Advanced Programming 2017 Logic Programming, Continued

Andrzej Filinski andrzej@di.ku.dk

Department of Computer Science University of Copenhagen

September 28, 2017

Outline

- ► Two key ingredients of logic programming in Prolog:
 - 1. Unification-based constraint management.
 - 2. Backtracking tree search.
- ▶ Both are general structuring techniques, useful also when programming in other languages.
- Also, will briefly review key principles for writing correct logic programs.
 - "Algorithm = Logic + Control" [Kowalski]
 - ▶ Need to consider both.

Unification

- ▶ Formal notion of two-sided pattern matching.
- Absolutely central in definition of Prolog.
- ▶ Also used elsewhere in programming language design and implementation: notably type inference in ML, Haskell.
- ▶ More generally: instance of *constraint-based programming*.
 - ▶ Unification: constraints are about equality of subterms only.
 - Other constraint domains are also possible, e.g., linear inequalities.

Terms

► **Recall**: A Prolog term is either a variable or a compound term (functor and arguments):

$$t ::= X \mid f(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \quad [n \ge 0]$$

Note: for simplicity, treating atoms and numbers as nullary constructors, $a \sim a()$.

- ▶ Variables cannot be functors: X(a, b) is ill-formed.
 - ▶ Possible in higher-order unification.
- ▶ Binary functors may be written infix: X + Y instead of +(X, Y), etc.
 - Purely a parsing issue.
 - Prolog has elaborate system for declaring prefix, infix, and postfix operators with arbitrary precedence and associativity.
- ▶ Additional syntactic sugar for lists built from "." (cons) and "[]".

Substitutions

A substitution is a finite mapping of variables to terms:

$$\sigma = \{X_1 \mapsto t_1, \dots, X_n \mapsto t_n\}$$

All the X_i must be different; order doesn't matter.

- ▶ *Domain* of a substitution: dom $\sigma = \{X_1, ..., X_n\}$.
- ▶ *Applying* a substitution: $t[\sigma]$, recursively defined by:

$$X[\sigma] = \begin{cases} t_i & \text{if } X = X_i \text{ for some } i \\ X & \text{if } X \notin \text{dom } \sigma \end{cases}$$
 $f(t_1, \dots, t_n)[\sigma] = f(t_1[\sigma], \dots, t_n[\sigma])$

Composing substitutions

Assume given substitutions,

$$\sigma = \{X_1 \mapsto t_1, \dots, X_n \mapsto t_n\}
\sigma' = \{X'_1 \mapsto t'_1, \dots, X'_m \mapsto t'_m\}$$

with dom $\sigma \cap \text{dom } \sigma' = \emptyset$, i.e., all variables distinct.

► Can define their *composition*:

$$\sigma \cdot \sigma' = \{X_1 \mapsto t_1[\sigma'], \dots, X_n \mapsto t_n[\sigma'], X_1' \mapsto t_1', \dots, X_m' \mapsto t_m'\}$$

- ▶ **Note:** $\sigma \cdot \sigma' \neq \sigma' \cdot \sigma$ (except in special cases).
- ▶ **Fact:** for any t, $(t[\sigma])[\sigma'] = t[\sigma \cdot \sigma']$

Unifiers

- ▶ A substitution σ is a *unifier* of t_1 and t_2 if $t_1[\sigma] = t_2[\sigma]$.
- ▶ A substitution σ is a most general unifier (mgu) of t_1 and t_2 if:
 - 1. $t_1[\sigma] = t_2[\sigma]$ (i.e., σ is a unifier of t_1 and t_2), and
 - 2. for any σ' s.t. $t_1[\sigma'] = t_2[\sigma']$, there exists a σ'' such that $\sigma' = \sigma \cdot \sigma''$.
 - $ightharpoonup \sigma''$ may further instantiate terms in σ , and/or add more bindings.
- ▶ **Ex.** Let $t_1 = f(X, a, U)$, $t_2 = f(Z, X, V)$. Then
 - $\sigma_1 = \{X \mapsto a, Z \mapsto a, U \mapsto V\} \text{ is an mgu of } t_1, t_2.$ $f(X, a, U)[\sigma_1] = f(a, a, V) = f(Z, X, V)[\sigma_1].$
 - ▶ Symmetrically, $\sigma'_1 = \{X \mapsto a, Z \mapsto a, V \mapsto U\}$ is also an mgu.
 - ▶ Can take $\sigma_1'' = [V \mapsto U]$; then $\sigma_1' = \sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_1''$
 - $\sigma_2 = \{X \mapsto a, Z \mapsto a, U \mapsto b, V \mapsto b\}$ is a non-mgu unifier of t_1, t_2 .
 - Can take $\sigma_2'' = [V \mapsto b]$; then $\sigma_2 = \sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_2''$.
 - $\sigma_3 = \{X \mapsto a, Z \mapsto X, U \mapsto V\}$ is not a unifier of t_1, t_2 : $f(X, a, U)[\sigma_3] = f(a, a, V) \neq f(X, a, V) = f(Z, X, V)[\sigma_3].$

Similarly, $\{X \mapsto f(X)\}$ is *not* a unifier of X and f(X).

Computing mgus: pseudocode

```
mqu(t, t') = - \text{returns a } \sigma \text{ or } \mathbf{fail}
    if<sub>\exists X</sub> t = X \land t' = X then \{\}
    else if_{\exists X} t = X \land \neg(X \text{ occurs in } t') \text{ then } \{X \mapsto t'\}
    else if_{\exists X'} t' = X' \land \neg(X' \text{ occurs in } t) \text{ then } \{X' \mapsto t\}
    else if<sub>\exists f \ n \ \vec{t} \ \vec{t}'</sub> t = f(t_1, ..., t_n) \land t' = f(t'_1, ..., t'_n) then
        mgu^*(\langle t_1,...,t_n\rangle,\langle t'_1,...,t'_n\rangle)
    else fail
mgu^*(\langle t_1,...,t_n\rangle,\langle t_1',...,t_n'\rangle) = -\text{returns a } \sigma \text{ or } \mathbf{fail}
    if n = 0 then \{\}
    else if_{\exists \sigma_1} mgu(t_1, t'_1) = \sigma_1 then
        \mathbf{if}_{\exists \sigma_r} mgu^*(\langle t_2[\sigma_1], ..., t_n[\sigma_1] \rangle, \langle t_2'[\sigma_1], ..., t_n'[\sigma_1] \rangle) = \sigma_r \mathbf{then}
           \sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_r
        else fail
    else fail
```

Examples

Use the algorithm to compute:

- ightharpoonup mgu(f(X, a, U), f(Z, X, V))

Unification: Example 1

```
mgu(f(X, a, U)), f(Z, X, V)) =
mgu^*(\langle X, a, U \rangle, \langle Z, X, V \rangle) =
    [\sigma_1 = \{X \mapsto Z\}]
    [\sigma_r = mgu^*(\langle a, U \rangle, \langle Z, V \rangle)]
        [\sigma'_1 = \{Z \mapsto a\}]
       [\sigma'_r = mgu^*(\langle U \rangle, \langle V \rangle)]
           [\sigma_1'' = \{U \mapsto V\}]
           [\sigma_r'' = mqu^*(\langle \rangle, \langle \rangle) = \{\}]
        =\sigma_1''\cdot\sigma_r''=\{U\mapsto V\}\cdot\{\}=\{U\mapsto V\}\}
     = \sigma'_1 \cdot \sigma'_r = \{Z \mapsto a\} \cdot \{U \mapsto V\} = \{Z \mapsto a, U \mapsto V\}
 = \sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_r = \{X \mapsto Z\} \cdot \{Z \mapsto a, U \mapsto V\} = \{X \mapsto a, Z \mapsto a, U \mapsto V\}
```

Unification: Example 2

```
mgu(f(X, Y, Y), f(g(U), U, X)) =
mqu^*(\langle X, Y, Y \rangle, \langle q(U), U, X \rangle) =
   [\sigma_1 = mqu(X, q(U)) = \{X \mapsto q(U)\}]
   [\sigma_r = mqu^*(\langle Y, Y \rangle, \langle U, q(U) \rangle)]
      [\sigma'_1 = mgu(Y, U) = \{Y \mapsto U\}]
      [\sigma'_r = mqu^*(\langle U \rangle, \langle q(U) \rangle)]
         [\sigma_1'' = mqu(U, q(U)) = fail]
       = fail
    = fail
 = fail
```

Practical unification

- Works with unification heap: incrementally maintained global substitution state.
 - Each variable represented as mutable cell, initialized to "unbound".
 - When creating a substitution for variable, update binding.
 - Whenever encountering a variable, see if it already has a binding
 - ▶ May need to *chase* through chain of bindings: $X \mapsto Y$, $Y \mapsto Z$, ...
 - Can do path compression like in union-find algorithm.
- Sometimes omits occurs check:
 - ► For efficiency: original algorithm is worst-case quadratic-time.
 - ▶ And, surprisingly, most of that time is spent on the check.
 - With heap, allows creation of "circular terms", which may or may not be handled intelligently by rest of system.
 - Can cause later unification attempts to loop, if done naively.
 - Makes raw Prolog unification unsuited for some purposes (e.g., type inference).

Overview of search trees

- ► Aka *SLD resolution trees* (name comes from a particular variant of resolution-based theorem proving)
- Central in definition of Prolog semantics.
- ▶ More generally: instance of *search-based programming*.

Prolog clauses and goals

► A *goal* is of the form:

$$G ::= ?-t_1, \ldots, t_n.$$
 $[n \ge 0]$

▶ Each *clause* is of the form:

$$C ::= t'_0 :- t'_1, \ldots, t'_m.$$
 $[m \ge 0]$

(Facts " t'_0 : - ." written as just " t'_0 .")

▶ A *program* is a sequence of clauses:

$$P ::= C_1 \dots C_k$$

Fundamental computation step (resolution):

Replace first goal term t_1 with body $t'_1, ..., t'_m$ of a program clause whose head t'_0 matches t_1 (accounting for variables bound by the match).

(There may be more than one clause matching!)

Goal solving strategy

Nondeterministic algorithm (pseudocode):

```
solve(P,(?-t_1,\ldots,t_n)) = \\ \textbf{if } n = 0 \textbf{ then success} \\ \textbf{else} \\ \textbf{pick a } C \textbf{ from } P \\ \textbf{let } \sigma_0 = (\text{subst. replacing all vars in } C \textbf{ with fresh ones}) \\ \textbf{let } (t'_0:-t'_1,\ldots,t'_m) = C[\sigma_0] \\ \textbf{if}_{\exists\sigma} \ mgu(t'_0,t_1) = \sigma \textbf{ then} \\ solve(P,(?-t'_1[\sigma],\ldots,t'_m[\sigma],t_2[\sigma],\ldots,t_n[\sigma])) \\ \textbf{else fail} \\ \end{cases}
```

- On failure, undo a previous choice and pick a different clause.
 - typically, but not necessarily, undo only last-made choice first.
- How can we make this precise?

Prolog search trees

- Nodes: labeled with goals (term sequences)
 - Root node: initial query goal.
- Edges: labeled with substitutions (mgus)
- ▶ There is a σ -labelled edge from G to G' if:
 - 1. $G = (?-t_1, ..., t_n)$ $(n \ge 1)$
 - 2. There is a renamed clause $(t_0':-t_1',...,t_m')$ in program
 - 3. $\sigma = mgu(t'_0, t_1)$
 - 4. $G' = (?-t_1'[\sigma], ..., t_m'[\sigma], t_2[\sigma], ...t_n[\sigma])$
- ▶ A leaf node (i.e., with no outgoing edges) *G* is a
 - *success* if n = 0, i.e., nothing more to solve.
 - failure if n > 0, but t_1 doesn't match any program clauses.
- ▶ Note: tree is finitely branching, but may be infinitely deep. May contain finitely or infinitely many success nodes.

Reporting solutions

- Recall: success node is empty goal.
- ► To report variable bindings from initial goal, must recompute answer substitution from edge labels.
- ▶ Simpler: let last term in initial goal be $report(X_1, ..., X_n)$ where $X_1, ..., X_n$ are the variables whose values we want.
 - ▶ Or: $report('X_1' = X_1, ..., 'X_n' = X_n)$, to show original variable names as well
- Once all previous goals have been solved, report's arguments will have been instantiated.
- ► A success node is then a goal with only a *report*(...) term.

Examples

▶ Let the program be given by the following clauses:

$$app([], L, L)$$
. % (1) $app([H|T], L, [H|R]) := app(T, L, R)$. % (2)

- Construct the search trees for the goals:
 - 1. ?-app([a,b],[c,d],X),report(X).
 - 2. ?-app(X, Y, [a, b]), report(X, Y).

Search trees: Example 1

$$egin{aligned} ?-app([a,b],[c,d],X), report(X). \ & \stackrel{(2_1)}{ o} \{H_1\mapsto a,T_1\mapsto [b],L_1\mapsto [c,d],X\mapsto [a|R_1]\} \ ?-app([b],[c,d],R_1), report([a|R_1]). \ & \stackrel{(2_2)}{ o} \{H_2\mapsto b,T_2\mapsto [],L_2\mapsto [c,d],R_1\mapsto [b|R_2]\} \ ?-app([],[c,d],R_2), report([a|[b|R_2]]). \ & \stackrel{(1_3)}{ o} \{L_3\mapsto [c,d],R_2\mapsto [c,d]\} \ ?-report([a|[b|[c,d]]]). \ \% \ success,X=[a,b,c,d] \end{aligned}$$

Notation: $\overset{(c_i)}{\rightarrow}$ refers to clause number c, with all its variables renamed by appending i.

Search trees: Example 2

```
?- app(X, Y, [a, b]), report(X, Y).
\stackrel{(1_1)}{\rightarrow} \{X \mapsto [], Y \mapsto [a, b], L_1 \mapsto [a, b]\}
   ?- report([], [a, b]). % success, X = [], Y = [a, b]
\stackrel{(2_2)}{\rightarrow} \{X \mapsto [a|T_2], H_2 \mapsto a, L_2 \mapsto Y, R_2 \mapsto [b]\}
   ?- app(T_2, Y, [b]), report([a|T_2], Y).
   \stackrel{(1_3)}{\rightarrow} \{T_2 \mapsto [], Y \mapsto [b], L_3 \mapsto [b]\}
      ?- report([a|[]], [b]). % success, X = [a], Y = [b]
   \stackrel{(2_4)}{\rightarrow} \{T_2 \mapsto [b|[]], H_4 \mapsto b, L_4 \mapsto Y, R_4 \mapsto []\}
      ?- app(T_4, Y, []), report([a|[b|[]]], Y).
      \stackrel{(1_5)}{\rightarrow} \{T_4 \mapsto [], Y \mapsto [], L_5 \mapsto []\}
         ?- report([a|[b|[]], []). % success, X = [a, b], Y = []
```

Traversing the search tree

- ► Standard Prolog strategy: always try clauses in order, undo last choice first.
- ► Corresponds to searching for solutions *depth-first*.
- ► *Incomplete*: may fail to find valid solution nodes.
 - ► Cf. deep-backtracking parser on a left-recursive grammar...
- **Ex.** May get stuck on useless infinite path:

$$p(X) := p(X).$$
 $p(a).$
 $?= p(R).$

Query loops forever. (Could be "fixed" by different clause order.)

Traversing the search tree (cont'd)

May fail to consider some combination of subgoal solutions:

```
\begin{aligned} & nat(z).\\ & nat(s(N)):-nat(N).\\ &?-nat(X).\\ &\% \text{ finds } X=z;\, X=s(z);\, X=s(s(z));\ldots\\ &?-nat(X),nat(Y),X=Y.\\ &\% \text{ finds just } X=z,Y=z; \text{ then loops.}\\ &?-nat(X),X=Y,nat(Y).\\ &\% \text{ works again, as does having } X=Y \text{ as first subgoal.} \end{aligned}
```

- ► To obtain completeness, need to explore search tree *fairly* (no valid solution ignored forever).
 - ▶ Breadth-first traversal (work *queue* instead of *stack*).
 - ► Iterative deepening (depth-first, but with maximum depth). More space-efficient, but duplicates work.

Search trees in practice

- Committing to depth-first has practical advantages
 - ► More efficient implementation possible.
 - Works well with heap-based unification. (Bindings must be undone on backtracking; keep trail of modifications to undo.)
 - ► Can be compiled to efficient code (Warren Abstract Machine).
- ► Strict depth-first search also makes cuts ("!") meaningful: explicit *dynamic* pruning of parts of search tree.
 - ▶ May steer search away from infinite paths, "incorrect" solutions.
 - But often cut away too much, or too little.
- When breadth-first search needed, iterative deepening can often be expressed explicitly in Prolog program.
- Numerous extensions to control model exist.
 - ► Hereditary Harrop formulas: generalization of Prolog's Horn clauses, allow goals to temporarily extend program.
 - Various notions of constraint logic programming, concurrent execution, ...

Checklist for (pure) Prolog program correctness

For every relevant *mode* (division of arguments into inputs and outputs) of predicate:

- 1. **Soundness**: Are all the facts and rules individually correct?
 - ► Is every ground instance of every clause a true assertion about the problem domain?
 - ▶ **Note:** without cuts, other clauses don't matter here.
- 2. **Coverage**: Do facts and rules cover all situations in which predicate should hold?
 - ► Is there a matching clause for every relevant combination of input arguments?
 - ► Can every correct output be produced by at least one clause?
- 3. **Termination**: Is all recursion properly guarded?
 - ▶ Do all recursive calls have "smaller" main input arguments in callee than in caller?
 - "Smaller than" usually means "proper subterm of".
 - Needed because of Prolog's incomplete search strategy.

What next?

- ▶ If you haven't yet, do the recommended readings.
 - ▶ Even if they don't seem immediately relevant for the assignment.
- Work on Exercises and Assignment 3, starting at labs this afternoon.
 - ▶ May be a TA short, so do dynamic load balancing if necessary.
- Next week (and most of rest of course): Erlang, and concurrent/distributed programming.
 - ► Some Erlang syntax and concepts evidently inspired by Prolog.
 - ▶ In fact, first Erlang implementation was actually done in Prolog.