



Logic Programming: Terms, unification and proof search

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- ▶ Compound terms
- ▶ Equality and unification
- ▶ How Prolog searches for answers

So far we have seen ...

- ▶ Atoms: `homer marge 'Mr. Burns'`
- ▶ Variables: `X Y Z MR_BURNS`

We also have ...

- ▶ Numbers: `1 2 3 42 -0.12435`
- ▶ **Complex terms**
- ▶ Additional **constants** and **infix operators**

- ▶ A complex term is of the form

$$f(t_1, \dots, t_n)$$

- ▶ where f is an atom and t_1, \dots, t_n are terms

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Examples:

`f(1,2)` `node(leaf,leaf)` `cons(42,nil)`
`household(homer, marge, bart, lisa, maggie)`

Lists are built-in (and very useful) data structures

Syntax:

`[1,2,3,4]`

`[a, [1,2,3], 42, 'forty-two']`

`[a,b,c | Xs]`

Lots more on this next week ...

Prolog has built-in **constants** and **infix operators**.

Examples:

- ▶ Equality: $t = u$ (or $=(t,u)$)
- ▶ Pairing: (t,u) (or $,(t,u)$)
- ▶ Empty list: $[]$
- ▶ *cons* – list from first element and rest: $[X|Y]$ (or $.(X,Y)$)

You can also define your own infix operators!

The equation $t = u$ is a basic goal
with a special meaning

What happens if we ask:

?- $X = c$.

?- $f(X, g(Y, Z)) = f(c, g(X, Y))$.

?- $f(X, g(Y, f(X))) = f(c, g(X, Y))$.

And how does it do that?

?- $X = c$.

$X=c$

yes

?- $f(X, g(Y, Z)) = f(c, g(X, Y))$.

$X=c$

$Y=c$

$Z=c$

yes

?- $f(X, g(Y, f(X))) = f(c, g(X, Y))$.

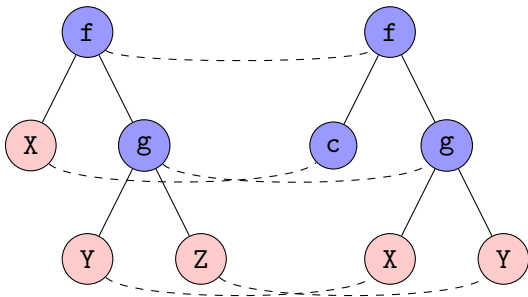
no

- ▶ A **substitution** is a mapping from variables to terms
 - ▶ $X_1 = t_1, \dots, X_n = t_n$
- ▶ Given two terms t and u
 - ▶ with free variables X_1, \dots, X_n ,
- ▶ a unifier is a substitution that makes t and u identical when applied to t and u .

Example 1

$$f(X, g(Y, Z)) = f(c, g(X, Y))$$

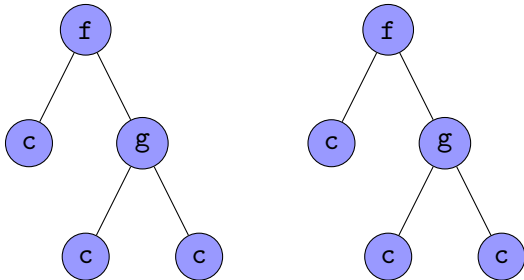
X=c
Y=X
Z=Y



Example 1: apply the substitution

$$f(X, g(Y, Z)) = f(c, g(X, Y))$$

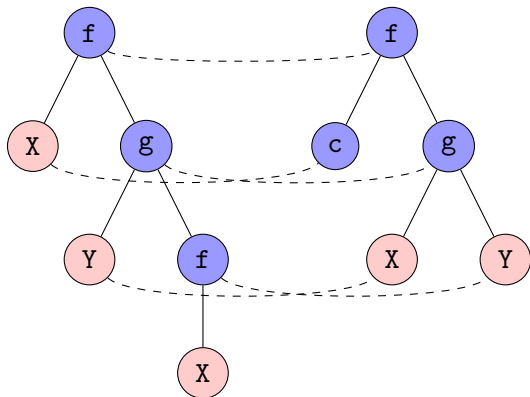
X=c
Y=c
Z=c



Example II

$$f(X, g(Y, f(X))) = f(c, g(X, Y))$$

$X=c$
 $Y=X$



Example II: apply partial substitution

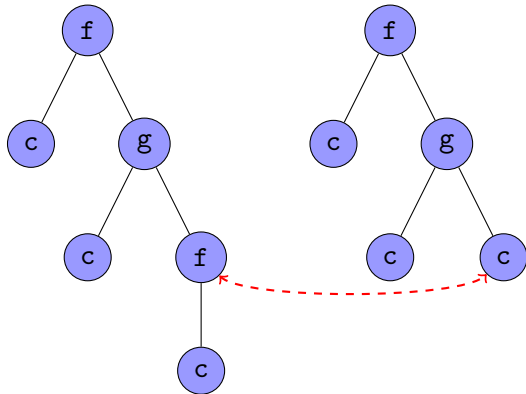
$$f(X, g(Y, f(X))) = f(c, g(X, Y))$$

$X=c$

$Y=c$

$Y=f(X)$

$f(X)=c???$



- ▶ Consider a general unification problem

$$t_1 = u_1, t_2 = u_2, \dots, t_n = u_n$$

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- ▶ Reduce the problem by decomposing each equation into one or more “smaller” equations
- ▶ Succeed if we reduce to a “solved form”, otherwise fail.

- ▶ Two function applications unify if the head symbols are equal, and the corresponding arguments unify:

$$\begin{array}{l} f(t_1, \dots, t_n) = f(u_1, \dots, u_n), \quad P \Rightarrow \\ t_1 = u_1, \dots, t_n = u_n, \quad P \end{array}$$

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- ▶ Must have same name, and equal number of arguments:

$$\begin{array}{l} f(\dots) = c, \quad P \Rightarrow \text{fail} \\ f(\dots) = g(\dots), \quad P \Rightarrow \text{fail} \end{array}$$

- ▶ Otherwise, a variable X unifies with a term t , provided X does not occur in t :
- ▶ proceed by substituting t for X in P :

$$X = t, P \Rightarrow P[t/X]$$

occurs check: provided X does not occur in t

- ▶ What happens if we try to unify X with something that *contains* X ?

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- ▶ Logically this should **fail**
there is no (finite) unifier!
- ▶ Most Prolog implementations skip this check for efficiency reasons
 - ▶ can use `unify_with_occurs_check/2`

The query is run by trying to find a solution to the goal using the clauses:

- ▶ Unification is used to match goals and clauses
- ▶ There may be zero, one, or many solutions
- ▶ Execution may backtrack

The formal model is called **SLD** resolution, which you'll see in the theory lectures

Basic Idea:

To solve atomic goal A :

- ▶ **If** B is a fact in the program, and $\theta(A) = \theta(B)$, then return answer θ ;
- ▶ **else**,
 - if** $B :- G_1, \dots, G_n$ is a clause in the program,
and θ unifies A with B ,
then solve $\theta(G_1), \dots, \theta(G_n)$
- ▶ **else** give up on this goal:
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- ▶ Clauses are tried in **declaration order**
- ▶ Compound goals are tried in **left-right order**

Prolog tries clauses in order of appearance in the program.
We look at a couple of **search trees** for query execution.
Assume: `foo(a).` `foo(b).` `foo(c).`
then:

?- `foo(X).`

`foo(X)`

`X=a`

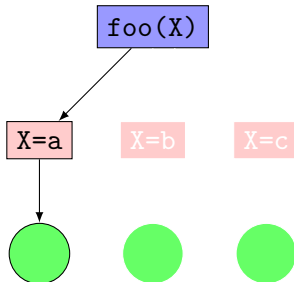
`X=b`

`X=c`



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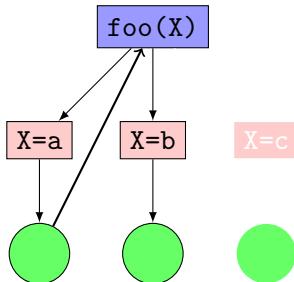


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`X=a` ;

`X=b`



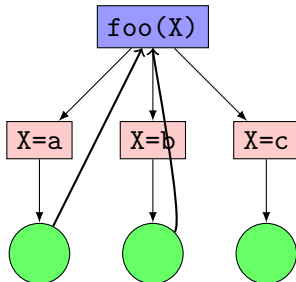
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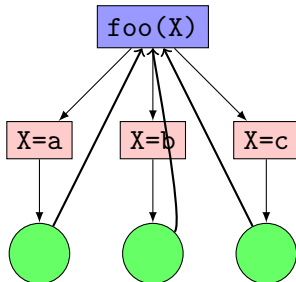
`X=b` ;

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We look at a couple of **search trees** for query execution.
Assume: `foo(a).` `foo(b).` `foo(c).`
then:

```
?- foo(X).  
X=a ;  
X=b ;  
X=c ;  
no
```



Prolog *backtracks* to the last choice point if a sub-goal fails.
Assume: `bar(b).` `bar(c).` `baz(c).` then:

?- `bar(X),baz(X).`

`bar(X),baz(X)`

`X=b`

`X=c`

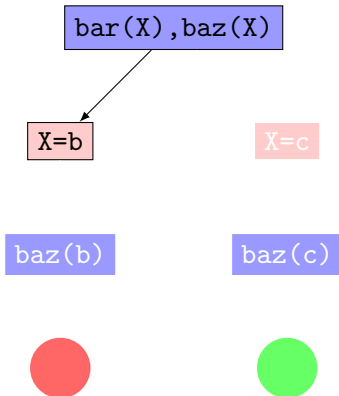
`baz(b)`

`baz(c)`



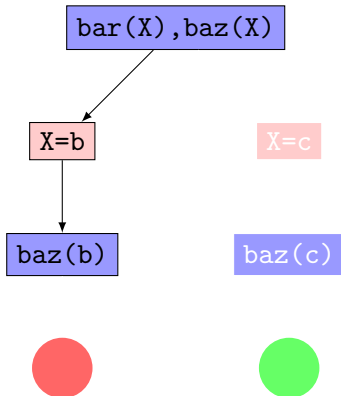
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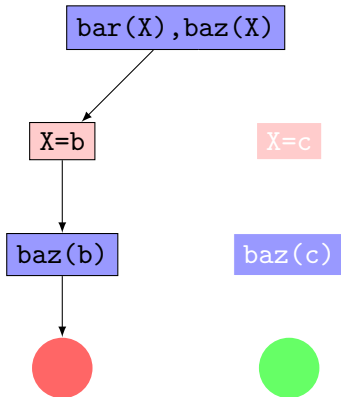
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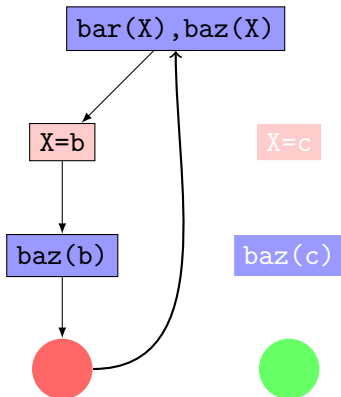
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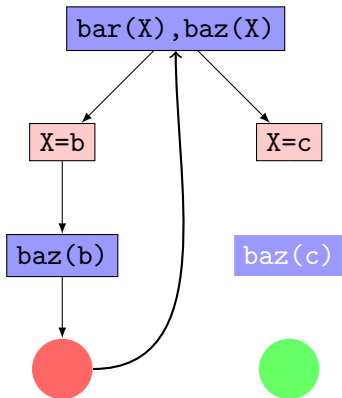
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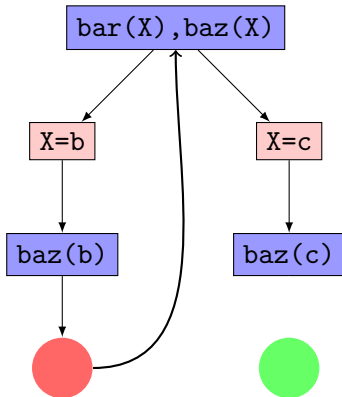
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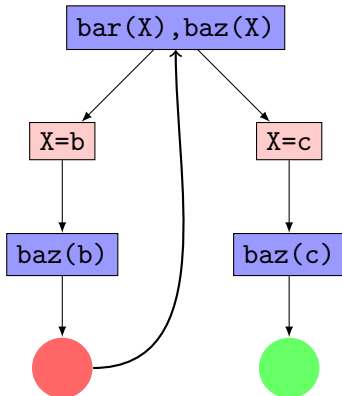
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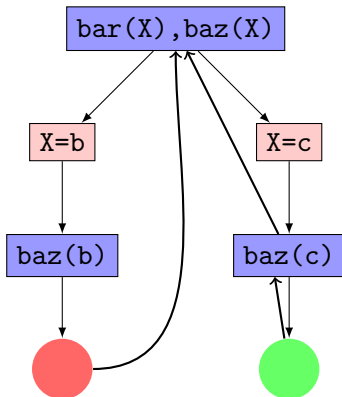
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`X = c`



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- ▶ Common Prolog programming idiom:

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find(X) :- generate(X), test(X).
```

where:

- ▶ generate(X) produces candidates on backtracking
- ▶ test(X) succeeds or fails on candidates

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where:
 - ▶ `generate(X)` produces candidates on backtracking
 - ▶ `test(X)` succeeds or fails on candidates
- ▶ Use this to constrain (maybe infinite) search spaces;
- ▶ Can use different generators to get different search strategies besides depth-first.

- ▶ Recursion
- ▶ Lists
- ▶ Trees, data structures

For further reading, see LPN ch. 2.