \), and \( \pi \) is called *unsatisfiable* over \( \mathcal{C} \) iff \( \text{Sol}_\mathcal{C}(\pi) = \emptyset \).

5. **The solution set** \( \text{Sol}_\mathcal{C}(\Pi) \) of a set \( \Pi \) of constraints is defined as \( \bigcap_{\pi \in \Pi} \text{Sol}_\mathcal{C}(\pi) \). In this way, finite sets of constraints are interpreted as the conjunction of their members. \( \Pi \) is called *satisfiable* over \( \mathcal{C} \) iff \( \text{Sol}_\mathcal{C}(\Pi) \neq \emptyset \), and \( \Pi \) is called *unsatisfiable* over \( \mathcal{C} \) iff \( \text{Sol}_\mathcal{C}(\Pi) = \emptyset \).

6. A constraint \( \pi \) is *entailed* by a set of constraints \( \Pi \) (in symbols, \( \Pi \models_\mathcal{C} \pi \)) iff \( \text{Sol}_\mathcal{C}(\Pi) \subseteq \text{Sol}_\mathcal{C}(\pi) \).

The following example illustrates the previous definition:

**Example 2.1 (Constraint solutions and constraint entailment over \( \mathcal{R} \))**

Consider the set of constraints \( \Pi = \{ cp_\geq (A, 3.0), op_+ (A, A, X), op_\times (2.0, A, Y) \} \subseteq \text{Con}_\mathcal{R} \). Then:

1. For any valuation \( \eta \in \text{Val}_\mathcal{R} \): \( \eta \in \text{Sol}_\mathcal{R}(\Pi) \) holds iff \( \eta(A), \eta(X) \) and \( \eta(Y) \) are real numbers \( a, x, y \in \mathbb{R} \) such that \( a \geq 3.0, a + a = x \) and \( 2.0 \times a = y \).

2. Due to the previous item, the following \( \mathcal{R} \)-entailments are valid:
   - (a) \( \Pi \models_\mathcal{R} cp_\geq (X, 5.5) \), because \( \text{Sol}_\mathcal{R}(\Pi) \subseteq \text{Sol}_\mathcal{R}(cp_\geq (X, 5.5)) \).
   - (b) \( \Pi \models_\mathcal{R} X == Y \), because \( \text{Sol}_\mathcal{R}(\Pi) \subseteq \text{Sol}_\mathcal{R}(X == Y) \).
   - (c) \( \Pi \models_\mathcal{R} c(X) == c(Y) \), because \( \text{Sol}_\mathcal{R}(\Pi) \subseteq \text{Sol}_\mathcal{R}(c(X) == c(Y)) \).

Here we assume \( c \in DC^1 \).
(d) $\Pi \models_R [X,Y] == [Y,X]$, because $\text{Sol}_R(\Pi) \subseteq \text{Sol}_R([X,Y] == [Y,X])$. Here, the terms $[X,Y]$ and $[Y,X]$ are built from variables and list constructors.

The next technical result will be useful later on:

**Lemma 2.1 (Substitution Lemma)**

Assume a set of constraints $\Pi \subseteq \text{Con}_C$ and a $C$-substitution $\sigma$. Then:

1. For any valuation $\eta \in \text{Val}_C$: $\eta \in \text{Sol}_C(\Pi) \iff \sigma \eta \in \text{Sol}_C(\Pi)$.
2. For any constraint $\pi \in \text{Con}_C$: $\Pi |_C \pi \implies \Pi |_C \pi \sigma$.

**Proof**

Let us give a separate reasoning for each item.

1. The following statement holds for any constraint $\pi \in \text{Con}_C$:

   ($\star$) $\eta \in \text{Sol}_C(\pi \sigma) \iff \sigma \eta \in \text{Sol}_C(\pi)$

   In fact, ($\star$) can be easily proved reasoning by induction on the syntactic structure of $\pi$. Now, using ($\star$) we can reason as follows:

   $\eta \in \text{Sol}_C(\pi \sigma) \iff \eta \in \text{Sol}_C(\pi \sigma)$ for all $\pi \in \Pi \iff (\star)$

   $\sigma \eta \in \text{Sol}_C(\pi)$ for all $\pi \in \Pi \iff \sigma \eta \in \text{Sol}_C(\Pi)$

2. Assume $\Pi |_C \pi$. For the sake of proving $\Pi |_C \pi \sigma$, also assume an arbitrary $\eta \in \text{Sol}_C(\Pi \sigma)$. Then we get $\sigma \eta \in \text{Sol}_C(\Pi)$ because of item 1 and $\sigma \eta \in \text{Sol}_C(\pi)$ due to the assumption $\Pi |_C \pi$, which implies $\eta \in \text{Sol}_C(\pi \sigma)$ again because of item 1. Since $\eta$ is arbitrary, we have proved $\text{Sol}_C(\Pi \sigma) \subseteq \text{Sol}_C(\pi \sigma)$, i.e. $\Pi \sigma |_C \pi \sigma$.

2.1.3 Term equivalence w.r.t. a given constraint set

Given two terms $t, s$ we will use the notation $t \approx_{\Pi} s$ (read as $t$ and $s$ are $\Pi$-equivalent) as an abbreviation of $\Pi |_C t == s$, assuming that the constraint domain $C$ and the constraint set $\Pi \subseteq \text{Con}_C$ are known. For the sake of simplicity, $C$ is not made explicit in the $\approx_{\Pi}$ notation. In this subsection we present some properties related to $\approx_{\Pi}$ which will be needed later. First, we prove that $\approx_{\Pi}$ is an equivalence relation with a natural characterization.

**Lemma 2.2 ($\Pi$-Equivalence Lemma)**

1. $\approx_{\Pi}$ is an equivalence relation over $\text{Term}(\Sigma, B, \text{Var})$.
2. For any given terms $t$ and $s$ the following two statements are equivalent:

   (a) $t \approx_{\Pi} s$.

   (b) For any common position $p \in \text{pos}(t) \cap \text{pos}(s)$ some of the cases below holds:

      i. $t \circ p$ or $s \circ p$ is a variable, and moreover $t|_p \approx_{\Pi} s|_p$.

      ii. $t \circ p = s \circ p = u$ for some $u \in B_C$.

      iii. $t \circ p = s \circ p = c$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and some $c \in DC^n$.

3. $\approx_{\Pi}$ boils down to the syntactic equality relation $=$ when $\Pi$ is the empty set.
Proof
We give a separate reasoning for each item.

1. Checking that $\approx_{\Pi}$ satisfies the axioms of an equivalence relation (i.e. \textit{reflexivity}, \textit{symmetry} and \textit{transitivity}) is quite obvious.

2. Due to Definition \ref{equivalence relation}, $t \approx_{\Pi} s$ holds iff $t\eta$ and $s\eta$ are identical ground terms for each $\eta \in \text{Sol}_C(\Pi)$. This statement can be proved equivalent to condition 2.(b) reasoning by induction on $\|t\| + \|s\|$.

3. Note that $t \approx_{\emptyset} s$ holds iff $t\eta$ and $s\eta$ are identical ground terms for each $\eta \in \text{Sol}_C(\emptyset) = \text{Val}_C$. This can happen iff $t$ and $s$ are syntactically identical.

Since the set $\text{Var}$ of all variables is countably infinite, we can assume an arbitrarily fixed bijective mapping $\text{ord} : \text{Var} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$. By convention, $\text{ord}(X)$ is called the ordinal number of $X$. The notions defined below rely on this convention.

\textbf{Definition 2.8 (\Pi-Canonical Variables and Terms)}

1. A variable $X$ is called $\Pi$-canonical iff there is no other variable $X'$ such that $X \approx_{\Pi} X'$ and $\text{ord}(X') < \text{ord}(X)$.

2. For each variable $X$ its $\Pi$-canonical form $\text{cf}_\Pi(X)$ is defined as the member of the set $\{X' \in \text{Var} \mid X \approx_{\Pi} X'\}$ with the least ordinal number.

3. A term $t$ is called $\Pi$-canonical iff all the variables occurring in $t$ are $\Pi$-canonical.

4. For each term $t$ its $\Pi$-canonical form $\text{cf}_\Pi(t)$ is defined as the result of replacing $\text{cf}_\Pi(X)$ for each variable $X$ occurring in $t$.

The following lemma states some obvious properties of terms in canonical form:

\textbf{Lemma 2.3 (\Pi-Canonicity Lemma)}

For each term $t$, $\text{cf}_\Pi(t)$ is $\Pi$-canonical and such that $t \approx_{\Pi} \text{cf}_\Pi(t)$. Moreover, $t$ and $\text{cf}_\Pi(t)$ have the same positions and structure, except that each variable $X$ occurring at some position $p \in \text{vpos}(t)$ is replaced by an occurrence of $\text{cf}_\Pi(X)$ at the same position $p$ in $\text{cf}_\Pi(t)$.

\textbf{Proof}

Straightforward consequence of the construction of $\text{cf}_\Pi(t)$ from $t$ and the $\Pi$-Equivalence Lemma \ref{equivalence lemma}.

Given two terms $t$ and $s$, the term built from $t$ by replacing within $t$ each variable $X$ occurring at some position $p \in \text{vpos}(t) \cap \text{pos}(s)$ by the subterm $s|_p$ is called the extension of $t \text{ w.r.t.} s$ and noted as $t \ll s$ (or equivalently, $s \gg t$). A more precise definition of this notion and some related properties are given below.

\textbf{Definition 2.9 (Term extension)}

Given any two terms $t$ and $s$, the extension of $t \text{ w.r.t.} s$ is defined by recursion on the syntactical structure of $t$:

\begin{itemize}
  \item $X \ll s = s$ for each variable $X \in \text{Var}$.
  \item $u \ll s = u$ for each basic value $u \in B$.
\end{itemize}
• \(c(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \ll s = c(t_1 \ll s_1, \ldots, t_n \ll s_n)\) if \(c \in DC^n\) and there is some \(c' \in DC^n\) such that \(s = c'(s_1, \ldots, s_n)\).

• \(c(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \ll s = c(t_1, \ldots, t_n)\) if \(c \in DC^n\) and there is no \(c' \in DC^n\) such that \(s = c'(s_1, \ldots, s_n)\).  

\[\square\]

Lemma 2.4 (Extension Lemma)
The term extension operation \(\ll\) enjoys the two following properties:

1. Symmetrical Extension Property:
   Let \(t', t''\) be \(\Pi\)-canonical terms such that \(t' \approx_{\Pi} t''\). Under this assumption \((t' \ll t'') = (t'' \ll t')\).

2. \(\Pi\)-Equivalence Extension Property:
   Let the terms \(t, s\) be such that for any \(p \in \text{pos}(t)\) with \(t|_p = X \in \text{Var}\) one has \(p \in \text{pos}(s)\) and \(X \approx_{\Pi} s|_p\). Under this assumption \(t \approx_{\Pi} (t \ll s)\).

Proof of Symmetrical Extension Property
Recall that the hypothesis \(t' \approx_{\Pi} t''\) means that \(\Pi \models c\ t' \approx t''\). We reason by complete induction on \(\|t'\| + \|t''\|\). There are five possible cases:

1. \(t' = t''\) is \(c'\(\overline{t}_n\) = c'(\overline{t}_n)\) for some \(n \in \mathbb{N}\), \(c', c'' \in DC^n\). In this case, the \(\Pi\)-Equivalence Lemma ensures that \(c' = c'' = c \in DC^n\) and \(t'_i \approx_{\Pi} t''_i\) holds for all \(1 \leq i \leq n\). Clearly, the terms \(t'_i, t''_i\) are \(\Pi\)-canonical. Therefore, by induction hypothesis we can assume \((t'_i \ll t''_i) = (t''_i \ll t'_i)\) for all \(1 \leq i \leq n\). Then, by definition of \(\ll\) we get \(t' \ll t'' = c(t'_1 \ll t''_1, \ldots, t'_n \ll t''_n) = c(t''_1 \ll t'_1, \ldots, t''_n \ll t'_n) = t'' \ll t'\).

2. \(t' = u' \ll u''\) is \(u''\) for some \(u', u'' \in B\). In this case, \(u' \approx_{\Pi} u''\) implies that \(u' = u'' = u \in B\), and by definition of \(\ll\) we get \(t' \ll t'' = t'' \ll t' = u \ll u = u\).

3. \(t' = t''\) is \(X = Y\) for some \(X, Y \in \text{Var}\). In this case, \(X \approx_{\Pi} Y\) and \(X, Y\)-canonical implies that \(X, Y\) must be identical variables. By definition of \(\ll\) we get \(t' \ll t'' = t'' \ll t' = X \ll X = X\).

4. \(t' = t''\) is \(X = Y\) with \(X \in \text{Var}, t' \notin \text{Var}\). In this case, by definition of \(\ll\) we get \(t' \ll t'' = X \ll t'' = t'' \ll t' = X \ll X = X = t''\).

5. \(t' = t''\) is \(t' = Y\) with \(Y \in \text{Var}, t' \notin \text{Var}\). In this case, by definition of \(\ll\) we get \(t' \ll t'' = t' \ll Y = t'' = t'' \ll t' = Y \ll t' = t'\).  

\[\square\]

Proof of \(\Pi\)-Equivalence Extension Property
Recall that the thesis \(t \approx_{\Pi} (t \ll s)\) means that \(\Pi \models c\ t \approx (t \ll s)\). We reason by complete induction on \(\|t\|\). There are four possible cases:

1. \(t\) is a variable \(X \in \text{Var}\). In this case, \(X \ll s = s\) by definition of \(\ll\), and \(X \approx_{\Pi} s\) holds by hypothesis.

2. \(t\) is a basic value \(u \in B\). In this case, \(u \ll s = u\) by definition of \(\ll\), and \(u \approx_{\Pi} u\) holds trivially.

3. \(t = c(\overline{t}_n)\) for some \(c \in DC^n\) and there is no \(c' \in DC^n\) such that \(s\) has the form \(c'(\overline{s}_n)\). In this case, \(c(\overline{t}_n) \ll s = c(\overline{t}_n)\) by definition of \(\ll\), and \(c(\overline{t}_n) \approx_{\Pi} c(\overline{t}_n)\) holds trivially.
4. \( t \) is \( c(t_n) \) for some \( c \in DC^n \) and \( s \) is \( c'(s_n) \) for some \( c' \in DC^n \). In this case \( c(t_n) \ll c'(s_n) = c(t_1 \ll s_1, \ldots, t_n \ll s_n) \) by definition of \( \ll \). Moreover, the assumptions of the \( \Pi \)-Equivalent Extension Property hold for the smaller terms \( t_i, s_i (1 \leq i \leq n) \). By induction hypothesis we can assume \( t_i \approx_{\Pi} t_i \ll s_i \) for all \( 1 \leq i \leq n \). Therefore, \( c(t_n) \approx_{\Pi} c(t_1 \ll s_1, \ldots, t_n \ll s_n) \) due to the \( \Pi \)-Equivalence Lemma 2.2.

2.2 Qualification Domains

The intended role of Qualification Domains in an extended logic programming scheme SQCLP have been already explained in the Introduction. They were originally introduced in (Rodríguez-Artalejo and Romero-Díaz 2008b) and their axiomatic definition was extended with axioms for an additional operation \( \odot \) in (Rodriguez-Artalejo and Romero-Díaz 2009) in order to enable a particular implementation technique for program clauses with threshold conditions in their bodies. The definition given below is again closer to the original one: \( \odot \) is omitted and the axioms of the operator \( \circ \) are slightly refined.

Definition 2.10 (Qualification Domains)

A Qualification Domain is any structure \( \mathcal{D} = \langle D, \sqsubseteq, b, t, \circ \rangle \) verifying the following requirements:

1. \( D \), noted as \( D_{\mathcal{D}} \) when convenient, is a set of elements called qualification values.
2. \( \langle D, \sqsubseteq, b, t \rangle \) is a lattice with extreme points \( b \) (called infimum or bottom element) and \( t \) (called maximum or top element) w.r.t. the partial ordering \( \sqsubseteq \), called qualification ordering. For given elements \( d, e \in D \), we write \( d \sqcap e \) for the greatest lower bound (glb) of \( d \) and \( e \), and \( d \sqcup e \) for the least upper bound (lub) of \( d \) and \( e \). We also write \( d \sqsubset e \) as abbreviation for \( d \sqsubseteq e \land d \neq e \).
3. \( \circ : D \times D \rightarrow D \), called attenuation operation, verifies the following axioms:

   (a) \( \circ \) is associative, commutative and monotonic w.r.t. \( \sqsubseteq \).
   (b) \( \forall d \in D : d \circ t = d \).
   (c) \( \forall d \in D : d \circ b = b \).
   (d) \( \forall d, e \in D : d \circ e \sqsubseteq e \).
   (e) \( \forall d, e_1, e_2 \in D : d \circ (e_1 \sqcap e_2) = (d \circ e_1) \sqcap (d \circ e_2) \). □

Actually, some of the properties of \( \circ \) postulated as axioms in the previous definition are redundant. More precisely:

Proposition 2.1 (Redundant postulates of Qualification Domains)

The properties (3)(c) and (3)(d) are redundant and can be derived from the other axioms in Definition 2.10.

\footnote{The authors are thankful to G. Gerla for pointing out this fact.}
Proof

Note that ◦ is commutative and monotonic w.r.t. ≤ because of axiom (3)(a). Since t is the top element of the lattice, d ≤ t holds for any d ∈ D. By monotonicity of ◦, d ◦ e ≤ t ◦ e also holds for any e ∈ D. By commutativity of ◦ and axiom (3)(b), d ◦ e ≤ t ◦ e is the same as d ◦ e ≤ e. Therefore (3)(d) is a consequence of the other axioms postulated for ◦. In particular, taking e = b we get d ◦ b ≤ b, which implies d ◦ b = b because b is the bottom element of the lattice. Hence, (3)(c) also follows form the other axioms. □

In the rest of the report, D will generally denote an arbitrary qualification domain. For any finite \(S = \{e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n\} \subseteq D\), the greatest lower bound (also called infimum of \(S\) and noted as \(\bigwedge S\) exists and can be computed as \(e_1 \cap e_2 \cap \cdots \cap e_n\) (which reduces to \(\top\) in the case \(n = 0\)). The dual claim concerning least upper bounds is also true. As an easy consequence of the axioms, one gets the identity 
\[d ◦ \bigwedge S = \bigwedge \{d ◦ e | e \in S\}\].

Many useful qualification domains are such that \(∀d, e \in D \setminus \{b\}: d ◦ e ≠ b\). In the sequel, any qualification domain D that verifies this property will be called stable. Below we present some basic qualification domains which are clearly stable, along with brief explanations of their role for building extended CLP languages as instances of the SQCLP scheme proposed in this report. Checking that these domains satisfy the axioms given in Def. 2.10 is left as an easy exercise. In fact, the axioms have been chosen as a natural generalization of some basic properties satisfied by the ordering ≤ and the operation × over the real interval \([0, 1]\).

2.2.1 The Domain \(\mathcal{B}\) of Classical Boolean Values

This domain is \(\mathcal{B} =_{\text{def}} \langle \{0, 1\}, \leq, 0, 1, \wedge \rangle\), where 0 and 1 stand for the two classical truth values false and true, \(\leq\) is the usual numerical ordering over \(\{0, 1\}\), and \(\wedge\) stands for the classical conjunction operation over \(\{0, 1\}\).

2.2.2 The Domain \(\mathcal{U}\) of Uncertainty Values and its variant \(\mathcal{U}'\)

This domain is \(\mathcal{U} =_{\text{def}} \langle U, \leq, 0, 1, \times \rangle\), where \(U = [0, 1] = \{d \in \mathbb{R} | 0 ≤ d ≤ 1\}\), \(\leq\) is the usual numerical ordering, and \(\times\) is the multiplication operation. The top element t is 1 and the greatest lower bound \(\bigwedge S\) of a finite \(S \subseteq U\) is the minimum value \(\min(S)\), which is 1 if \(S = \emptyset\). Elements of \(\mathcal{U}\) are intended to represent certainty degrees as used in (van Emden 1986).

A slightly different domain \(\mathcal{U}'\) can be defined as \((U, \leq, 0, 1, \min)\) where the only difference with respect to \(\mathcal{U}\) is that in the case of \(\mathcal{U}'\), \(\circ = \min\).

2.2.3 The Domain \(\mathcal{W}\) of Weight Values and related variants

This domain is \(\mathcal{W} =_{\text{def}} \langle P, \geq, \infty, 0, +, \rangle\), where \(P = [0, \infty] = \{d \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\} | d ≥ 0\}\), \(\geq\) is the reverse of the usual numerical ordering (with \(\infty ≥ d\) for any \(d \in P\)), and \(+\) is the addition operation (with \(\infty + d = d + \infty = \infty\) for any \(d \in P\)). The top
element $t$ is 0 and the greatest lower bound $\bigcap S$ of a finite $S \subseteq P$ is the maximum value $\max(S)$, which is 0 if $S = \emptyset$. Elements of $W$ are intended to represent proof costs, measured as the weighted depth of proof trees.

In analogy to the definition of $U$ as a variant of $U$, we can define a qualification domain $W'$ as $\langle P, \geq, \infty, 0, \max \rangle$ with $\circ = \max$. Also, as a discrete variant of $W$, we define the qualification domain $W'_d =_{\text{def}} \langle P, \geq, \infty, 0, + \rangle$ with the only difference w.r.t. $W$ being that $P = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$. Elements of $W_d$ are also intended to represent proof costs (represented by natural numbers in this case). Finally, a variant $W'_d$ of $W_d$ can be defined by replacing the attenuation operation in $W_d$ by max.

### 2.2.4 Two product constructions

To close this section, we present two product constructions that can be used to build compound qualification domains. The mathematical definition is as follows:

**Definition 2.11 (Products of Qualification Domains)**

Let two qualification domains $D_i = \langle D_i, \preceq_i, b_i, t_i, \circ_i \rangle$ ($i \in \{1, 2\}$) be given.

1. The **cartesian product** $D_1 \times D_2$ is defined as $D =_{\text{def}} \langle D, \preceq, b, t, \circ \rangle$ where $D =_{\text{def}} D_1 \times D_2$, the partial ordering $\preceq$ is defined as $(d_1, d_2) \preceq (e_1, e_2) \iff_{\text{def}} d_1 \preceq_1 e_1$ and $d_2 \preceq_2 e_2$, $b =_{\text{def}} \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle$, $t =_{\text{def}} \langle t_1, t_2 \rangle$ and the attenuation operator $\circ$ is defined as $(d_1, d_2) \circ (e_1, e_2) =_{\text{def}} (d_1 \circ_1 e_1, d_2 \circ_2 e_2)$.

2. Given two elements $d_1 \in D_1$ and $d_2 \in D_2$, the **strict pair** $(d_1, d_2)$ is defined by case distinction as follows: if $d_1 \neq b_1$ and $d_2 \neq b_2$, then $(d_1, d_2) = (d_1, d_2)$; if $d_1 = b_1$ or $d_2 = b_2$, then $(d_1, d_2) = (b_1, b_2)$. In both cases, $(d_1, d_2) \in D_1 \times D_2$.

3. The **strict cartesian product** $D_1 \otimes D_2$ is defined as $D =_{\text{def}} \langle D, \preceq, b, t, \circ \rangle$ where $D = D_1 \otimes D_2 =_{\text{def}} \left\{ (d_1, d_2) \mid d_1 \in D_1, d_2 \in D_2 \right\}$ (or equivalently, $D = (D_1 \setminus \{b_1\}) \times (D_2 \setminus \{b_2\}) \cup \{\langle b_1, b_2 \rangle\}$), the partial ordering $\preceq$ is defined as $(d_1, d_2) \preceq (e_1, e_2) \iff_{\text{def}} d_1 \preceq_1 e_1$ and $d_2 \preceq_2 e_2$, $b =_{\text{def}} \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle = (b_1, b_2)$, $t =_{\text{def}} \langle t_1, t_2 \rangle$, and the attenuation operator $\circ$ is defined as $(d_1, d_2) \circ (e_1, e_2) =_{\text{def}} (d_1 \circ_1 e_1, d_2 \circ_2 e_2)$. Note the special case when $D_1$ or $D_2$ is a singleton set. Then, $D$ is the singleton set $\{\langle b_1, b_2 \rangle\}$, $(t_1, t_2) = (b_1, b_2)$, and $(t_1, t_2) \in D$ if and only if one of the two sets $D_1$, $D_2$ is not a singleton.

Intuitively, each value $(d_1, d_2)$ belonging to a product domain $D_1 \times D_2$ or $D_1 \otimes D_2$ imposes the qualification $d_1$ and also the qualification $d_2$. In particular, values $(c, d)$ belonging to the product domains $U \times W$ and $U \otimes W$ impose two qualifications, namely: a certainty value greater or equal than $c$ and a proof tree with weighted depth less or equal than $d$. This intuition indeed corresponds to the declarative semantics formally defined in Section 3.

The next theorem shows that the class of the qualification domains is closed under ordinary cartesian products, while the subclass of stable qualification domains is closed under strict cartesian products. We are particularly interested in stable
qualification domains built from basic domains by reiterated strict products, because they can be encoded into into constraint domains in the sense explained in Subsection 2.2.5 below.

**Theorem 2.1**
Assume two given qualification domains $D_1$ and $D_2$. Then the ordinary cartesian product $D_1 \times D_2$ is always a qualification domain. Moreover, if $D_1$ and $D_2$ are stable, then the strict cartesian product $D_1 \otimes D_2$ is a stable qualification domain.

**Proof**
Here we reason only for the case of the strict cartesian product since the reasonings needed for the ordinary cartesian product are very similar and even simpler. Assume that $D_1$ and $D_2$ are stable qualification domains, and let $D = D_1 \otimes D_2$ be constructed as in Definition 2.11. In order to show that $D$ is a stable qualification domain, we prove the four items below. The assumption that $D_1$ and $D_2$ satisfy all the axioms from Definition 2.10 is used in all the reasonings, often implicitly.

1. The attenuation operator $\circ$ of $D$ is well defined. Assume $(d_1, d_2), (e_1, e_2) \in D$. According to Definition 2.11, $(d_1, d_2) \circ (e_1, e_2)$ is defined as $(d_1 \circ_1 e_1, d_2 \circ_2 e_2)$. Since $D = D_1 \otimes D_2$ is a strict subset of $D_1 \times D_2$, we must prove that $(d_1 \circ_1 e_1, d_2 \circ_2 e_2) \in D$.

   1.1. $(d_1, d_2) = (b_1, b_2)$ or $(e_1, e_2) = (b_1, b_2)$. In this case, $(d_1 \circ_1 e_1, d_2 \circ_2 e_2) = (b_1, b_2) \in D$.
   1.2. $(d_1, d_2) \neq (b_1, b_2)$ and $(e_1, e_2) \neq (b_1, b_2)$. In this case, $d_1, e_1 \in D_1 \setminus \{b_1\}$ and $d_2, e_2 \in D_2 \setminus \{b_2\}$. The assumption that $D_1$ and $D_2$ are stable ensures $d_1 \circ_1 e_1 \neq b_1$ and $d_2 \circ_2 e_2 \neq b_2$, and therefore $(d_1 \circ_1 e_1, d_2 \circ_2 e_2) \in D$.

2. $\langle D, \sqsubseteq, b, t \rangle$ is a lattice with extreme points $b = \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle = (b_1, b_2)$ and $t = \text{def} \langle t_1, t_2 \rangle$ w.r.t. the partial ordering $\sqsubseteq$. By definition, $(d_1, d_2) \sqsubseteq (e_1, e_2) \iff d_1 \sqsubseteq_1 e_1 \land d_2 \sqsubseteq_2 e_2$. The fact that $\sqsubseteq$ is a partial ordering with minimum (bottom) element $b$ is an obvious consequence. To prove that $t$ is the maximum (top) element, we reason by case distinction. If $D_1$ is a singleton set, then $D_1 = \{b_1\}$, $t_1 = b_1$, $D = \{b_1, b_2\}$, and $\{t_1, t_2\} = \{b_1, b_2\}$ is obviously the top element. The case that $D_2$ is a singleton set is argued similarly. Finally, if neither $D_1$ nor $D_2$ are singleton, we have $t_1 \neq b_1, t_2 \neq b_2$, and $t = \{t_1, t_2\} = \{t_1, t_2\}$ is clearly the top element.

To show that $\langle D, \sqsubseteq, b, t \rangle$ is a lattice, we assume two arbitrary elements $(d_1, d_2), (e_1, e_2) \in D$, and we prove:

2.1. There is a lub $(d_1, d_2) \sqcup (e_1, e_2) \in D$. The lubs $d_1 \sqcup_1 e_1 \in D_1$ and $d_2 \sqcup_2 e_2 \in D_2$ are known to exist. We claim that $(d_1, d_2) \sqcup (e_1, e_2) = (d_1 \sqcup_1 e_1, d_2 \sqcup_2 e_2)$. Due to the component-wise definition of $\sqsubseteq$, it suffices to show that $(d_1 \sqcup_1 e_1, d_2 \sqcup_2 e_2) \in D$. We prove this by case distinction:

2.1.1. If $(d_1, d_2) = (b_1, b_2)$ then $(d_1 \sqcup_1 e_1, d_2 \sqcup_2 e_2) = (e_1, e_2) \in D$.
   2.1.2. If $(e_1, e_2) = (b_1, b_2)$ then $(d_1 \sqcup_1 e_1, d_2 \sqcup_2 e_2) = (d_1, d_2) \in D$.
   2.1.3. If $(d_1, d_2) \neq (b_1, b_2)$ and $(e_1, e_2) \neq (b_1, b_2)$ then the construction of $D$ ensures that $d_1, e_1 \in D_1 \setminus \{b_1\}$ and $d_2, e_2 \in D_2 \setminus \{b_2\}$. This implies $d_1 \sqcup_1 e_1 \neq b_1$ and $d_2 \sqcup_2 e_2 \neq b_2$, which guarantees $(d_1 \sqcup_1 e_1, d_2 \sqcup_2 e_2) \in D$.
3.1. If $d_1 = b_1$ and $d_2 = b_2$ then both sides of (1) are equal to $(b_1, b_2)$, as shown by the following calculations:

\[ (d_1, d_2) \circ ((e_1, e_2) \sqcap (e'_1, e'_2)) = (b_1, b_2) \circ ((e_1, e_2) \sqcap (e'_1, e'_2)) = (b_1, b_2) \]

\[ (d_1, d_2) \circ (e_1, e_2) \sqcap (d_1, d_2) \circ (e'_1, e'_2) = (b_1, b_2) \circ (e_1, e_2) \sqcap (b_1, b_2) \circ (e'_1, e'_2) = (b_1, b_2) \sqcap (b_1, b_2) = (b_1, b_2) \]

3.2. If the previous case does not apply, the construction of $D$ ensures that $d_1 \neq b_1$ and $d_2 \neq b_2$. We distinguish two subcases:

3.2.1. If $e_1 \sqcap e'_1 = b_1$ or $e_2 \sqcap e'_2 = b_2$ we get also $d_1 \circ (e_1 \sqcap e'_1) = b_1$ or $d_2 \circ (e_2 \sqcap e'_2) = b_2$, and we can assume the following:

\[ (\odot) \quad \langle e_1 \sqcap e'_1, e_2 \sqcap e'_2 \rangle = (b_1, b_2) \]

\[ (\odot) \quad \langle d_1 \circ (e_1 \sqcap e'_1), d_2 \circ (e_2 \sqcap e'_2) \rangle = (b_1, b_2) \]
We can now prove that both sides of (†) are equal to \((b_1, b_2)\) as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
(d_1, d_2) \circ ((e_1, e_2) \cap (e_1', e_2')) &= (d_1, d_2) \circ (e_1 \mid_1 e_1', e_2 \mid_2 e_2') = (d_1, d_2) \circ (b_1, b_2) = (b_1, b_2)
\end{align*}
\]

3.2.2. If \(e_1 \mid_1 e_1' \neq b_1\) and \(e_2 \mid_2 e_2' \neq b_2\) then the stability assumption made for \(D_1\) and \(D_2\) ensures \(d_1 \circ_1 (e_1 \mid_1 e_1') \neq b_1\) and \(d_2 \circ_2 (e_2 \mid_2 e_2') \neq b_2\), and we can assume the following:

\[
\begin{align*}
(\diamondsuit) \quad &\{ e_1 \mid_1 e_1', e_2 \mid_2 e_2' \} = (e_1 \mid_1 e_1', e_2 \mid_2 e_2') \\
(\heartsuit) \quad &\{ d_1 \circ_1 (e_1 \mid_1 e_1'), d_2 \circ_2 (e_2 \mid_2 e_2') \} = (d_1 \circ_1 (e_1 \mid_1 e_1'), d_2 \circ_2 (e_2 \mid_2 e_2'))
\end{align*}
\]

Then, (†) is proved by the following calculations:

\[
\begin{align*}
(d_1, d_2) \circ ((e_1, e_2) \cap (e_1', e_2')) &= (d_1, d_2) \circ (e_1 \mid_1 e_1', e_2 \mid_2 e_2') = (d_1, d_2) \circ (e_1 \mid_1 e_1', e_2 \mid_2 e_2') = (d_1, d_2) \circ (b_1, b_2) = (b_1, b_2)
\end{align*}
\]

4. \(D_1 \otimes D_2\) is stable. To prove this let us assume \((d_1, d_2), (e_1, e_2) \in D_1 \otimes D_2 \setminus \{(b_1, b_2)\}\). Then \(d_1, e_1 \in D_1 \setminus \{b_1\}\) and \(d_2, e_2 \in D_2 \setminus \{b_2\}\). Since \(D_1\) and \(D_2\) are stable qualification domains, we can infer that \(d_1 \circ_1 e_1 \neq b_1\) and \(d_2 \circ_2 e_2 \neq b_2\), which implies \((d_1, d_2) \circ (e_1, e_2) = (d_1 \circ_1 e_1, d_2 \circ_2 e_2) \neq (b_1, b_2)\). \(\square\)

### 2.2.5 Encoding Qualification Domains into Constraint Domains

In this subsection we investigate a technical relationship between qualification domains and constraint domains which will play a key role in the rest of the report.

**Definition 2.12 (Expressing \(D\) in \(C\))**

A qualification domain \(D\) with carrier set \(D_D\) is expressible in a constraint domain \(C\) with carrier set \(C_C\) if there is an injective mapping \(\imath : D_D \setminus \{b\} \to C_C\) embedding \(D_D \setminus \{b\}\) into \(C_C\), and the two following requirements are satisfied:

1. There is a \(C\)-constraint \(qVal(X)\) such that \(\text{Sol}_C(qVal(X))\) is the set of all \(\eta \in \text{Val}_C\) such that \(\eta(X)\) belongs to the range of \(\imath\).
2. There is a \(C\)-constraint \(qBound(X, Y, Z)\) encoding "\(x \leq y \circ z\)" in the following sense: any \(\eta \in \text{Val}_C\) satisfying \(\eta(X) = \imath(x)\), \(\eta(Y) = \imath(y)\) and \(\eta(Z) = \imath(z)\) for some \(x, y, z \in D \setminus \{b\}\) verifies \(\eta \in \text{Sol}_C(qBound(X, Y, Z)) \iff x \leq y \circ z\).

Moreover, if \(qVal(X)\) and \(qBound(X, Y, Z)\) can be chosen as existential constraints, we say that \(D\) is *existentially expressible in \(C\)*. \(\square\)
In the sequel, \( C \)-constraints built as instances of \( \text{qVal}(X) \) and \( \text{qBound}(X,Y,Z) \) are called qualification constraints, and \( \Omega \) is used as notation for sets of qualification constraints. The following result ensures that several qualification domains built with the techniques presented in Subsection 2.2 are existentially expressible in \( H \), \( R \) or \( FD \), according to the case.

**Proposition 2.2 (Expressing Qualification Domains in Constraint Domains)**

1. The domain \( B \) is existentially expressible in any given constraint domain \( C \).
2. The domains \( U, U', W \) and \( W' \) are existentially expressible in \( R \) (or any other constraint domain that supports the expressivity of \( R \)),
3. The domains \( W_d \) and \( W'_d \) are existentially expressible in \( FD \) (or any other constraint domain that supports the expressivity of \( FD \)).
4. Assume that the two qualification domains \( D_1 \) and \( D_2 \) are stable and (existentially) expressible in a constraint domain \( C \). Then, \( D_1 \circ D_2 \) is also (existentially) expressible in \( C \).

**Proof**

1. Straightforward, due to the fact that \( D_B \setminus \{b\} \) is the singleton set \( \{t\} = \{true\} \).
2. We prove that \( U \) can be existentially expressed in \( R \) as follows: \( D_U \setminus \{b\} = D_U \setminus \{0\} = (0,1] \subseteq \mathbb{R} \subseteq C_R \); therefore \( i \) can be taken as the identity embedding mapping from \( (0,1] \) into \( \mathbb{R} \). Moreover, \( \text{qVal}(X) \) can be built as the existential \( R \)-constraint \( cp_{<}(0,X) \land cp_{<}(X,1) \) and \( \text{qBound}(X,Y,Z) \) can be built as the existential \( R \)-constraint \( \exists X_1 (op_{<}(Y,Z,X_1) \land cp_{<}(X,X_1)) \). By very similar reasonings it is easy to check that \( U', W \) and \( W' \) can also be existentially expressed in \( R \). Note that in the cases of \( W \) and \( W' \) there is no reasonable way to define \( i(\infty) \). This is the reason why the domain of \( i \) is required to be \( D \setminus \{b\} \) in Definition 2.12.

3. Note that \( D_{W_d} \setminus \{b\} = D_{W_d} \setminus \{\infty\} = \mathbb{N} \). Moreover, \( \leq \) is \( \geq \) and \( \circ \) is \( + \) in \( W_d \). Therefore, \( W_d \) can be expressed in \( FD \) by taking \( i \) as the identity embedding mapping, building \( \text{qVal}(X) \) as an existential \( FD \) constraint that requires the value of \( X \) to be an integer \( x \geq 0 \), and building \( \text{qBound}(X,Y,Z) \) as an existential \( FD \) constraint that requires the values of \( X, Y \) and \( Z \) to be integers \( x, y \) and \( z \) such that \( x \geq y + z \). A similar reasoning proves that \( W'_d \) is existentially expressible in \( FD \) also.

4. For \( j = 1,2 \) assume the existence of injective embedding mappings \( i_j \) and \( C \)-constraints \( \text{qVal}_j(X) \), \( \text{qBound}_j(X,Y,Z) \) that can be used to (existentially) express \( D_j \) in \( C \). Due to Theorem 2.1, we know that \( D_1 \circ D_2 \) is a stable qualification domain. Moreover, because of the construction of \( D = D_1 \circ D_2 \) given in Definition 2.11, we know that \( D \setminus \{b\} = (D_1 \setminus \{b_1\}) \times (D_2 \setminus \{b_2\}) \). We also know that \( \leq \) is defined component-wise from \( \leq_1 \), and \( \leq_2 \), and analogously for \( \circ \). Therefore, \( D \) can be (existentially) expressed in \( C \) by taking:

- \( i \) defined by \( i(d_1,d_2) =_{def} (i_1(d_1),i_2(d_2)) \).
- \( \text{qVal}(X) \) built as the prenex form of the constraint

\[ \exists X_1 \exists X_2 (X == (X_1,X_2) \land \text{qVal}_1(X_1) \land \text{qVal}_2(X_2)) \]

which is existential if \( \text{qVal}_1(X_1) \) and \( \text{qVal}_2(X_2) \) are both existential.
Let a qualification domain $D$ further generalizes this approach by considering proximity relations. Arbitrary qualification domain $D$ (Definition 2.13) in (Dubois and Prade 2008), we proposed to generalize similarity relations by allowing elements of an arbitrary qualification domain $D$ to serve as proximity degrees. The definition below provides proximity and similarity relations in the sense of (Zadeh 1971; Sessa 2002) and related literature as mappings $S : S \times S \rightarrow [0, 1]$ that satisfy reflexivity, symmetry and transitivity axioms analogous to those required for classical equivalence relations. A more general notion called proximity relation has been defined in (Dubois and Prade 1980) by omitting the transitivity axiom. Each value $S(x, y)$ computed by a similarity (resp. proximity) relation $S$ is called the similarity degree (resp. proximity degree) between $x$ and $y$. In our previous paper (Caballero et al. 2008), we proposed to generalize similarity relations by allowing elements of an arbitrary qualification domain $D$ to serve as proximity degrees. The definition below further generalizes this approach by considering proximity relations.

**Definition 2.13 (Proximity and similarity relations)**

Let a qualification domain $D$ with carrier set $D$ and a set $S$ be given.

1. A $D$-valued relation over $S$ is any mapping $S : S \times S \rightarrow D$.
2. A $D$-valued relation $S$ over $S$ is called
   - Reflexive iff $\forall x \in S : S(x, x) = t$.
   - Symmetrical iff $\forall x, y \in S : S(x, y) = S(y, x)$.
   - Transitive iff $\forall x, y, z \in S : S(x, z) \triangleright S(x, y) \cap S(y, z)$.
3. $S$ is called a $D$-valued proximity relation iff $S$ is reflexive and symmetrical.
4. If $S$ is also transitive, then it is called a $D$-valued similarity relation.
5. $S$ is called finitary iff there are only finitely many choices of elements $x, y \in S$ such that $x \neq y$ and $S(x, y) \neq b$. From a practical viewpoint, this is a very natural requirement.

Obviously, $D$-valued similarity relations are a particular case of $D$-valued proximity relations. Moreover, when $D$ is chosen as the qualification domain $U$, the previous definition provides proximity and similarity relations in the sense of (Zadeh 1971; Dubois and Prade 1980). In this case, a proximity degree $S(x, y) = d \in [0, 1]$ can be naturally interpreted as a certainty degree for the assertion that $x$ and $y$ are interchangeable. On the other hand, if $S$ is $W$-valued, then $S(x, y) = d \in [0, \infty]$ can be interpreted as a cost to be paid for $y$ to play the role of $x$. More generally, the
proximity degrees computed by a $D$-valued proximity relation may have different interpretations according to the intended role of $D$-elements as qualification values.

In contrast to previous works such as (Sessa 2002; Caballero et al. 2008), in the rest of this report we will work with $D$-valued proximity rather than similarity relations. Formally, this leads to more general results. Moreover, as already noted by (Shenoi and Melton 1999) and other authors, the transitivity property required for similarity relations may be counterintuitive in some cases. For instance, assume nullary constructors $\texttt{colt}$, $\texttt{cold}$ and $\texttt{gold}$ intended to represent words composed of four letters. Then, measuring the proximity between such words might reasonably lead to a $U$-valued proximity relation $S$ such that $S(\texttt{colt}, \texttt{cold}) = 0.9$, $S(\texttt{cold}, \texttt{gold}) = 0.9$ and $S(\texttt{colt}, \texttt{gold}) = 0.4$. On the other hand, insisting on $S$ to be transitive would enforce the unreasonable condition $S(\texttt{colt}, \texttt{gold}) \geq 0.9$. Therefore, a similarity relation would be not appropriate in this case.

The special mapping $S_{\text{id}} : S \times S \rightarrow D$ defined as $S_{\text{id}}(x, x) = t$ for all $x \in S$ and $S_{\text{id}}(x, y) = b$ for all $x, y \in S, x \neq y$ is trivially a $D$-valued similarity (and therefore, also proximity) relation called the identity.

### 2.3.1 Admissible triples and proximity relations

From now on, we will focus on proximity relations that are related to constraint domains in the following sense:

**Definition 2.14** (Admissible triples)$\langle S, D, C \rangle$ is called an admissible triple iff the following requirements are fulfilled:

1. $C$ is a constraint domain with signature $\Sigma = \langle DC, DP, PP \rangle$ and set of basic values $B_C$, and $D$ is a qualification domain expressible in $C$ in the sense of Definition 2.12.
2. $S$ is a $D$-valued proximity relation over $S = \text{Var} \cup B_C \cup DC \cup DP \cup PP$.
3. $S$ restricted to $\text{Var}$ behaves as the identity, i.e. $S(X, X) = t$ for all $X \in \text{Var}$ and $S(X, Y) = b$ for all $X, Y \in \text{Var}$ such that $X \neq Y$.
4. For any $x, y \in S$, $S(x, y) \neq b$ can happen only if some of the following cases holds:
   
   (a) $x = y$ are identical.
   (b) $x, y \in B_C$ are basic values.
   (c) $x, y \in DC$ are data constructor symbols with the same arity.
   (d) $x, y \in DP$ are defined predicate symbols with the same arity.

In particular, $S(p, p') \neq b$ cannot happen if $p, p' \in PP$ are syntactically different primitive predicate symbols.

In the rest of the report, our notions and results are valid for any choice of an admissible triple $\langle S, D, C \rangle$. Proposition 2.2 provides useful information for building admissible triples. For any given admissible triple, $S$ can be naturally extended to act over terms and atoms over $C$. The extension, also noted $S$, works as specified in the recursive definition below. An analogous definition for the case of $U$-valued similarity relations can be found in (Sessa 2002).
Definition 2.15 (S acting over terms and atoms)
For any given admissible triple, S is extended to work over C-terms and C-atoms as follows:

1. For any $t \in \text{Term}(\Sigma, B, \text{Var})$:
   \[ S(t, t) = t. \]
2. For $X \in \text{Var}$ and for any term $t$ different from $X$:
   \[ S(X, t) = S(t, X) = b. \]
3. For $c, c' \in DC$ with different arities $n, m$:
   \[ S(c(t^n), c'(t'^m)) = b. \]
4. For $c, c' \in DC$ with the same arity $n$:
   \[ S(c(t^n), c'(t'^n)) = S(c, c') \cap S(t_1, t'_1) \cap \ldots \cap S(t_n, t'_n). \]
5. For $r, r' \in DP \cup PP$ with different arities $n, m$:
   \[ S(r(t^n), r'(t'^m)) = b. \]
6. For $r, r' \in DP \cup PP$ with the same arity $n$:
   \[ S(r(t^n), r'(t'^n)) = S(r, r') \cap S(t_1, t'_1) \cap \ldots \cap S(t_n, t'_n). \]

Given two terms $t, t'$ and some fixed qualification value $\lambda \in D \setminus \{b\}$ we will use the notation $t \approx_\lambda t'$ (read as $t$ and $t'$ are $S$-close at level $\lambda$) as an abbreviation of $\lambda P_S(t, t')$. For the sake of simplicity, $S$ is not made explicit in the $\approx_\lambda$ notation.

The following lemma provides a natural characterization of $\approx_\lambda$.

Lemma 2.5 (Proximity Lemma)
1. $\approx_\lambda$ is a reflexive and symmetric equivalence relation over terms, which is also transitive (and hence an equivalence relation) in the case that $S$ is a similarity relation.
2. For any given terms $t$ and $t'$ the following two statements are equivalent:
   
   (a) $t \approx_\lambda t'$.
   
   (b) $\text{pos}(t) = \text{pos}(t')$, and for each $p \in \text{pos}(t) \cap \text{pos}(t')$ some of the cases below holds:
   
   i. $t \circ p = t' \circ p = X$ for some $X \in \text{Var}$.
   
   ii. $t \circ p = s \circ p = u$ for some $u \in B_C$.
   
   iii. $t \circ p = c$ and $t' \circ p = c'$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and some $c, c' \in DC^n$ such that $\lambda \not\subseteq S(c, c').$

3. Any given terms $t$ and $t'$ such that $t \approx_\lambda t'$ are quasi-identical in the following sense: $\text{pos}(t) = \text{pos}(t')$, and for each $p \in \text{pos}(t) = \text{pos}(t')$ either $t \circ p = t' \circ p$ or else $t \circ p$ and $t' \circ p$ are two data constructors of the same arity.
4. $\approx_\lambda$ boils down to the syntactic equality relation ‘=’ when $S$ is the identity proximity relation $S_{\text{id}}$.

Proof
We give a separate reasoning for each item.
1. Note that the reflexivity and symmetry of $\approx_\lambda$ are a trivial consequence of the reflexivity and symmetry of $S$, as formulated in Definition 2.13. In the case that $S$ is a similarity relation, transitivity of $\approx_\lambda$ follows from transitivity of $S$ and the obvious fact that $\lambda \cap \lambda = \lambda$.

2. The claimed equivalence between conditions 2(a) and 2(b) can be proved reasoning by induction on $\|t\| + \|t'\|$.

3. This item is an obvious consequence of the previous one.

4. Assume $S = S_{id}$. Then, as a trivial consequence of Definition 2.15, the value of $S(t, t')$ is $t$ if $t = t'$ and $b$ otherwise. Since $\lambda \neq b$, it follows that $t \approx_\lambda t'$ if $t = t'$, as desired. 

The following result shows that $\approx_\lambda$ is compatible with the term extension operation in a natural way:

**Lemma 2.6 (Proximity Preservation Lemma)**

Assume terms $t$, $t'$ and $\lambda \in D \setminus \{b\}$ such that $t \approx_\lambda t'$. Then $(t \ll_s) \approx_\lambda (t' \ll_s)$ holds also for any term $s$.

**Proof**

Due to the assumption, $t \approx_\lambda t'$ are quasi-identical and satisfy condition 2(b) as stated in the Proximity Lemma 2.5. From this fact and Definition 2.9 it is quite clear that the same condition 2(b) holds also for $t \ll_s$, $t' \ll_s$ and $\lambda$. Therefore, the Proximity Lemma allows to conclude $t \approx_\lambda t'$ as desired.

2.3.2 Term proximity w.r.t. a given constraint set

Reasoning with equations between $C$-terms will require to infer information both from $S$ and for some fixed constraint set $\Pi \subseteq Con_C$. This leads to a generalization of $\approx_\lambda$ formally defined as follows:

**Definition 2.16 (Term proximity w.r.t. a given constraint set)**

Let $\langle S, D, C \rangle$ be any admissible triple. Assume $\lambda \in D \setminus \{b\}$ and $\Pi \subseteq Con_C$. We will say that $t$ and $s$ are $S$-close at level $\lambda$ w.r.t. $\Pi$ (in symbols, $t \approx_{S, \Pi} s$) iff there are two terms $\hat{t}$, $\hat{s}$ such that $t \approx_\Pi \hat{t}$, $s \approx_\Pi \hat{s}$ and $\hat{t} \approx_\lambda \hat{s}$. For the sake of simplicity neither $S$ nor $C$ are made explicit in the notation.

As illustration, let us present an example using the constraint domain $R$ and the qualification domain $U$:

**Example 2.2 (Term proximity w.r.t. $R$ constraints)**

Consider $\Pi = \{op_+(A, A, X), op_+(2.0, A, Y), Z := c(X, Y)\} \subseteq Con_R$. Note that this choice of $\Pi$ ensures $X \approx_{\Pi} Y$. Assume $c, c', c'' \in DC^2$ and an $U$-valued proximity relation $S$ such that $S(c', c) = S(c, c'') = 0.8$ and $S(c', c'') = 0.6$. Then:

1. $c(Y, X) \approx_{\Pi} Z$ holds, but $c'(Y, X) \approx_{\Pi} Z$ is false.
2. $c'(Y, X) \approx_{0.7, \Pi} Z$ holds, because $c'(Y, X) \approx_{\Pi} c'(X, X)$, $Z \approx_{\Pi} c(X, X)$ and $c'(X, X) \approx_{0.7} c(X, X)$.
3. $Z \approx_{0.7, \Pi} c''(X, Y)$ is also true, for similar reasons.
4. \( c'(Y,X) \approx_{0.7,\Pi} \) \( c''(X,Y) \) is false, because there is no possible choice of terms \( \hat{t} \) and \( \hat{s} \) such that \( c'(Y,X) \approx_{\Pi} \hat{t}, c''(X,Y) \approx_{\Pi} \hat{s} \) and \( \hat{t} \approx_{0.7} \hat{s} \). □

The next result states some basic properties of relations \( \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} \).

**Lemma 2.7 (\( \Pi \)-Proximity Lemma)**

1. \( \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} \) is invariant w.r.t. \( \approx_{\Pi} \) in the following sense: \( t \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} s \) implies \( t' \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} s' \) for all terms \( t', s' \) such that \( t' \approx_{\Pi} t \) and \( s' \approx_{\Pi} s \).
2. \( \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} \) is a reflexive and symmetric relation over terms, which is also transitive (and hence an equivalence relation) in the case that \( S \) is a similarity relation.
3. For any given terms \( t \) and \( t' \) the following two statements are equivalent:
   (a) \( t \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} t' \).
   (b) For any common position \( p \in \text{pos}(t) \cap \text{pos}(t') \) some of the cases below holds:
      
      i. \( t \circ p \) or \( t' \circ p \) is a variable, and moreover \( t|_p \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} t'|_p \).
      ii. \( t \circ p = s \circ p = u \) for some \( u \in B_C \).
      iii. \( t \circ p = c \) and \( t' \circ p = c' \) for some \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) and some \( c, c' \in DC^n \) such that \( \lambda \parallel S(c,c') \).
4. \( \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} \) boils down to \( \approx_{\lambda} \) when \( \Pi \) is the empty set, and \( \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} \) boils down to \( \approx_{\Pi} \) when \( S \) is the identity proximity relation \( S_{id} \).

**Proof**

We give a separate reasoning for each item. Definitions 2.16 and Lemmata 2.2 and 2.5 are implicitly used at some points.

1. By definition, \( t \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} s \) means the existence of terms \( \hat{t}, \hat{s} \) such that \( t \approx_{\Pi} \hat{t}, s \approx_{\Pi} \hat{s} \) and \( \hat{t} \approx_{\lambda} \hat{s} \). In case that \( t' \approx_{\Pi} t \) and \( s' \approx_{\Pi} s \), the same terms \( \hat{t}, \hat{s} \) verify \( t' \approx_{\Pi} \hat{t}, s' \approx_{\Pi} \hat{s} \) (since \( \approx_{\Pi} \) is an equivalence relation) and \( \hat{t} \approx_{\lambda} \hat{s} \). Therefore \( t' \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} s' \).

2. Let us consider the three properties in turn:
   - **Reflexivity**: \( t \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} t \) holds because \( \hat{t} = t \) trivially verifies \( t \approx_{\Pi} \hat{t} \) and \( \hat{t} \approx_{\lambda} \hat{t} \).
   - **Symmetry**: Assume \( t \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} s \). Then there are terms \( \hat{t}, \hat{s} \) such that \( t \approx_{\Pi} \hat{t}, s \approx_{\Pi} \hat{s} \) and \( \hat{t} \approx_{\lambda} \hat{s} \). Due to the symmetry of \( \approx_{\lambda} \) we get \( \hat{s} \approx_{\lambda} \hat{t} \) and hence \( s \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} t \).
   - **Transitivity**: Example 2.2 above shows that \( \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} \) is not transitive in general. Here we prove transitivity of \( \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} \) under the assumption that \( S \) is a similarity relation fulfilling the transitive property stated in Definition 2.13.

   Assume terms \( t_1, t_2 \) and \( t_3 \) such that \( t_1 \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} t_2 \) and \( t_2 \approx_{\lambda,\Pi} t_3 \). Then there are terms \( t'_1, t'_2, t'_3 \) such that
   
   (a) \( t_1 \approx_{\Pi} t'_1, t_2 \approx_{\Pi} t'_2, t'_1 \approx_{\lambda} t'_2 \) and
   (b) \( t_2 \approx_{\Pi} t''_2, t_3 \approx_{\Pi} t''_3, t''_2 \approx_{\lambda} t''_3 \).

   Without loss of generality, \( t'_1, t'_2, t''_2 \) and \( t''_3 \) can be assumed to be \( \Pi \)-canonical terms.

   If they were not, it would suffice to replace each of them by its \( \Pi \)-canonical form, built as explained in Definition 2.3. This replacement would preserve properties (a) and (b) thanks to the Canonicity Lemma 2.3.

   We claim that there are three terms \( \hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2, \) and \( \hat{t}_3 \) such that
   
   (c) \( t_1 \approx_{\Pi} \hat{t}_1, t_2 \approx_{\Pi} \hat{t}_2, t_3 \approx_{\Pi} \hat{t}_3 \) and
   (d) \( \hat{t}_1 \approx_{\lambda} \hat{t}_2, \hat{t}_2 \approx_{\lambda} \hat{t}_3 \).
4. According to Definition 2.16 and the transitivity property of \( \equiv \), which is ensured by the transitivity of \( S \) and the Proximity Lemma 2.5. In the rest of this item we prove the claim by assuming (a) and (b) and showing how to build \( t_1, t_2, \) and \( t_3 \) fulfilling (c) and (d).

Note that the assumption \( t'_1 \equiv \lambda t'借助于条件 3(a) and 3(b) can be proved reasoning by Proximity Lemma 2.5(3). Analogously, terms \( t''_1 \) and \( t''_2 \) must be also quasi-identical due to the assumption \( t''_2 \equiv \lambda t''_3 \), and the target condition (d) requires that \( t_1, t_2, t_3 \) are constructed as quasi-identical terms. Since our assumptions do not guarantee quasi-identity of terms \( t'_2 \) and \( t''_2 \), we resort to the term extension construction from Definition 2.9 for building the terms \( t_i \). More precisely, we build:

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{t}_1 &= \text{def} \left( t'_1 \equiv t''_1 \right); \quad \hat{t}_2 = \text{def} \left( t'_2 \equiv t''_2 \right) = \left( t''_2 \equiv t'_2 \right); \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{t}_3 = \text{def} \left( t''_3 \equiv t'_2 \right)
\end{align*}
\]

where the identity \( \left( t'_2 \equiv t''_2 \right) = \left( t''_2 \equiv t'_2 \right) \) is a consequence of the Symmetrical Extension Property from Lemma 2.4, which can be applied because \( t'_2 \) and \( t''_2 \) are \( \Pi \)-canonical and assumptions (a), (b) imply \( t'_2 \sim_\Pi t''_2 \). We argue that conditions (c) and (d) are satisfied as follows:

— Condition (c), \( t_3 \equiv_\Pi \hat{t}_3 \): The proof for this is analogous to the previous one. Since \( t_3 \equiv_\Pi t''_3 \) and \( t_3 = \left( t''_3 \equiv t'_2 \right) \) it suffices to prove \( t'_3 \equiv_\Pi \hat{t}_3 \), which can be done with the help of the Equivalent Extension Property.

— Condition (c), \( t_2 \equiv_\Pi \hat{t}_2 \): By assumptions (a), (b) we know \( t_2 \equiv_\Pi t'_2 \) and \( t_2 \equiv_\Pi t''_2 \) it suffices to prove \( t''_2 \equiv_\Pi \hat{t}_2 \). For each \( p \in \text{pos}(t'_2) \) with \( t'_2 | p = X \in \text{Var} \) we have \( t''_2 | p = X \) because \( t'_2 \) and \( t''_2 \) are quasi-identical. Moreover, \( t''_2 \equiv_\Pi t''_2 \) implies that \( p \in \text{pos}(t''_2) \) and \( X \sim_\Pi t''_2 | p \). In these conditions, \( t''_2 \equiv_\Pi \hat{t}_2 \) follows from \( t''_2 = \left( t'_2 \equiv t''_2 \right) \) and the Equivalent Extension Property.

— Condition (d), \( \hat{t}_1 \equiv_\Pi \hat{t}_2 \): By assumption (a) we have \( t'_1 \equiv_\Pi t'_2 \). By the Proximity Preservation Lemma 2.6, this implies \( \left( t'_1 \equiv t''_1 \right) \equiv_\lambda \left( t'_2 \equiv t''_2 \right) \). By construction of the terms \( \hat{t}_1, \hat{t}_2 \), this is the same as \( t_1 \equiv_\lambda t_2 \).

— Condition (d), \( \hat{t}_2 \equiv_\Pi \hat{t}_3 \): The proof for this is analogous to the previous one. Assumption (b) provides \( t''_2 \equiv_\Pi t''_3 \). Then, the Proximity Preservation Lemma guarantees \( \left( t''_2 \equiv t''_3 \right) \equiv_\lambda \left( t''_2 \equiv t''_2 \right) \), which is the same as \( t_2 \equiv_\lambda \hat{t}_3 \) by construction of the terms \( \hat{t}_i \) (this time viewing \( t_2 \) as \( t''_2 \equiv t''_2 \) rather than \( t'_2 \equiv t''_2 \) as in the previous argumentation).

3. The claimed equivalence between conditions 3(a) and 3(b) can be proved reasoning by induction on \( \|t\| + \|t'\| \).

4. According to Definition 2.16 \( t \equiv_\lambda s \) is true iff \((*)\) holds, where:

\[ (*) \text{ there are terms } \hat{t}, \hat{s} \text{ such that } t \equiv_\Pi \hat{t}, \ s \equiv_\Pi \hat{s} \text{ and } \hat{t} \equiv_\lambda \hat{s}. \]

Let us argue for the two cases \( \Pi = \emptyset \) and \( S = S_{\text{id}} \) separately:

- Assume that \( \Pi = \emptyset \). Then, due to \( \Pi \)-Equivalence Lemma 2.2(3), \((*)\) can be
rewritten as

\[ t = \hat{t}, \ s = \hat{s} \text{ and } \hat{t} \approx_{\lambda} \hat{s} \]

which is equivalent to \( t \approx_{\Pi} s \).

- Assume now that \( S = S_{id} \). Then, due to Proximity Lemma 2.5(4), (\(*)\) can be rewritten as

\[ t \approx_{\Pi} \hat{t}, \ s \approx_{\Pi} \hat{s} \text{ and } \hat{t} = \hat{s} \]

which is equivalent to \( t \approx_{\Pi} s \).

The following technical lemma will be needed later on. Although it is closely related to Lemma 2.1(2), it needs a separate proof because statements of the form \( t \approx_{\lambda}, \Pi s \) are not \( C \)-constraints.

**Lemma 2.8** *(Substitution Lemma for \( \approx_{\lambda}, \Pi \))*

Let \( \langle S, D, C \rangle \) be any admissible triple. Assume \( \lambda \in D \setminus \{b\}, \Pi \subseteq \text{Con}_C \), and two terms \( t, s \) such that \( t \approx_{\lambda}, \Pi s \). Then \( t\sigma \approx_{\lambda, \Pi\sigma} s\sigma \) holds for every \( C \)-substitution \( \sigma \).

**Proof**

Because of the assumptions and Definition 2.16, there are terms \( \hat{t}, \hat{s} \) such that \( t \approx_{\Pi} \hat{t} \) (i.e. \( \Pi \models_{C} t = \hat{t} \)), \( s \approx_{\Pi} \hat{s} \) (i.e. \( \Pi \models_{C} s = \hat{s} \)) and \( \hat{t} \approx_{\lambda} \hat{s} \). Consider now any substitution \( \sigma \). Due to Lemma 2.1(2), we get \( \Pi\sigma \models_{C} t\sigma = \hat{t}\sigma \) (i.e. \( t\sigma \approx_{\Pi\sigma} \hat{t}\sigma \)) and \( \Pi\sigma \models_{C} s\sigma = \hat{s}\sigma \) (i.e. \( s\sigma \approx_{\Pi\sigma} \hat{s}\sigma \)). Moreover, \( t\sigma \approx_{\lambda} s\sigma \) is an easy consequence of \( \hat{t} \approx_{\lambda} \hat{s} \) and Proximity Lemma 2.5(2). Then, Definition 2.16 allows to conclude \( t\sigma \approx_{\lambda, \Pi\sigma} s\sigma \) simply by taking \( \hat{t}\sigma \) as \( \hat{t}\sigma \) and \( \hat{s}\sigma \) as \( \hat{s}\sigma \).

### 3 The SQCLP Programming Scheme

In this section we develop the SQCLP scheme with instances SQCLP(\( S, D, C \)) announced in the introduction. The parameters \( S, D \) and \( C \) stand for an admissible proximity relation, a qualification domain and a constraint domain with a certain signature \( \Sigma \), respectively. By convention, we consider only those instances of the scheme whose parameters are chosen to constitute an admissible triple in the sense of Definition 2.14. We focus on declarative semantics, using an interpretation transformer and a logical inference system to provide alternative characterizations of least program models. We also discuss declarative semantics of goals and related approaches.

A brief remark regarding notation is in place here. For the sake of notational consistency with previous works (either by us or other authors) where similarity rather than proximity relations were used, we keep the symbol \( S \) for proximity relations and the uppercase letter \( S \) in the names of programming schemes. Our results, however, do not rely on the transitivity property from Definition 2.13.

#### 3.1 Programs and their Declarative Semantics

A SQCLP(\( S, D, C \))-program is a set \( P \) of qualified program rules (also called qualified clauses) of the form \( C : A \overset{\alpha}{\leftarrow} B_1 \sharp w_1, \ldots, B_m \sharp w_m \), where \( A \) is a defined atom, \( \alpha \in \)
is called the attenuation factor of the clause and each \( B_j \) is an atom \( B_j \) annotated with a so-called threshold value \( w_j \) (1 \( \leq j \leq m \)). The intended meaning of \( C \) is as follows: if for all 1 \( \leq j \leq m \) one has \( B_j \) holds with qualification value \( e_j \) for some \( e_j \geq? w_j \), then \( A \) holds (meaning that \( A \) holds with qualification value \( d \)) can be inferred for any \( d \in D \setminus \{b\} \) such that \( d \leq \alpha \cap \bigwedge_{j=1}^{m} e_j \). Thanks to \( R_1 \) instantiated by \( \{X \mapsto \text{king liars}, Y \mapsto \text{shakespeare}\} \), and going on to prove \( \text{famousAuthor}(\text{shakespeare})\)\( \geq (d_1, e_1) \) for some \( d_1 \geq 0.5 \), \( e_1 \leq 100 \) and \( \text{wrote}(\text{shakespeare,king liars})\)\( \geq (d_2, e_2) \) for some \( d_2, e_2 \). Thanks to \( R_2 \), \( R_3 \) and \( S \), these proofs succeed with \( (d_1, e_1) = (0.9, 1) \) and \( (d_2, e_2) = (0.8, 2) \). Therefore, the desired proof succeeds with certainty degree \( d = 0.75 \times \min\{0.9, 0.8\} = 0.6 \), and proof cost \( e = 3 + \max\{1, 2\} = 5 \).

\[ R_1 : \text{goodWork}(X) \leftarrow (0.75, 3)- \text{famousAuthor}(Y)\#(0.5, 100), \text{wrote}(Y, X)\#? \]
\[ R_2 : \text{famousAuthor}(\text{shakespeare}) \leftarrow (0.9, 1)- \]
\[ R_3 : \text{wrote}(\text{shakespeare,king liars}) \leftarrow (1, 1)- \]
\[ S(\text{king liars,king liars}) = (0.8, 2) \]

Fig. 1. SQCLP(\(S, U \otimes W, R\)) Program Fragment

It is useful to define some special types of program clauses and programs, as follows:

- A clause is called attenuation-free iff \( \alpha = t \). The name is justified because \( t \) is an identity element for the attenuation operator \( \circ \), as explained in Subsection 2.2. By convention, attenuation-free clauses may be written with the simplified syntax \( A \leftarrow B_1 \circ w_1, \ldots, B_m \circ w_m \).

- A clause is called threshold-free iff \( w_j = ? \) for all \( j = 1 \ldots m \). The name is justified because the threshold value \( w_j = ? \) occurring as annotation of a body atom \( B_j \) does not impose any particular requirement to the qualification value of \( B_j \). Threshold-free clauses may be written with the simplified syntax \( A \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_m \).

- A clause is called qualification-free iff it is both attenuation-free and threshold-free. These clauses may be written with the simplified syntax \( A \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_m \). They behave just like those used in the classical CLP scheme.

- A clause is called constraint-free iff all its body atoms are defined.
A program is called attenuation-free iff all its clauses are of this type. Threshold-free, qualification-free and constraint-free programs are defined similarly.

The more technical SQCLP(\(S, U, R\))-program \(P\) presented below will serve as a running example to illustrate various points in the rest of the report.

Example 3.1 (Running example)
Assume unary constructors \(c, c' \in DC^1\), binary predicate symbols \(p, p', q \in DP^2\) and a ternary predicate symbol \(r \in DP^3\). Consider the admissible triple \(\langle S, U, R \rangle\), where \(S\) is an \(U\)-valued proximity relation such that \(S(c, c') = 0.9\) and \(S(p, p') = 0.8\). Let \(P\) be the SQCLP(\(S, U, R\))-program consisting of the qualified clauses \(R_1, R_2\) and \(R_3\) listed below:

\[
R_1 : q(X, c(X)) \leftarrow 0^1, \\
R_2 : p(c(X), Y) \leftarrow 0^0, q(X, Y) \leftarrow 0^0, c p(X, 0, 0) \leftarrow 0^0, c p(X, 0, 0) \leftarrow 0^0.8
\]

As we will see in the Conclusions, the classical CLP scheme for Constraint Logic Programming originally introduced in (Jaffar and Lassez 1987) can be seen as a particular case of the SQCLP scheme. In the rest of this subsection we present a declarative semantics for SQCLP(\(S, D, C\))-programs inspired by (Gabbrielli and Levi 1991; Gabbrielli et al. 1995). These papers provided three different program semantics \(S_i\) (\(i = 1, 2, 3\)) characterizing valid ground solutions for goals, valid open solutions for goals and computed answers for goals in CLP, respectively. In fact, the \(S_i\) semantics in (Gabbrielli and Levi 1991; Gabbrielli et al. 1995) were conceived as the CLP counterpart of previously known semantics for logic programming, namely the least ground Herbrand model semantics (Apt 1990; Lloyd 1987), the open Herbrand model semantics, also known as \(C\)-semantics (Clark 1979; Falaschi et al. 1993), and the \(S\)-semantics (Falaschi et al. 1989; Bossi et al. 1994), see (Apt and Gabbrielli 1994) for a very concise and readable overview.

In this report we restrict ourselves to develop a \(S_2\)-like semantics which can be used to characterize valid open solutions for SQCLP goals as we will see in Subsection 3.2. As a basis for our semantics we use so-called \(qc\)-atoms of the form \(A \leftarrow d \Pi\), intended to assert that the atom \(A\) is entailed by the constraint set \(\Pi\) with qualification degree \(d\). We also use a special entailment relation \(\succ\)\(_{D, C}\) intended to capture some implications between \(qc\)-atoms whose validity depends neither on the proximity relation \(S\) nor on the semantics of defined predicates. A formal definition of these notions is as follows:

Definition 3.1 (\(qc\)-atoms, observables and \((D, C)\)-entailment)

1. Qualified constrained atoms (or simply \(qc\)-atoms) are statements of the form \(A \leftarrow d \Pi\), where \(A \in At(\Sigma, B, \text{Var})\) is an atom, \(d \in D\) is a qualification value, and \(\Pi \subseteq \text{Con}_C\) is a finite set of constraints.
2. A \(qc\)-atom \(A \leftarrow d \Pi\) is called defined, primitive or equational according to the syntactic form of \(A\).
3. A \(qc\)-atom \(A \leftarrow d \Pi\) is called observable iff \(d \in D \setminus \{b\}\) and \(\Pi\) is satisfiable.
4. Given two qc-atoms $\varphi : A \downarrow d \Leftarrow \Pi$ and $\varphi' : A' \downarrow d' \Leftarrow \Pi'$, we say that $\varphi$ $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C})$-entails $\varphi'$ (in symbols, $\varphi \triangleright_{\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}} \varphi'$) iff there is some $\mathcal{C}$-substitution $\theta$ satisfying $A' = A\theta$, $d' \leq d$ and $\Pi' \models_{\mathcal{C}} \Pi\theta$. 

We will focus our attention on observable qc-atoms because they can be interpreted as observations of valid open solutions for atomic goals in SQCLP$(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C})$ as we will see in Subsection 3.2. The example below illustrates the main technical ideas from Definition 3.1.

Example 3.2 (Observable qc-atoms and $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C})$-entailment)

Consider the admissible triple underlying Example 3.1 and the sets of $\mathcal{R}$-constraints:

$$\Pi = \{ cp_{>}(X,1,0), op_{+}(A,A,X), op_{>}(2,0,A,Y) \}$$

$$\Pi' = \{ cp_{>}(A,3,0), op_{+}(2,0,A,X), op_{+}(A,A,Y) \}$$

Then, the following are observable qc-atoms:

$$\varphi_1 = q(X,c'(Y)) \triangleright_{0.9} \Pi \quad \varphi_3 = r(c'(Y),c(X),Z) \triangleright_{0.8} \Pi$$

$$\varphi_2 = p'(c'(Y),c(X)) \triangleright_{0.8} \Pi \quad \varphi'_3 = r(c'(Y),c(X),c(Z')) \triangleright_{0.7} \Pi'$$

and the $(U, \mathcal{R})$-entailment $\varphi_3 \triangleright_{U, \mathcal{R}} \varphi'_3$ is valid thanks to $\theta = \{ Z \mapsto c(Z') \}$, which satisfies $r(c'(Y),c(X),c(Z')) = r(c'(Y),c(X),Z)\theta$, $0.7 \leq 0.8$ and $\Pi' \models_{\mathcal{R}} \Pi\theta$. 

The intended meaning of $\triangleright_{\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}}$ as an entailment relation not depending on the meanings of defined predicates motivates the first item in the next definition.

Definition 3.2 (Interpretations)

Let $\langle \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C} \rangle$ be any given admissible triple. Then:

1. A qualified constrained interpretation (or qc-interpretation) is a set $\mathcal{I}$ of observable defined qc-atoms closed under $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C})$-entailment. In other words, a set $\mathcal{I}$ of qc-atoms which satisfies the following two conditions:

   (a) Each $\varphi \in \mathcal{I}$ is an observable defined qc-atom.

   (b) If $\varphi \in \mathcal{I}$ and $\varphi'$ is another defined observable qc-atom such that $\varphi \triangleright_{\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}} \varphi'$, then also $\varphi' \in \mathcal{I}$.

2. Assume any given qc-interpretation $\mathcal{I}$. For any observable qc-atom $\varphi$, we say that $\varphi$ is valid in $\mathcal{I}$ modulo $\mathcal{S}$ (in symbols, $\mathcal{I} \models_{\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}} \varphi$) iff some of the three cases below holds:

   (a) $\varphi$ is defined and $\varphi \in \mathcal{I}$.

   (b) $\varphi : (t = s) \downarrow d \Leftarrow \Pi$ is equational and $t \sqsubseteq_{d, \Pi} s$.

   (c) $\varphi : s \downarrow d \Leftarrow \Pi$ is primitive and $\Pi \models_{\mathcal{C}} s$. 

Note that a given interpretation $\mathcal{I}$ can include several observables $A \downarrow d_i \Leftarrow \Pi$ for the same (possibly not ground) atom $A$ but is not required to include on “optimal” observable $A \downarrow d \Leftarrow \Pi$ with $d$ computed as the lub of all $d_i$. By contrast, the other related works discussed in the Introduction view program interpretations as mappings $\mathcal{I}$ from the ground Herbrand base into some set of lattice elements (the real interval $[0,1]$ in many cases). In such interpretations, each ground atom $A$ has attached one single lattice element $d = I(A)$ intended as “the optimal qualification”
for $A$. Our view of interpretations is closer to the expected operational behavior of goal solving systems and can be used to characterize the validity of solutions computed by such systems, as we will see in Subsection 3.2.

Note also that the notation $\mathcal{I} \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi$ is defined only for the case that $\varphi$ is observable. In the sequel, we will implicitly assume that $\varphi$ is observable in any context where the notation $\mathcal{I} \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi$ is used. The next technical result shows that validity in any given interpretation is closed under entailment.

**Proposition 3.1 (Entailment Property for Interpretations)**

Assume that $\mathcal{I} \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi$ and $\varphi \Rightarrow_{D,C} \varphi'$. Then $\mathcal{I} \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi'$.

**Proof**

Due to the hypothesis $\varphi \Rightarrow_{D,C} \varphi'$ we can assume $\varphi = (A\sharp_d \equiv \Pi$), $\varphi' = (A'\sharp_{d'} \equiv \Pi')$ and some $C$-substitution $\theta$ such that $A' = A\theta$, $d' \leq d$ and $\Pi' \equiv_C \Pi\theta$. We now distinguish cases according to the syntactic form of $\varphi$:

1. $\varphi$ is defined. In this case, $\varphi'$ is also defined. Moreover, $\mathcal{I} \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi$ is equivalent to $\varphi \in \mathcal{I}$ because of Definition 3.2 which implies $\varphi' \in \mathcal{I}$ because qc-interpretations are closed under $\Rightarrow_{D,C}$, which is equivalent to $\mathcal{I} \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi'$ because of Definition 3.2.

2. $\varphi$ is equational. In this case $A$ and $A'$ have the form $t \equiv s$ and $t\theta \equiv s\theta$, respectively. Moreover, $\mathcal{I} \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi$ is equivalent to $t \equiv_{d,\Pi} s$ because of Definition 3.2 which implies $\theta \equiv_{d,\Pi\theta} \theta$ because of Lemma 2.8 which trivially implies $t\theta \equiv_{d,\Pi'} s\theta$ because of $\Pi' \equiv_C \Pi\theta$ and $d' \leq d$, which is equivalent to $\mathcal{I} \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi'$ because of Definition 3.2.

3. $\varphi$ is primitive. In this case $A$ and $A'$ have the form $\kappa$ and $\kappa\theta$, respectively. Moreover, $\mathcal{I} \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi$ is equivalent to $\Pi \equiv_C \kappa$ because of Definition 3.2 which implies $\Pi\theta \equiv_C \kappa\theta$ because of Lemma 2.1 which implies $\Pi' \equiv_C \Pi\theta$, which is equivalent to $\mathcal{I} \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi'$ because of Definition 3.2.

The definition below explains when a given interpretation is regarded as a model of a given program, as well as the related notion of semantic consequence.

**Definition 3.3 (Models and semantic consequence)**

Let a SQCLP($S,D,C$)-program $\mathcal{P}$ and an observable qc-atom $\varphi : p'((\overline{P_n})\sharp_d \equiv \Pi$ be given. $\varphi$ is an immediate consequence of a qc-interpretation $\mathcal{I}$ via a program rule $(R_i : p(\overline{(\ell_n)}) \equiv B_1, \ell_2w_1, ..., B_m\sharp_{w_m}) \in \mathcal{P}$ iff there exist a $C$-substitution $\theta$ and a choice of qualification values $d_0, d_1, ..., d_n, e_1, ..., e_m \in D \setminus \{b\}$ such that:

(a) $S(p', p) = d_0$
(b) $\mathcal{I} \vdash_{S,D,C} (t'_i \equiv t_i\theta)\sharp_{d_i} \equiv \Pi$ (i.e., $t'_i \equiv_{d_i,\Pi} t_i\theta$) for $i = 1 ... n$
(c) $\mathcal{I} \vdash_{S,D,C} B_j\theta \equiv e_j \equiv \Pi$ with $e_j \equiv \gamma \sharp_{w_j}$ for $j = 1 ... m$
(d) $d \equiv \bigwedge_{i=0}^n d_i \wedge \bigwedge_{j=1}^m e_j$ (i.e., $d \equiv d_i \leq (0 \leq i \leq n)$ and $d \equiv \alpha \circ e_j \leq (1 \leq j \leq m)$

Note that the qualification value $d$ attached to $\varphi$ is limited by two kinds of upper bounds: $d_i$ ($0 \leq i \leq n$), i.e. the $S$-proximity between $p'((\overline{P_n})$ and the head of $R_i\theta$ and $\alpha \circ e_j$ ($1 \leq j \leq m$), i.e. the qualification values of the atoms in the body of $R_i\theta$ attenuated w.r.t. $R_i$'s attenuation factor $\alpha$. Moreover, the inequalities
Recall the SQCLP($S,U,R$)-scheme. We will characterize the observable consequences of a given program $P$ in two different, but equivalent, ways: either using the interpretation transformer presented in Subsection 3.1.1, or using the extension of Horn Logic presented in Subsection 3.1.2. In both approaches, we will prove the existence of a least model $M_P$ for each given program $P$.

The next example may serve as a concrete illustration:

**Example 3.3 (Models and semantic consequence)**

Recall the SQCLP($S,U,R$)-program $P$ from Example 3.1. Let us show that the three qc-atoms $\varphi_1, \varphi_2$ and $\varphi_3$ from Example 3.2 are semantic consequences of $P$:

1. Assume an arbitrary model $I \models_{S,U,R} P$. Note that the atom underlying $\varphi_1$ and the head atom of $R_1$ are $q(X,c'(Y))$ and $q(X,c(X))$, respectively. Since $S(c,c') = 0.9$ and $\Pi \models_c X \equiv Y$, $\varphi_1$ can be obtained as an immediate consequence of $I$ via $R_1$ using $\theta = \varepsilon$. Therefore $\varphi_1 \in I$ and we can conclude that $P \models_{S,U,R} \varphi_1$.

2. Assume an arbitrary model $I \models_{S,U,R} P$. Consider the substitution $\theta = \{Y \mapsto c'(Y)\}$. Note that the atom underlying $\varphi_2$ and the head atom of $R_2\theta$ are $p'(c'(Y),c(X))$ and $p(c(X),c'(Y))$, respectively. Moreover, $\varphi_2 \in I$ (due to the previous item) and the atom $q(X,c'(Y))$ underlying $\varphi_1$ is the same as the atom in the body of $R_2\theta$. These facts together with $S(p,p') = 0.8, S(c,c') = 0.9$ and $\Pi \models_c X \equiv Y$ allow to obtain $\varphi_2$ as an immediate consequence of $I$ via $R_2$. Therefore $\varphi_2 \in I$ and we can conclude that $P \models_{S,U,R} \varphi_2$.

3. Assume an arbitrary model $I \models_{S,U,R} P$. Consider again the substitution $\theta = \{Y \mapsto c'(Y)\}$. Note that the atom underlying $\varphi_3$ and the head atom of $R_3\theta$ are $r'(c'(Y),c(X),Z)$ and $r(c(X),c'(Y),Z)$, respectively. Moreover, the two annotated atoms $B_j\theta w_j$ $(1 \leq j \leq 2)$ occurring in the body of $R_3\theta$ are such that $I \models_{S,D,C} B_j\theta w_j$ as $\Pi$ for suitable values $e_j \geq w_j$, namely $e_1 = 0.9$ and $e_2 = 1.0$. Note that $e_1 = 0.9$ works because $B_1\theta$ is the atom $q(X,c'(Y))$ underlying $\varphi_1$ and $\varphi_1 \in I$, as proved in the first item of this example. On the other hand, $e_2 = 1.0$ works because $B_2\theta$ is the primitive atom $cp_\theta(X,0.0)$ which is trivially entailed by $\Pi$. All these facts, together with $S(c,c') = 0.9, 0.8 \leq 0.9 \times 0.9$ and $\Pi \models_c X \equiv Y$ allow to obtain $\varphi_3$ as an immediate consequence of $I$ via $R_3$. Therefore $\varphi_3 \in I$ and we can conclude that $P \models_{S,U,R} \varphi_3$.

Now we are ready to obtain results on the declarative semantics of programs in the SQCLP scheme. We will characterize the observable consequences of a given program $P$ in two different, but equivalent, ways: either using the interpretation transformer presented in Subsection 3.1.1, or using the extension of Horn Logic presented in Subsection 3.1.2. In both approaches, we will prove the existence of a least model $M_P$ for each given program $P$. 

\[ \begin{align*}
  e_j \geq w_j, \quad 1 \leq j \leq m & \quad \text{(1)} \\
  \text{were required in order to impose the threshold conditions within } R_i. \quad \text{(2)} \\
  \text{As already explained at the beginning of this subsection, } e_j \geq w_j \quad \text{means that either } w_j = \? \text{ or else } w_j \in D \setminus \{b\} \quad \text{and } e_j \geq w_j. \quad \text{(3)} \\
\end{align*} \]
3.1.1 A Fixpoint Semantics

A well-known way of characterizing models and least models of programs in declarative languages proceeds by considering a lattice structure for the family of all program interpretations, and using an interpretation transformer to compute the immediate consequences obtained from program rules. This kind of approach is well known for logic programming (van Emden and Kowalski 1976; Apt and van Emden 1982; Lloyd 1987; Apt 1990) and constraint logic programming (Gabbrielli and Levi 1991; Gabbrielli et al. 1995; Jaffar et al. 1998). It has been used also in various extensions of logic programming designed to support uncertain reasoning, such as quantitative logic programming (van Emden 1986), its extension to qualified logic programming (Rodríguez-Artalejo and Romero-Díaz 2008b) quantitative constraint logic programming (Riezler 1996; Riezler 1998), similarity-based logic programming (Sessa 2002) and proximity-based logic programming in the sense of Bousi−Prolog (Julían-Irámno and Rubio-Manzano 2009a).

The SQCLP scheme is intended to unify all these logic programming extensions in a common framework. This subsection is based on the declarative semantics given in (Rodríguez-Artalejo and Romero-Díaz 2008b; Rodríguez-Artalejo and Romero-Díaz 2008a), extended to deal with constraints and proximity relations. Our first result provides a lattice of program interpretations.

**Proposition 3.2 (Lattice of Interpretations)**

$\text{Int}_{D,C}$, defined as the set of all qc-interpretations over the qualification domain $D$ and the constraint domain $C$, is a complete lattice w.r.t. the set inclusion ordering $\subseteq$. Moreover, the bottom element $\bot$ and the top element $\top$ of this lattice are characterized as $\bot = \emptyset$ and $\top = \{\varphi \mid \varphi \text{ is a defined observable qc-atom}\}$ and for any subset $I \subseteq \text{Int}_{D,C}$ its greatest lower bound (glb) and least upper bound (lub) are characterized as follows:

1. The glb of $I$ (written as $\bigcap I$) is $\bigcap_{\mathcal{I} \in I} \mathcal{I}$, understood as $\top$ if $I = \emptyset$; and
2. The lub of $I$ (written as $\bigcup I$) is $\bigcup_{\mathcal{I} \in I} \mathcal{I}$, understood as $\bot$ if $I = \emptyset$.

**Proof**

Both $\bot$ and $\top$ are qc-interpretations because they are sets of defined observable qc-atoms and they are closed under $(D,C)$-entailment for trivial reasons. $\bot$ is empty and $\top$ includes all the defined observables. Moreover, they are the minimum and the maximum of $\text{Int}_{D,C}$ w.r.t. $\subseteq$ because $\bot \subseteq \mathcal{I} \subseteq \top$ is trivially true for each $\mathcal{I} \in \text{Int}_{D,C}$. Thus, we have only left to prove 1 and 2:

1. $\bigcap_{\mathcal{I} \in I} \mathcal{I}$ is obviously a set of defined observable qc-atoms because this is the case for each $\mathcal{I} \in I$. Given any $\varphi \in \bigcap_{\mathcal{I} \in I} \mathcal{I}$ and any observable defined qc-atom $\varphi'$ such that $\varphi \supseteq_{D,C} \varphi'$, we get $\varphi' \in \bigcap_{\mathcal{I} \in I} \mathcal{I}$ as an obvious consequence of the fact that each $\mathcal{I} \in I$ is closed under $(D,C)$-entailment. Therefore, $\bigcap_{\mathcal{I} \in I} \mathcal{I} \in \text{Int}_{D,C}$. Obviously, $\bigcap_{\mathcal{I} \in I} \mathcal{I}$ is trivially a lower bound of $I$ w.r.t. $\subseteq$. Moreover, $\bigcap_{\mathcal{I} \in I} \mathcal{I}$ is the glb of $I$, because any given lower bound $J$ of $I$ verifies $J \subseteq \mathcal{I}$ for every $\mathcal{I} \in I$ and thus $J \subseteq \bigcap_{\mathcal{I} \in I} \mathcal{I}$. Therefore, $\bigcap_{\mathcal{I} \in I} \mathcal{I} = \bigcap I$.
2. Using the properties of the union of a family of sets it is easy to prove that \( \bigcup_{\mathcal{I} \in \mathcal{I}} \mathcal{I} \in \text{Int}_{\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}} \) and also that \( \bigcup_{\mathcal{I} \in \mathcal{I}} \mathcal{I} \) is the lub of \( \mathcal{I} \) w.r.t. \( \subseteq \). A more detailed reasoning would be similar to the previous item. Therefore, \( \bigcup_{\mathcal{I} \in \mathcal{I}} \mathcal{I} = \bigcup \mathcal{I} \). \( \square \)

Next we define an **interpretation transformer** \( T_P \), intended to compute the immediate consequences obtained from a given qc-interpretation via the program rules belonging to \( \mathcal{P} \).

**Definition 3.4 (Interpretations Transformer)**

Let \( \mathcal{P} \) be a fixed SQCLP(\( \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C} \))-program. The interpretations transformer \( T_P : \text{Int}_{\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}} \to \text{Int}_{\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}} \) is defined by the condition:

\[
T_P(\mathcal{I}) := \text{def} \ \{ \varphi \mid \varphi \text{ is an immediate consequence of } \mathcal{I} \ \text{via some } R_t \in \mathcal{P} \}.
\]

The computation of immediate consequences of a given qc-interpretation \( \mathcal{I} \) via a given program rule \( R_t \) has been already explained in Definition 3.3. The following example illustrates the workings of \( T_P \).

**Example 3.4 (Interpretation transformer in action)**

Recall again the SQCLP(\( \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{U}, \mathcal{R} \))-program \( \mathcal{P} \) from Example 3.1 and the observable defined qc-atoms \( \varphi_1, \varphi_2 \) and \( \varphi_3 \) from Example 3.2. Then:

1. The arguments given in Example 3.3(1) can be easily reused to show that \( \varphi_1 \) is an immediate consequence of the empty interpretation \( \bot \) via the program rule \( R_1 \). Therefore, \( \varphi_1 \in T_P(\bot) \).
2. The arguments given in Example 3.3(2) can be easily reused to show that \( \varphi_1 \) is an immediate consequence of \( \mathcal{I} \) via the program rule \( R_2 \), provided that \( \varphi_1 \in \mathcal{I} \). Therefore, \( \varphi_2 \in T_P(T_P(\bot)) \).
3. The arguments given in Example 3.3(3) can be easily reused to show that \( \varphi_3 \) is an immediate consequence of \( \mathcal{I} \) via the program rule \( R_3 \), provided that \( \varphi_1 \in \mathcal{I} \). Therefore, \( \varphi_3 \in T_P(T_P(\bot)) \). \( \square \)

The next proposition states the main properties of interpretation transformers.

**Proposition 3.3 (Properties of interpretation transformers)**

Let \( \mathcal{P} \) be any fixed SQCLP(\( \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C} \))-program. Then:

1. \( T_P \) is a well defined mapping, i.e. for all \( \mathcal{I} \in \text{Int}_{\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}} \) one has \( T_P(\mathcal{I}) \in \text{Int}_{\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}} \).
2. \( T_P \) is monotonic and continuous.
3. For all \( \mathcal{I} \in \text{Int}_{\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}} \) one has: \( \mathcal{I} \models_{\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}} \mathcal{P} \iff T_P(\mathcal{I}) \subseteq \mathcal{I} \). That is, the models of \( \mathcal{P} \) are precisely the pre-fixpoints of \( T_P \).

**Proof**

1. By definition, \( T_P(\mathcal{I}) \) is a set of observable defined qc-atoms. It is sufficient to prove that it is closed under \( (\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}) \)-entailment. Let us assume two observable defined qc-atoms \( \varphi \) and \( \varphi' \) such that \( \varphi \models_{\mathcal{P}} \varphi' \). Because of \( \varphi \models_{\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}} \varphi' \) we can assume \( \varphi : p(\overline{t}) \models \Pi, \varphi' : p(\overline{t'}) \models \Pi' \) and some substitution \( \theta \) such that \( p(\overline{t}) = p(\overline{t'}) \theta, \overline{d} \models \overline{d'} \) and \( \Pi' \models_{\mathcal{C}} \Pi \theta \). Because of \( \varphi \in T_P(\mathcal{I}) \), we can assume that \( \varphi \) is an immediate consequence of \( \mathcal{I} \) via some \( R_t \in \mathcal{P} \). More precisely, we can assume \( (R_t : q(\overline{t}) \models B_1 \models \ldots, B_m \models \overline{w}_m) \in \mathcal{P}, \) some substitution \( \sigma \) and some qualification values \( d_0, d_1, \ldots, d_n, e_1, \ldots, e_m \in D \setminus \{ b \} \) such that
2. Monotonicity means that the inclusion $T \subseteq P$ is enough to check the following items:

- $t \vdash (c)$, and the entailment property for interpretations (Proposition 3.1), which can be verified via the same program rule $R$. Regarding item (b'):
  - For each fixed $I$, $I \vdash (a')$: For $i = 1 \ldots n$, $d_i \vdash (a') S$.
  - In order to prove the opposite inclusion $T(I) \subseteq T(J)$ holds whenever $I \subseteq J$. This follows very easily from $\vdash (\spadesuit) I \vdash S, D, C \varphi$ and $I \subseteq J \Rightarrow J \vdash S, D, C \varphi$

  which is a trivial consequence of Definition 3.2.

Continuity means that the equation $T_P(I) = \bigcup \{T_P(I) \mid I \in I\}$ holds for any directed set $I \subseteq Int_{D, C}$ of qc-interpretations. Recall that $I \subseteq Int_{D, C}$ is called directed if every finite subset $I_0 \subseteq I$ has some upper bound $I \in I$. We show that $T_P(I) = \bigcup \{T_P(I) \mid I \in I\}$ holds by proving the two inclusions separately:

- (a) For each fixed $I_0 \in I$, $T_P(I_0) \subseteq T_P(\bigcup I)$ follows from $I_0 \subseteq \bigcup I$ and monotonicity of $T_P$. Then, the inclusion $\bigcup \{T_P(I) \mid I \in I\} \subseteq T_P(\bigcup I)$ holds by definition of supremum.
- (b) In order to prove the opposite inclusion $T_P(\bigcup I) \subseteq \bigcup \{T_P(I) \mid I \in I\}$, consider an arbitrary $\varphi \in T_P(\bigcup I)$. Due to Definition 3.3 $\varphi$ is an immediate consequence of $\bigcup I$ via some program rule $R_0 \in \mathcal{P}$. Because of the first item of Definition 3.3 $\varphi$ is an immediate consequence of $\bigcup I$ via $R_0$ due to finitely many qc-facts of the form $B_j \otimes e_j \vdash \varphi$ (coming from the body of a suitable instance of $R_0$) that are valid in $\bigcup I$. Because of (\spadesuit) and the assumption that $I$ is directed, it is possible to choose some $I_0 \in I$ such that all the qc-facts $B_j \otimes e_j \vdash \varphi$ are valid in $I_0$. Then, $\varphi$ is an immediate consequence of this particular $I_0 \in I$ via $R_0$. Therefore, $\varphi \in T_P(I_0) \subseteq \bigcup \{T_P(I) \mid I \in I\}$.
3. According to Definition 3.3, \( I = S, D, C \) holds iff every observable defined qc-atom \( \varphi \) which is an immediate consequence of \( I \) via the program rules \( R_l \in \mathcal{P} \) verifies \( \varphi \in I \). According to Definition 3.4, \( T_P(I) \) is just the set of all the defined observable qc-atoms \( \varphi \) that can be obtained as immediate consequences of \( I \) via the program rules \( R_l \in \mathcal{P} \). Consequently, \( I = S, D, C \) holds iff \( T_P(I) \subseteq I \).

Theorem 3.1 (Fixpoint characterization of least program models)

Every SQCLP(S, D, C)-program \( \mathcal{P} \) has a least model \( \mathcal{M}_P \), smaller than any other model of \( \mathcal{P} \) w.r.t. the set inclusion ordering of the interpretation lattice \( \text{Int}_{D, C} \). Moreover, \( \mathcal{M}_P \) can be characterized as the least fixpoint of \( T_P \) as follows:

\[
\mathcal{M}_P = \text{lfp}(T_P) = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} T_P^k(\bot)
\]

Proof

As usual, a given \( I \in \text{Int}_{D, C} \) is called a fixpoint of \( T_P \) iff \( T_P(I) = I \), and \( I \) is called a pre-fixpoint of \( T_P \) iff \( T_P(I) \subseteq I \). Due to a well-known theorem by Knaster and Tarski, see (Tarski 1955), a monotonic mapping from a complete lattice into itself always has a least fixpoint which is also its least pre-fixpoint. In the case that the mapping is continuous, its least fixpoint can be characterized as the lub of the sequence of lattice elements obtained by reiterated application of the mapping to the bottom element. Combining these results with Proposition 3.3 trivially proves the theorem.

3.1.2 An equivalent Proof-theoretic Semantics

In order to give a logical view of program semantics and an alternative characterization of least program models, we define the Proximity-based Qualified Constrained Horn Logic SQCHL(S, D, C) as a formal inference system consisting of the three inference rules displayed in Figure 2.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{SQDA} & \quad ( t_i' \equiv t_i \theta \downarrow d_i \leq \Pi )_{i=1 \ldots n} \quad ( B_j \theta \downarrow e_j \leq \Pi )_{j=1 \ldots m} \\
& \quad p'(\overline{t}) \downarrow d \leq \Pi \\
& \quad \text{if } ( p(\overline{t}) ) \equiv B_1 \uparrow w_1, \ldots, B_m \uparrow w_m \in \mathcal{P}, \theta \text{ subst.}, S(p', p) = d_0 \neq b, \\
& \quad e_j \uparrow w_j (1 \leq j \leq m) \text{ and } d \leq \prod_{i=0}^{n} d_i \sqcap \alpha \equiv \prod_{j=1}^{m} e_j.
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\text{SQEA} \quad ( t = s ) \downarrow d \leq \Pi \quad \text{if } t \equiv_{d, \Pi} s.
\]

\[
\text{SQPA} \quad \kappa \downarrow d \leq \Pi \quad \text{if } \Pi \models_{C} \kappa.
\]

Fig. 2. Proximity-based Qualified Constrained Horn Logic
The three inference rules are intended to work with observable qc-atoms. Rule SQDA is used to infer defined qc-atoms. It formalizes an extension of the classical Modus Ponens inference, allowing to infer a defined qc-atom \( p'(\overline{t}_n) \neq d \leftarrow \Pi \) by means of an instance of a program clause with head \( p(\overline{t}_n) \param \theta \) and body atoms \( B_j \theta \sharp w_j \). The \( n \) premises \( (t'_i \equiv t_i \theta) \neq d \leftarrow \Pi \) combined with the side condition \( S(p', p) = d_0 \neq b \) ensure the “equality” between \( p'(\overline{t}_n) \) and \( p(\overline{t}_n) \theta \) modulo \( S \); the \( m \) premises \( B_j \theta \sharp e_j \leftarrow \Pi \) require to prove the body atoms; and the side conditions \( e_j \geq_\tau w_j \) and \( d \leq \prod_{i=0}^n d_i \cap \alpha \circ \prod_{j=1}^n e_j \) check the threshold conditions of the body atoms and impose the proper relationships between the qualification value attached to the conclusion and the qualification values attached to the premises. In particular, the inequality \( d \leq \alpha \circ \prod_{j=1}^n e_j \) is imposed, meaning that the qualification value attached to a clause’s head cannot exceed the glb of the qualification values attached to the body atoms attenuated by the clause’s attenuation factor. Rules SQEA and SQPA are used to infer equational and primitive qc-atoms, respectively. Rule SQEA is designed to work with term proximity w.r.t. \( \Pi \) in the sense of Definition 2.16 inferring \( (t \equiv s) \neq d \leftarrow \Pi \) just in the case that \( t \approx_{d, \Pi} s \) holds. Rule SQPA infers \( \kappa \sharp d \leftarrow \Pi \) for an arbitrary \( d \in D \setminus \{ b \} \), provided that \( \Pi \models_c \kappa \) holds. This makes sense because the requirements for admissible triples in Definition 2.14 include the assumption that \( S(p, p') \neq b \) cannot happen if \( p, p' \in PP \) are syntactically different primitive predicate symbols.

As usual in formal inference systems, SQCHL(\( S, D, C \)) proofs can be represented as proof trees \( T \) whose nodes correspond to qc-atoms, each node being inferred from its children by means of some SQCHL(\( S, D, C \)) inference step. In the rest of the report we will use the following notations:

- \( |T| \) will denote the size of the proof tree \( T \), measured as its number of nodes, which equals the number of inference steps in the SQCHL(\( S, D, C \)) proof represented by \( T \).
- \( |T|_d \) will denote the number of nodes of the proof tree \( T \) that represent conclusions of SQDA inference steps. Obviously, \( |T|_d \leq |T| \).
- \( \mathcal{P} \vdash_{S, D, C} \varphi \) will indicate that \( \varphi \) can be inferred from \( \mathcal{P} \) in SQCHL(\( S, D, C \)).
- \( \mathcal{P} \vdash_{S, D, C}^k \varphi \) will indicate that \( \varphi \) can be inferred from \( \mathcal{P} \) in SQCHL(\( S, D, C \)) using some proof tree \( T \) such that \( |T|_d = k \).

The next example shows a SQCHL(\( S, \mathcal{U}, \mathcal{R} \)) proof tree.

**Example 3.5 (SQCHL(\( S, D, C \)) proof tree)**

Recall the proximity relation \( S \) and the program \( \mathcal{P} \) from our running Example 3.1 as well as the observable qc-statement \( \varphi_2 = p'(c'(Y), c(X)) \approx 0.8 \leftarrow \Pi \) already known from Example 3.2 A SQCHL(\( S, \mathcal{U}, \mathcal{R} \)) proof tree witnessing \( \mathcal{P} \vdash_{S, \mathcal{U}, \mathcal{R}} \varphi_2 \) can be displayed as follows:

\[
\Diamond = \frac{\frac{(Y == Y) \sharp 1.0 \leftarrow \Pi}{(c(X) == c(Y)) \sharp 1.0 \leftarrow \Pi}}{q(Y, c(X)) \sharp 1.0 \leftarrow \Pi} \quad \text{(4)}
\]

\[
\frac{(t^i_1 \equiv t^i \theta) \neq d \leftarrow \Pi}{(t \equiv s) \neq d \leftarrow \Pi} \quad \text{(5)}
\]

\[
\frac{p'(\overline{t}_n) \neq d \leftarrow \Pi}{p(\overline{t}_n) \theta \neq d \leftarrow \Pi} \quad \text{(6)}
\]
\[
\frac{(c'(Y) = c(Y)) \equiv_{0.8} \Pi}{p'(c'(Y), c(X)) \equiv_{0.8} \Pi} \quad (2) \quad \frac{(c(X) = c(X)) \equiv_{1.0} \Pi}{\text{Lemma 3.1}} \quad \star (4)
\]

The inference steps in this proof are commented below. For the sake of clarity, we have used a different variant of the corresponding program clause for each application of the inference rule SQDA.

1. **SQDA** step with clause \( R_1 = ( p(c(X_1), Y_1) \overset{0.9}{\leftarrow} q(X_1, Y_1) ) \) instantiated by substitution \( \theta_1 = \{ X_1 \mapsto Y, Y_1 \mapsto c(X) \} \). Note that 0.9 satisfies 0.8 \( \leq S(p, p') = 0.8, 0.8 \leq 0.8, 0.8 \leq 1.0, 0.8 \leq 0.9 \times 1.0. \)

2. **SQEA** step. \( c'(Y) \equiv_{0.8, \Pi} c(Y) \) holds due to \( c'(Y) \equiv_{\Pi} c'(Y), c(Y) \equiv_{\Pi} c(Y) \) and \( c'(Y) \equiv_{0.8} c(Y) \).

3. **SQEA** step. \( c(X) \equiv_{1.0, \Pi} c(X) \) holds for trivial reasons.

4. **SQDA** step with clause \( R_2 = ( q(X_2, c(X_2)) \overset{1.0}{\leftarrow} ) \) instantiated by substitution \( \theta_2 = \{ X_2 \mapsto Y \} \). Note that 1.0 satisfies 1.0 \( \leq S(q, q) = 1.0 \) and 1.0 \( \leq 1.0. \)

5. **SQEA** step. \( Y \equiv_{1.0, \Pi} Y \) holds for trivial reasons.

6. **SQEA** step. \( c(X) \equiv_{1.0, \Pi} c(Y) \) holds due to \( c(X) \equiv_{\Pi} c(Y) \) (which follows from \( \Pi \vdash R X = = Y \)) and \( c(X) \equiv_{1.0} c(X) \). \( \square \)

The next technical lemma establishes two basic properties of formal inference in the SQCHL(\( S, D, C \)) logic.

**Lemma 3.1 (Properties of SQCHL(\( S, D, C \)) derivability)**

Let \( \mathcal{P} \) be any SQCLP(\( S, D, C \))-program. Then:

1. **\( \mathcal{P} \)-independent Inferences:**
   Given any \( C \)-based qc-atom \( \varphi \) and any qc-interpretation \( I \), one has:
   \[
   \mathcal{P} \vdash_{S, D, C} \varphi \iff \mathcal{P} \vdash_{S, D, C} \varphi \iff I \vdash_{S, D, C} \varphi .
   \]

2. **Entailment Property for Programs:**
   Given any pair of qc-atoms \( \varphi, \varphi' \) such that \( \mathcal{P} \vdash_{S, D, C} \varphi \) with inference proof tree \( T \) and \( \varphi \equiv_{D, C} \varphi' \), then \( \mathcal{P} \vdash_{S, D, C} \varphi' \) with an inference proof tree \( T' \) of the same size and structure as \( T \).

**Proof of \( \mathcal{P} \)-independent Inferences**

Since \( \varphi \) is \( C \)-based, we can assume \( \varphi = A \sharp d \iff \Pi \) where \( A \) is either an equation or a primitive atom. In both cases the equivalence \( \mathcal{P} \vdash_{S, D, C} \varphi \iff \mathcal{P} \vdash_{S, D, C} \varphi \) is obvious. In order to prove the equivalence \( \mathcal{P} \vdash_{S, D, C} \varphi \iff I \vdash_{S, D, C} \varphi \) we distinguish the two cases:

1. \( \varphi \) is equational. Then \( A \) has the form \( t = = s \). Considering the SQCHL(\( S, D, C \))-inference rule **SQEA** and the second item of Definition 3.2, we get
   \[
   \mathcal{P} \vdash_{S, D, C} \varphi \iff s \equiv_{d, \Pi} t \iff I \vdash_{S, D, C} \varphi .
   \]
2. \( \varphi \) is primitive. Then \( A \) is a primitive atom \( \kappa \). Considering the SQCHL(S, D, C)-inference rule SQPA and the second item of Definition 3.2, we get

\[
\mathcal{P} \vdash_{S, D, C} \varphi \iff \Pi \models_c \kappa \iff \mathcal{I} \vdash_{S, D, C} \varphi . \quad \square
\]

**Proof of Entailment Property for Programs**

Due to the hypothesis \( \varphi \models_{D, C} \varphi' \) and Definition 3.1, we can assume \( \varphi = A \sharp d \ll \Pi \) and \( \varphi' = A' \sharp d' \ll \Pi' \) with \( A' = A \theta \), \( d' \subseteq d \) and \( \Pi' \models_c \Pi \theta \) for some substitution \( \theta \).

We reason by complete induction on \( \|T\| \). There are three possible cases, according to the the syntactic form of the atom \( A \). In each case we argue how to build the desired proof tree \( T' \).

1. \( A \) is a defined atom: In this case, \( A = p(t_n) \) with \( p \in DP^n \), and \( A' \) is \( p(t'_n) \) with \( p(t'_n) = p(t_n) \theta \). Moreover, \( T \) must be a proof tree of the following form:

\[
T : \begin{array}{l}
( (i = s_i \sharp d_i \ll \Pi)_{i=1...n} \\
\vdots \\
( B_j \sigma \sharp e_j \ll \Pi)_{j=1...m} \\
p(t_n) \sharp d \ll \Pi
\end{array}
\]

**SQDA**

where:

- The **SQDA** root inference uses some \( R_i : (q(x_n) \overset{=}{} B_1 \sharp w_1, \ldots, B_m \sharp w_m) \in \mathcal{P} \), some substitution \( \sigma \) and some qualification values \( d_0, d_1, \ldots, d_n, e_1, \ldots, e_m \in D \setminus \{b\} \) such that \( S(p, q) = d_0 \neq b \), \( d_i \subseteq d_n (0 \leq i \leq n) \) and \( d \subseteq \alpha \circ e_j (1 \leq j \leq m) \).

- For \( i = 1 \ldots n \), \( (i = s_i \sigma \sharp d_i \ll \Pi) \) has a proof tree \( T_i^h \) with \( \|T_i^h\| < \|T\| \).

- For \( j = 1 \ldots m \), \( B_j \sigma \sharp e_j \ll \Pi \) has a proof tree \( T_j^h \) with \( \|T_j^h\| < \|T\| \).

Then, \( T' \) can be built as a proof tree of the form:

\[
T' : \begin{array}{l}
( (i' = s_i \sigma \theta \sharp d_i \ll \Pi')_{i=1...n} \\
\vdots \\
( B_j \sigma \theta \sharp e_j \ll \Pi')_{j=1...m} \\
p(t'_n) \sharp d' \ll \Pi'
\end{array}
\]

**SQDA**

where:

- The **SQDA** root inference uses the same program clause \( R_i \in \mathcal{P} \), the substitution \( \sigma \theta \) and the same qualification values \( d_i (0 \leq i \leq n) \) and \( e_j (1 \leq j \leq m) \), satisfying \( S(p, q) = d_0 \neq b \), \( d_i \subseteq d_n (0 \leq i \leq n) \) and \( d_i \subseteq \alpha \circ e_j (1 \leq j \leq m) \).

- For \( i = 1 \ldots n \), \( (i' = s_i \sigma \theta \sharp d_i \ll \Pi') \) has a proof tree \( T_i^{h'} \) of the same size and structure as \( T_i^h \). In fact, \( T_i^{h'} \) can be obtained by induction hypothesis applied to \( T_i^{h} \), which is allowed because \( \|T_i^{h}\| < \|T\| \) and \( (i = s_i \sigma \sharp d_i \ll \Pi') \models_{D, C} (i' = s_i \sigma \theta \sharp d_i \ll \Pi') \). Note that this entailment holds thanks to substitution \( \theta \), since \( t'_i = t_i \theta \) and \( \Pi' \models_c \Pi \theta \).

- For \( j = 1 \ldots m \), \( B_j \sigma \theta \sharp e_j \ll \Pi' \) has a proof tree \( T_j^{h'} \) of the same size and structure as \( T_j^h \). In fact, \( T_j^{h'} \) can be obtained by induction hypothesis applied to \( T_j^h \), which is allowed because \( \|T_j^{h}\| < \|T\| \) and \( B_j \sigma \sharp e_j \ll \Pi \models_{D, C} B_j \sigma \theta \sharp e_j \ll \Pi' \). Note that this entailment holds thanks to substitution \( \theta \), since \( \Pi' \models_c \Pi \theta \).
By construction, $T'$ has the same size and structure as $T$, as desired.

2. $A$ is an equation: In this case, $A : t == s$ and $A' : t' == s'$ with $t' = t\theta$, $s' = s\theta$. Moreover, $T$ must consist of one single node $(t == s) \sharp d \Leftarrow \Pi$ inferred by means of SQEA. Therefore, $t \approx d, T$ holds. This implies $t\theta \approx d, T\theta$ (i.e. $t' \approx d, T\theta$) due to the Substitution Lemma 2.8. From this we conclude $t' \approx T$, $s'$ due to $d' \subseteq d$ and $\Pi' \models c \Pi\theta$. Therefore, $T'$ can be built as a proof tree consisting of one single node $(t' == s') \sharp d' \Leftarrow \Pi'$ inferred by means of SQEA.

3. $A$ is a primitive atom: In this case, $A : \kappa$ and $A' : \kappa' = \kappa\theta$. Moreover, $T$ must consist of one single node $\kappa \sharp d = \Pi$ inferred by means of SQPA. Therefore, $\Pi \models c \kappa$ holds. This implies $\Pi\theta \models c \kappa\theta$ due to the Substitution Lemma 2.1. From this we conclude $\Pi' \models c \kappa'$ due to $\kappa' = \kappa\theta$ and $\Pi' \models c \Pi\theta$. Therefore, $T'$ can be built as a proof tree consisting of one single node $\kappa' \sharp d' \Leftarrow \Pi'$ inferred by means of SQPA. 

The following theorem is the main result in this subsection. It characterizes the least model of a SQCLP($S, D, C$)-program $P$ w.r.t. the logic SQCHL($S, D, C$):

**Theorem 3.2 (Logical characterization of least program models)**

For any SQCLP($S, D, C$)-program $P$, its least model can be characterized as:

$$\mathcal{M}_P = \{\varphi \mid \varphi \text{ is a defined observable qc-atom and } P \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi\}.$$ 

**Proof**

By Theorem 3.1, we already know that $\mathcal{M}_P = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} T_P \uparrow^k(\bot)$. Therefore, it is sufficient to prove that the two implications

1. $P \vdash_{S,D,C} k \varphi \implies \exists k' : \varphi \in T_P \uparrow^{k'}(\bot)$
2. $\varphi \in T_P \uparrow^k(\bot) \implies \exists k' : P \vdash_{S,D,C} k \varphi$

hold for any defined observable qc-atom $\varphi = p(\bar{t}_n) \sharp d \Leftarrow \Pi$ and for any integer value $k \geq 1$. We prove both implications within one single inductive reasoning on $k$.

**Basis ($k = 1$).**

--- Implication 1. Assume $P \vdash_{S,D,C} 1 \varphi$. Then, due to the single SQDA inference, there must exist some $R_i = (q(\bar{t}_n) \uparrow^\omega) \in P$ with empty body, some substitution $\theta$ and some $d_0, d_1, \ldots, d_n \in D \setminus \{b\}$ such that $P \vdash_{S,D,C} (t_i == s_i \theta) \sharp d_i \Leftarrow \Pi$ for

$i = 1 \ldots n, \ S(p,q) = d_0 \neq b, \ d \subseteq d_i \ (0 \leq i \leq n)$ and $d \subseteq \alpha$. Then $\bot \vdash_{S,D,C} (t_i == s_i \theta) \sharp d_i \Leftarrow \Pi$ holds for $i = 1 \ldots n$, because of Lemma 3.1. Therefore $\varphi$ is an immediate consequence of $\bot$ via $R_i$, which guarantees $\varphi \in T_P \uparrow^1(\bot)$.

--- Implication 2. Assume now $\varphi \in T_P \uparrow^1(\bot)$. Then $\varphi$ must be an immediate consequence of $\bot$ via some $R_i = (q(\bar{t}_n) \uparrow^\omega) \in P$ with empty body. Then there are some substitution $\theta$ and some $d_0, d_1, \ldots, d_n \in D \setminus \{b\}$ such that $\bot \vdash_{S,D,C} (t_i == s_i \theta) \sharp d_i \Leftarrow \Pi$ for $i = 1 \ldots n, \ S(p,q) = d_0 \neq b, \ d \subseteq d_i \ (0 \leq i \leq n)$ and $d \subseteq \alpha$. Again because of Lemma 3.1, we get $P \vdash_{S,D,C} (t_i == s_i \theta) \sharp d_i \Leftarrow \Pi$ for $i = 1 \ldots n$, which guarantees $P \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi$ with one single SQDA inference using $R_i$ instantiated by $\theta$. 
Inductive step \((k > 1)\).

— Implication 1. Assume \(\mathcal{P} \vdash_{S,D,C}^k \varphi\). Since the root inference must be SQDA, there must exist some program rule \((R_i : q(\overline{s}_n) \leftarrow A_i \# w_1, \ldots, B_m \# w_m) \in \mathcal{P}\), some substitution \(\theta\) and some qualification values \(d_0, d_1, \ldots, d_n, e_1, \ldots, e_m \in D \setminus \{b\}\) such that

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{P} & \vdash_{S,D,C}^0 \phi_i = ((t_i == s_i \theta) \# d_i \Leftarrow \Pi) \text{ for } i = 1 \ldots n, \\
\mathcal{P} & \vdash_{S,D,C}^k \psi_j = (B_j \theta e_j \Leftarrow \Pi) \text{ with } e_j \# w_j \text{ for } j = 1 \ldots m, \text{ and} \\
S(p,q) & = d_0 \neq b, \ d \sqsubseteq d_i (0 \leq i \leq n) \text{ and } d \sqsubseteq \alpha \circ e_j (1 \leq j \leq m)
\end{align*}
\]

where \(\Sigma_{j=1}^m k_j = k - 1\). For each \(j = 1 \ldots m\), either \(\psi_j\) is defined, and then induction hypothesis yields some \(k_j'\) such that \(\psi_j \in \mathcal{T}_p \vdash_{S,D,C}^{k_j'}(\underline{\varnothing})\) and therefore also \(\mathcal{T}_p \vdash_{S,D,C}^{k_j'}(\underline{\varnothing}) \vdash_{S,D,C} \psi_j\); or else \(\psi_j\) is not defined and then \(\mathcal{T}_p \vdash_{S,D,C}^{k_j'}(\underline{\varnothing}) \vdash_{S,D,C} \psi_j\) for any arbitrarily chosen \(k_j\), by Lemma 3.1[1]. Then \(l = \max\{k_j' \mid 1 \leq j \leq m\}\) verifies that \(\varphi\) is an immediate consequence of \(\mathcal{T}_p \vdash_{S,D,C}^l(\underline{\varnothing})\) via \(R_i\), which implies \(\varphi \in \mathcal{T}_p \vdash_{S,D,C}^{k_j' + 1}(\underline{\varnothing})\) for \(k' = l + 1\).

— Implication 2. Assume \(\varphi \in \mathcal{T}_p \vdash_{S,D,C}^{k}(\underline{\varnothing}) = \mathcal{T}_p (\mathcal{T}_p \vdash_{S,D,C}^{k-1}(\underline{\varnothing}))\). Then \(\varphi\) is an immediate consequence of \(\mathcal{T}_p \vdash_{S,D,C}^{k-1}(\underline{\varnothing})\) via some clause \((R_i : q(\overline{s}_n) \leftarrow A_i \# w_1, \ldots, B_m \# w_m) \in \mathcal{P}\). Therefore, there exist some substitution \(\theta\) and some qualification values \(d_0, d_1, \ldots, d_n, e_1, \ldots, e_m \in D \setminus \{b\}\) such that:

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{T}_p & \vdash_{S,D,C}^{k-1}(\underline{\varnothing}) \vdash_{S,D,C} \phi_i = ((t_i == s_i \theta) \# d_i \Leftarrow \Pi) \text{ for } i = 1 \ldots n, \\
\mathcal{T}_p & \vdash_{S,D,C}^{k-1}(\underline{\varnothing}) \vdash_{S,D,C} \psi_j = (B_j \theta e_j \Leftarrow \Pi) \text{ with } e_j \# w_j \text{ for } j = 1 \ldots m, \text{ and} \\
S(p,q) & = d_0 \neq b, \ d \sqsubseteq d_i (0 \leq i \leq n) \text{ and } d \sqsubseteq \alpha \circ e_j (1 \leq j \leq m)
\end{align*}
\]

For each \(i = 1 \ldots n\), Lemma 3.1[1] yields \(\mathcal{P} \vdash_{S,D,C}^0 \phi_i\). For each \(j = 1 \ldots m\), either \(\psi_j\) is defined, in which case \(\psi_j \in \mathcal{T}_p \vdash_{S,D,C}^{k-1}(\underline{\varnothing})\), \(k - 1 \geq 1\), and induction hypothesis yields some \(k_j'\) such that \(\mathcal{P} \vdash_{S,D,C}^{k_j'} \psi_j\); or else \(\psi_j\) is not defined, in which case \(\mathcal{P} \vdash_{S,D,C}^{k_j'} \psi_j\) for \(k_j' = 0\), by Lemma 3.1[1]. In these conditions, \(\mathcal{P} \vdash_{S,D,C}^{k_j'} \varphi\) holds for \(k' = k + \sum_{j=1}^m k_j'\), with a proof tree using a SQDA root inference based on \(R_i\) instantiated by \(\theta\).

As an easy consequence of the previous theorem we get:

**Corollary 3.1** (SQCHL(S,D,C) is sound and complete)

For any SQCLP(S,D,C)-program \(\mathcal{P}\) and any observable qc-atom \(\varphi\), the following three statements are equivalent:

\[
(a) \ \mathcal{P} \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi \quad (b) \ \mathcal{P} \models_{S,D,C} \varphi \quad (c) \ \mathcal{M}_p \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi
\]

Moreover, we also have:

1. **Soundness**: \(\mathcal{P} \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi \implies \mathcal{P} \models_{S,D,C} \varphi\).
2. **Completeness**: \(\mathcal{P} \models_{S,D,C} \varphi \implies \mathcal{P} \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi\).
Proof

Soundness and completeness are just a trivial consequence of (a) \( \iff (b) \). To finish the proof it suffices to prove the two equivalences (a) \( \iff (c) \) and (b) \( \iff (c) \). This is done as follows:

\[ [(a) \iff (c)] \] In the case that \( \varphi \) is a defined qc-atom, \( M_P \models_{S,D,C} \varphi \) reduces to \( \varphi \in M_P \) which is equivalent to \( P \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi \) by Theorem 3.2. Otherwise, \( P \vdash_{S,D,C} \varphi \iff M_P \models_{S,D,C} \varphi \) holds because of Lemma 3.1.

\[ [(b) \Rightarrow (c)] \] Assume \( P \models_{S,D,C} \varphi \) and recall Definition 3.3. Then \( I \models_{S,D,C} \varphi \) for every qc-interpretation \( I \) such that \( I \models_{S,D,C} P \). In particular, \( M_P \models_{S,D,C} \varphi \), since \( M_P \models_{S,D,C} P \) was proved in Theorem 3.1.

\[ [(c) \Rightarrow (b)] \] Assume \( M_P \models_{S,D,C} \varphi \). In order to obtain \( P \models_{S,D,C} \varphi \) we must prove:

\( (*) \) \( I \models_{S,D,C} \varphi \) holds for any qc-interpretation \( I \) such that \( I \models_{S,D,C} P \).

In the case that \( \varphi \) is a defined qc-atom, \( M_P \models_{S,D,C} \varphi \) reduces to \( \varphi \in M_P \), which implies (\( * \)) because \( M_P \) is the least model of \( P \), as proved in Theorem 3.1. In the case that \( \varphi \) is not defined but C-based, (\( * \)) follows form the fact that \( I \models_{S,D,C} \varphi \) holds for any arbitrary qc-interpretation \( I \), as proved in Lemma 3.1.

We close this subsection with a brief discussion on the relationship between the entailment relation \( \models_{S,D,C} \) used in this report and a different one that was proposed in (Caballero et al. 2008) and noted \( \models_{S,D} \). In contrast to \( \models_{S,D} \), the entailment \( \models_{S,D,C} \) depended on a given similarity relation \( S \). In the context of the SQCLP scheme, one could think of an entailment \( \models_{S,D,C} \) depending on \( S \) and defined in the following way: given two qc-atoms \( \varphi \) and \( \varphi' \), we could say that \( \varphi (S,D,C) \)-entails \( \varphi' \) (in symbols, \( \varphi \models_{S,D,C} \varphi' \)) if \( \varphi : A \sharp \Phi \iff \Pi \) and \( \varphi' : A' \sharp \Phi' \iff \Pi' \) such that there is some substitution \( \theta \) satisfying \( S(A', A\theta) = \lambda \neq b \), \( d' \leq \lambda \), \( d' \leq d \) and \( \Pi' \models C \Pi \theta \).

However, \( \models_{S,D,C} \) would not work properly in the case that \( S \) is not transitive, as shown by the following simple example: think of a SQCLP(S,U,R)-program \( P \) including just a clause

\[ R_1 : p_1 \overset{1.0}{\rightarrow} \]

and assume that \( S(p_1, p_2) = 0.9, S(p_2, p_3) = 0.9 \) and \( S(p_1, p_3) = 0.4 \) where \( p_1, p_2, p_3 \in DP \). Then, \( P \models_{S,U,R} p_2 \overset{0.9}{\rightarrow} 0 \) and \( p_2 \overset{0.9}{\rightarrow} 0 \Rightarrow S(U,R) p_3 \overset{0.9}{\rightarrow} 0 \) holds because of \( S(p_2, p_3) = 0.9 \), but \( P \models_{S,U,R} p_3 \overset{0.9}{\rightarrow} 0 \) does not hold. Therefore, the Entailment Property for Programs (Lemma 3.1) would fail if the entailment \( \models_{S,D,C} \) were adopted in place of \( \models_{S,D} \).

Since the Entailment Property for Programs is a very natural condition that must be preserved, we conclude that the entailment relation \( \models_{D,C} \) used in this report is the right choice in a framework where the underlaying proximity relation is not guaranteed to be a similarity.

### 3.2 Goals and their Solutions

In this brief subsection we present the syntax and declarative semantics of goals in the SQCLP scheme, and we define natural soundness and completeness properties
which are expected to be fulfilled by goal solving devices. These notions are intended as a useful tool to reason about the correctness of SQCLP implementations to be developed in the future.

In order to build goals for SQCLP(\(S, D, C\))-programs, we assume a countably infinite set \(\mathcal{Var}\) of so-called qualification variables \(W\), disjoint from \(\mathcal{Var}\) and \(C\)'s signature \(\Sigma\). Goals for a given program \(P\) have the form

\[
G : A_{1}W_{1}, \ldots, A_{m}W_{m} \mid W_{1} \not\ni \beta_{1}, \ldots, W_{m} \not\ni \beta_{m}
\]

abbreviated as \((A_{i}W_{i}, W_{i} \not\ni \beta_{i})_{i=1}^{m}\), where \(A_{i}W_{i}\) \((1 \leq i \leq m)\) are atoms annotated with different qualification variables \(W_{i}\); and \(W_{i} \not\ni \beta_{i}\) are so-called threshold conditions with \(\beta_{i} \in (D \setminus \{b\}) \cup \{?\}\) \((1 \leq i \leq m)\). The notations \(?\) and \(\not\ni\) have been already explained in Section 3.1.

In the sequel, the notation \(\text{war}(o)\) will denote the set of all qualification variables occurring in the syntactic object \(o\). In particular, for a goal \(G\) as displayed above, \(\text{war}(G)\) denotes the set \(\{W_{i} \mid 1 \leq i \leq m\}\). In the case \(m = 1\) the goal is called atomic. The declarative semantics of goals is provided by their solutions, that are defined as follows:

**Definition 3.5 (Goal Solutions)**

Assume a given SQCLP(\(S, D, C\))-program \(P\) and a goal \(G\) for the program \(P\) with the syntax displayed above. Then:

1. A solution for \(G\) is any triple \(\langle \sigma, \mu, \Pi \rangle\) such that \(\sigma\) is a \(C\)-substitution, \(\mu : \text{war}(G) \rightarrow D \setminus \{b\}\), \(\Pi\) is a satisfiable and finite set of atomic \(C\)-constraints and the following two conditions hold for all \(i = 1 \ldots m\):
   
   \[
   \begin{align*}
   & (a) \quad W_{i}\mu = d_{i} \not\ni \beta_{i} \text{ and} \\
   & (b) \quad P \vdash_{S, D, C} A_{i}\sigma\sharp W_{i}\mu \leftarrow \Pi.
   \end{align*}
   \]

   The set of all solutions for \(G\) is noted \(\text{Sol}_{P}(G)\). Note that solutions are open in the sense that the substitution \(\sigma\) is not required to be ground.

2. A solution \(\langle \eta, \rho, \Pi \rangle\) for \(G\) is called ground iff \(\Pi = \emptyset\) and \(\eta \in \text{Val}_{C}\) is a variable valuation such that \(A_{i}\eta\) is a ground atom for all \(i = 1 \ldots m\). The set of all ground solutions for \(G\) is noted \(\text{GSol}_{P}(G)\). Obviously, \(\text{GSol}_{P}(G) \subseteq \text{Sol}_{P}(G)\).

3. A ground solution \(\langle \eta, \rho, \emptyset \rangle \in \text{GSol}_{P}(G)\) is subsumed by \(\langle \sigma, \mu, \Pi \rangle\) iff there is some \(\nu \in \text{Sol}_{C}(\Pi)\) s.t. \(\eta =_{\text{var}(G)} \sigma\nu\) and \(W_{i}\rho \sqsubseteq W_{i}\mu\) for \(i = 1 \ldots m\).

Implicitly, the first item in the previous definition requires \(A_{i}\sigma\sharp W_{i}\mu \leftarrow \Pi\) to be observable qc-atoms in the sense of Definition 3.1 which is trivially true because \(W_{i}\mu = d_{i} \in D \setminus \{b\}\) and \(\Pi\) is satisfiable. In fact, Definition 3.1 was designed with the aim of using observable qc-atoms as observations of valid open solutions for atomic goals. The next example illustrates the definition:

**Example 3.6 (Solutions for an atomic goals)**

1. \(G : \text{goodWork}(X)\| W \ni (0.55, 30)\) is a goal for the program fragment \(P\) shown in Figure 1 and the arguments given near the beginning of Subsection 3.1 can be formalized to prove that \(\langle\{X \mapsto \text{king, liar}\},\{W \mapsto (0.6, 5)\}, \emptyset\rangle \in \text{Sol}_{P}(G)\).
2. As an additional example involving constraints, recall the SQCLP($S, U, R$)-program $P$ presented in Example 3.1. An atomic goal $G$ for this program is

\[ p'(c'(Y), Z) \parallel W \geq 0.75. \]

Consider $\sigma = \{ Z \mapsto c(X) \}$, $\mu = \{ W \mapsto 0.8 \}$ and $\Pi = \{ op>(X, 1.0), op_{+}(A, A, X), op_{\times}(2.0, A, Y) \}$. Note that $0.8 \geq 0.75$ and $P \vdash_{S, U, R} p'(c'(Y), Z) \sigma W \mu \Leftarrow \Pi$, as we have seen in Example 3.5. Therefore, the requirements of Definition 3.5 are fulfilled, and $\langle \sigma, \mu, \Pi \rangle \in \text{Sol}_P(G)$. □

In practice, users of SQCLP languages will rely on some available goal solving system for computing goal solutions. The following definition specifies two important properties of goal solving systems:

**Definition 3.6 (Correct Goal Solving Systems)**

At a high abstraction level, a goal solving system for SQCLP($S, D, C$) can be thought as a device that takes a program $P$ and a goal $G$ as input and yields various triples $\langle \sigma, \mu, \Pi \rangle$, called computed answers, as outputs. Such a goal solving system is called:

1. **Sound** iff every computed answer is a solution $\langle \sigma, \mu, \Pi \rangle \in \text{Sol}_P(G)$.
2. **Weakly complete** iff every ground solution $\langle \eta, \rho, \emptyset \rangle \in \text{GSol}_P(G)$ is subsumed by some computed answer.
3. **Correct** iff it is both sound and weakly complete. □

Every goal solving system for a SQCLP instance should be sound and ideally also weakly complete. Implementing such systems is one of the major lines of future research mentioned in the Conclusions of this report.

**4 Conclusions**

We have extended the classical CLP scheme to a new scheme SQCLP whose instances SQCLP($S, D, C$) are parameterized by a proximity relation $S$, a qualification domain $D$ and a constraint domain $C$. In addition to the known features of CLP programming, the new scheme offers extra facilities for dealing with expert knowledge representation and flexible query answering. Inspired by the observable CLP semantics in (Gabbrielli and Levi 1991; Gabbrielli et al. 1995), we have presented a declarative semantics for SQCLP that provides fixpoint and proof-theoretical characterizations of least program models as well as an implementation-independent notion of goal solutions.

SQCLP is a quite general scheme. Different partial instantiations of its three parameters lead to more particular schemes, most of which can be placed in close correspondence to previous proposals. The items below present seven particularizations, along with some comments which make use of the notions threshold-free, attenuation-free and constraint-free which have been explained at the beginning of Section 3.1.

1. By definition, QCLP has instances QCLP($D, C$) =det SQCLP($S_{id}, D, C$), where $S_{id}$ is the identity proximity relation. The quantitative CLP scheme proposed in (Riezler 1998) can be understood as a further particularization of QCLP that works with threshold-free QCLP($U, C$) programs, where $U$ is the qualification domain of uncertainty values (see Subsection 2.2.2).
2. By definition, SQLP has instances $\text{SQLP}(S, D) =_{\text{def}} \text{SQCLP}(S, D, R)$, where $R$ is the real constraint domain (see Subsection 2.1.2). The scheme with the same name originally proposed in (Caballero et al. 2008) can be understood as a restricted form of the present formulation; it worked with threshold-free and constraint-free $\text{SQLP}(S, D)$ programs and it restricted the choice of the $S$ parameter to transitive proximity (i.e. similarity) relations.

3. By definition, SCLP has instances $\text{SCLP}(S, C) =_{\text{def}} \text{SQCLP}(S, B, C)$, where $B$ is the qualification domain of classical boolean values (see Subsection 2.2.1). Due to the fixed parameter choice $D = B$, both attenuation values and threshold values become useless, and each choice of $S$ must necessarily represent a crisp reflexive and symmetric relation. Therefore, this new scheme is not so interesting from the viewpoint of uncertain and qualified reasoning.

4. By definition, QLP has instances $\text{QLP}(D) =_{\text{def}} \text{SQCLP}(S_{\text{id}}, D, R)$. The scheme with the same name originally proposed in (Rodríguez-Artalejo and Romero-Díaz 2008b) can be understood as a restricted form of the present formulation; it worked with threshold-free and constraint-free $\text{QLP}(D)$ programs.

5. By definition, SLP has instances $\text{SLP}(S) =_{\text{def}} \text{SQCLP}(S_{\text{id}}, U, R)$. The pure fragment of Bousi’Prolog (Julián-Irazo and Rubio-Manzano 2009a) can be understood as a restricted form of SLP in the present formulation; it works with threshold-free, attenuation-free and constraint-free $\text{SLP}(S)$ programs. Moreover, restricting the choice of $S$ to similarity relations leads to SLP in the sense of (Sessa 2002) and related papers.

6. The CLP scheme can be defined by instances $\text{CLP}(C) =_{\text{def}} \text{SQCLP}(S_{\text{id}}, B, C)$. Both attenuation values and threshold values are useless in CLP programs, due to the fixed parameter choice $D = B$.

7. Finally, the pure LP paradigm can be defined as $\text{LP} =_{\text{def}} \text{SQCLP}(S_{\text{id}}, B, H)$, where $H$ is the Herbrand constraint domain. Again, attenuation values and threshold values are useless in LP due to the fixed parameter choice $D = B$.

In all the previous items, the schemes obtained by partial instantiation inherit the declarative semantics from SQCLP, using sets of observables of the form $A^d \Leftarrow \Pi$ as interpretations. A similar semantic approach were used in our previous papers (Rodríguez-Artalejo and Romero-Díaz 2008b) (Caballero et al. 2008), except that $\Pi$ and equations were absent due to the lack of CLP features. The other related works discussed in the Introduction view program interpretations as mappings $I$ from the ground Herbrand base into some set of lattice elements (the real interval $[0, 1]$ in many cases), as already discussed in the explanations following Definition 3.2.

As seen in Subsection 3.2, SQCLP’s semantics enables a declarative characterization of valid goal solutions. This fact is relevant for modeling the expected behavior of goal solving devices and reasoning about their correctness. Moreover, the relations $\approx_{\lambda, \Pi}$ introduced for the first time in the present paper (see Definition 2.10) allow to specify the semantic role of $S$ in a constraint-based framework, with less technical overhead than in previous related approaches.

\[3\] Not to be confused with SCLP in the sense of (Bistarelli et al. 2001), discussed below.
A related work not mentioned in items 1–7 above is the semiring-based CLP of (Bistarelli et al. 2001), a scheme with instances SCLP(S) parameterized by a semiring \( S = (A, +, \times, 0, 1) \) whose elements are used to represent consistency levels in soft constraint solving. The semirings used in this approach can be equipped with a lattice structure whose \( \text{lub} \) operation is always +, but whose \( \text{glb} \) operation may be different from \( \times \). On the other hand, our qualification domains are defined as lattices with an additional attenuation operation \( \circ \). It turns out that the kind of semirings used in SCLP(S) correspond to qualification domains only in some cases. Moreover, \( \times \) is used in SCLP(S) to interpret logical conjunction in clause bodies and goals, while the \( \text{glb} \) operation is used in SQCLP(\( S, D, C \)) for the same purpose. For this reason, even if \( D \) is “equivalent” to \( S \), SQCLP(\( S, D, C \)) cannot be naturally used to express SCLP(S) in the case that \( \times \) is not the \( \text{glb} \). Assuming that \( D \) is “equivalent” to \( S \) and that \( \times \) behaves as the \( \text{glb} \) in \( S \), program clauses in SCLP(S) can be viewed as a particular case of program clauses in SQCLP(\( S, D, C \)) which use an attenuation factor different from \( t \) only for facts. Other relevant differences between SQCLP(\( S, D, C \)) and SCLP(S) can be explained by comparing the parameters. As said before \( D \) may be “equivalent” to \( S \) in some cases, but \( S \) is absent and \( C \) is not made explicit in SCLP(S). Seemingly, the intended use of SCLP(S) is related to finite domain constraints and no parametrically given constraint domain is provided.

In the future we plan to implement some SQCLP instances by extending the semantically correct program transformation techniques from (Caballero et al. 2008), and to investigate applications which can profit from flexible query answering. Other interesting lines of future work include: a) extension of the qualified SLD resolution presented in (Rodríguez-Artalejo and Romero-Díaz 2008b) to a SQCLP goal solving procedure able to work with constraints and a proximity relation; and b) extension of the QCFLP scheme in (Caballero et al. 2009) to work with a proximity relation and higher-order functions.

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