

# Prolog

## Principles of Programming Languages

CSE 526

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Systems
- 3 Prolog
- 4 Data Structures
- 5 Unification

# Logic and Programs

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  - Rules (e.g.  $\forall X. \textit{man}(X) \Rightarrow \textit{mortal}(X)$ ) which define relationships between predicates.

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  - Memoization: [Tamaki & Sato \(Tokyo\)](#); [Warren et al \(Stony Brook\)](#)

# Prolog Systems

- SWI Prolog ([www.swi-prolog.org](http://www.swi-prolog.org))
  - Can be obtained for free and installed on Windows, Linux, Mac.
  - Has a good development environment (command completion, help, graphical debugger, etc.)
  - On compute\* (Unix) servers: `~cram/bin/swipl`
- XSB Prolog ([xsb.sourceforge.net](http://xsb.sourceforge.net))
  - Can be obtained for free and installed on Windows, Linux, Mac.
  - Supports a powerful extension (memoization) to Prolog
  - Command-line interface (e.g. no graphical debugger)
  - On compute\* (Unix) servers: `~cram/bin/xsb`



# Using Prolog Systems

- Prolog programs are in files with “.pl” extension (“.P” for XSB)
- Prolog systems typically support an interactive mode.
- “[filename].” to compile and load a program in filename.pl (filename.P in XSB).
- “halt.” to exit the system.

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inc(X,Y) :- Y is X+1.
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- X and Y are *variables*.
- `inc` is a predicate.
- The predicate is defined using a single rule.



## Logic Programs

## (contd.)

`inc(X,Y) :- Y is X+1.`

- “:-” separates the *body* of the rule from its head.
- “X” and “Y” are also “parameters” of the predicate.  
In this case, X is the input parameter, and Y is the return parameter (where the return values are stored).
- “Y is X+1” defines Y in terms of X.
- The period (“.”) marks the end of a rule.
- The predicate is *called* by giving values to its parameters. e.g.  
`inc(6, B)` returns with B=7.  
`inc(11, B)` returns with B=12.

# Syntax of Prolog

- *Variables* are identifiers that begin with an upper case letter or underscore.
  - An underscore, by itself, represents an *anonymous variable*.
- *Predicate* names (and later, data structure symbols) are identifiers that begin with a lower case letter.
- All variables are *local* to the clause in which they occur.
- Different occurrences of the same variable in a clause denote the same data.
- Variables need not be declared, and have no type.

## How Prolog Works (An Example)

```
big(bear).
```

```
big(elephant).
```

```
brown(bear).
```

```
black(cat).
```

```
small(cat).
```

```
gray(elephant).
```

```
dark(Z) :- black(Z).
```

```
dark(Z) :- brown(Z).
```

```
dangerous(X) :- dark(X), big(X).
```

# Derivations

```
big(bear).                brown(bear).                dark(Z) :- black(Z).
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                           dangerous(Q)
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                                |
dark(X) :-                       |
  black(X)                       |
                                |
                                black(Q), big(Q)
                                |
black(cat)                       |
                                |
                                big(cat)
                                |
                                failure

```

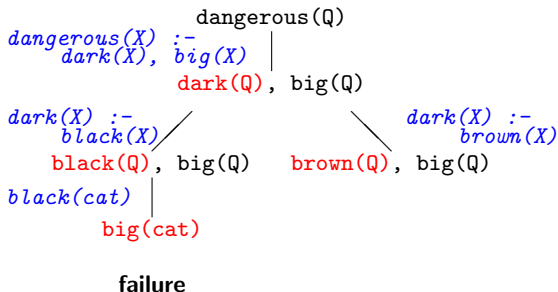


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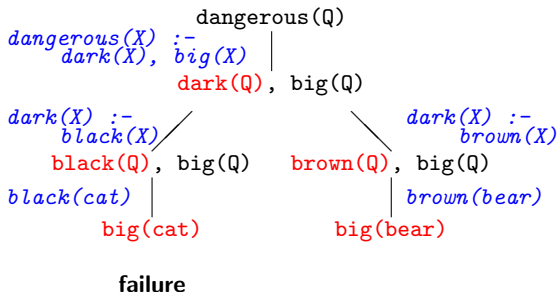


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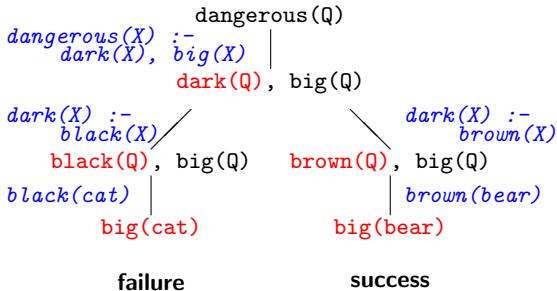


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  - Under that substitution for variables, prove  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_k, G_2, \dots, G_n$ .
  - If nothing is left to prove then the proof is complete. If there are no more clauses to match, the proof attempt fails.



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**This proof attempt fails!**
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- 5 Now select `brown(bear)` and prove `big(bear)`.
- 6 Select the fact `big(bear)`.

There is nothing left to prove, so the proof is complete

# Data Representation in Prolog

- Prolog has no notion of data types
- All data is represented as *terms*, which can be:
  - Variables
  - Non-variable Terms
    - Atomic data (Integers, floating point numbers, constants, ...)
    - Compound Terms (Structures)

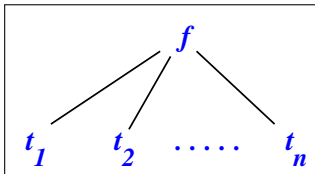


# Atomic Data

- **Numeric constants:** Integers, floating point numbers (e.g. 1024, -42, 3.1415, 6.023e23 ...)
- **Atoms:**
  - Strings of characters enclosed in single quotes (e.g. 'cram', 'Stony Brook')
  - Identifiers: sequence of letters, digits, underscore, beginning with a letter (e.g. `cram`, `r2d2`, `x_24`).

# Data Structures

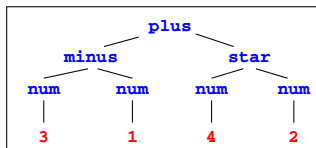
- If  $f$  is an identifier and  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n$  are terms, then  $f(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$  is a term.



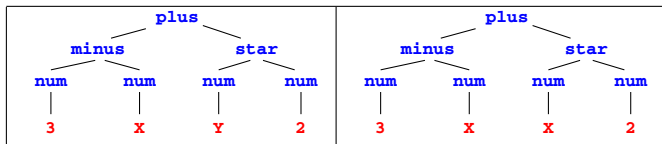
- In the above,  $f$  is called a *function symbol* (or *functor*) and  $t_i$  is an *argument*.
- Structures are used to group related data items together (in some ways similar to `struct` in C and objects in Java).
- Structures are used to construct trees (and, as a special case, lists).

# Trees

- Example: expression trees:  
`plus(minus(num(3), num(1)), star(num(4), num(2)))`



- Data structures may have variables. And the same variable may occur multiple times in a data structure.

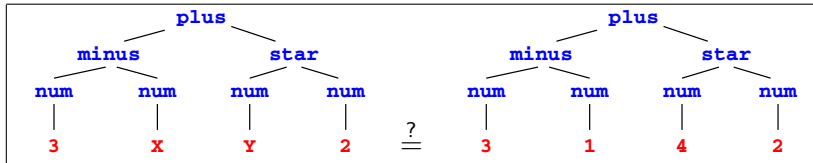


# Matching

(We'll extend this to *unification* later)

- $t_1 = t_2$ : find substitutions for variables in  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  that make the two terms identical.

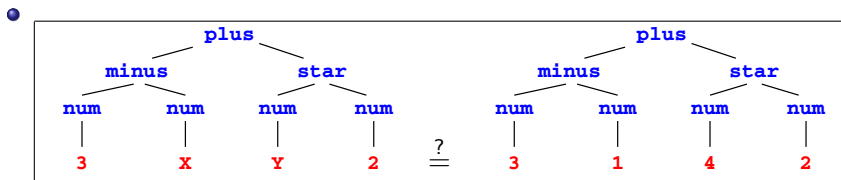
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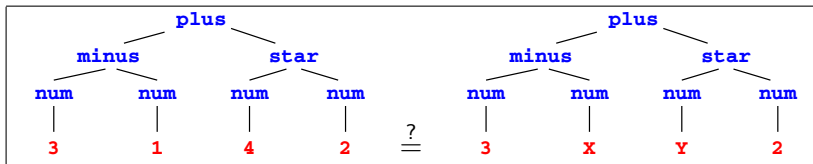
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Yes, with  $X = 1$ ,  $Y = 4$ .

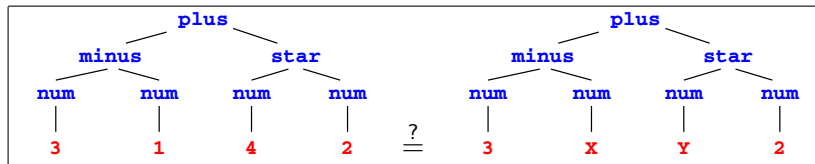
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## (contd.)



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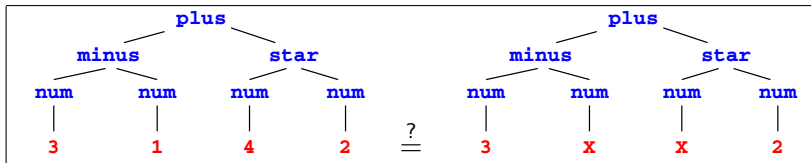
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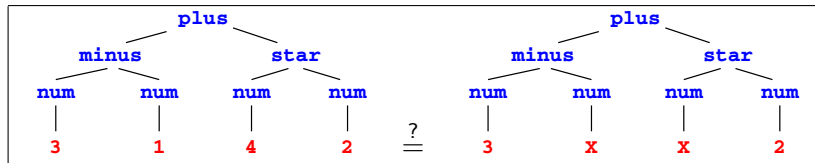
## (contd.)





## Matching

## (contd.)



No! X cannot be 1 and 4 at the same time

## Accessing arguments of a structure

- Matching is the common way to access a structure's arguments.
- Let `date('Sep', 1, 2005)` be a structure used to represent dates, with the month, day and year as the three arguments (in that order).
- Then `date(M, D, Y) = date('Sep', 1, 2005)` makes  $M = \text{'Sep'}$ ,  $D = 1$ ,  $Y = 2005$ .
- If we want to get only the day, we can write `date(_, D, _) = date('Sep', 1, 2005)`. Then we get  $D = 1$ .

# Lists

Prolog uses a special syntax to represent and manipulate lists.

- $[1,2,3,4]$ : represents a list with 1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively.
- This can also be written as  $[1 \mid [2,3,4]]$ : a list with 1 as the head (its first element) and  $[2,3,4]$  as its tail (the list of remaining elements).
- If  $X = 1$  and  $Y = [2,3,4]$  then  $[X|Y]$  is same as  $[1,2,3,4]$ .
- The empty list is represented by  $[\ ]$ .
- The symbol “|” (called *cons*) and is used to separate the beginning elements of a list from its tail.

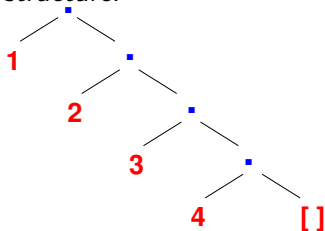
For example:  $[1,2,3,4] = [1 \mid [2,3,4]]$   
 $= [1 \mid [2 \mid [3,4]]]$   
 $= [1,2 \mid [3,4]]$

## Lists

## (contd.)

- Lists are special cases of trees.

For instance, the list  $[1,2,3,4]$  is represented by the following structure:



- The function symbol `./2` is the list constructor.  
 $[1,2,3,4]$  is same as  $.(1, .(2, .(3, .(4, []))))$

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## The program:

```
member(X, [X|_]).
member(X, [_|Ys]) :- member(X, Ys).
```

## Example queries:

```
member(s, [l,i,s,t])
member(X, [l,i,s,t])
member(f(X), [f(1), g(2), f(3), h(4), f(5)])
```

## Programming with Lists — II

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**The program:**

```
append([], L, L).
```

```
append([X|Xs], Ys, [X|Zs]) :- append(Xs, Ys, Zs).
```

## Programming with Lists — II

append/3: concatenate two lists to form the third list.

### The program:

```
append([], L, L).  
append([X|Xs], Ys, [X|Zs]) :- append(Xs, Ys, Zs).
```

### Example queries:

```
append([f,i,r], [s,t], L)  
append(X, Y, [s,e,c,o,n,d])  
append(X, [t,h], [f,o,u,r,t,h])
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## Programming with Lists — III

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**The program:**

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len([], 0).  
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### The program:

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len(_|Xs, N+1) :- len(Xs, N).
```

### Example queries:

```
len([], X)
len([l,i,s,t], 4)
len([l,i,s,t], X)
```

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  - General form:  $R$  is  $E$  where  $E$  is an expression to be evaluated and  $R$  is matched with the expression's value.
  - $Y$  is  $X + 1$  will give an error if  $X$  does not (yet) have a value.

## The list length example revisited

Define a predicate, `length/2` that finds the length of a list (first argument).

### The program:

```
length([], 0).
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```
length(_:Xs, M) :- length(Xs, N), M is N+1.
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### Example queries:

```
length([], X)
```

```
length([l,i,s,t], 4)
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```
length([l,i,s,t], X)
```

```
length(List, 4)
```

## Conditional Evaluation

Consider the computation of  $n!$ , i.e. the factorial of  $n$ .

```
factorial(N, F) :- ...
```

- $N$  is the input parameter; and  $F$  is the output parameter.



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  - $N \leq 0$ :  $F = 1$
  - $N > 0$ :  $F = N * (N - 1)!$
- `factorial(N, F) :-`

```

      (N > 0
        -> N1 is N-1, factorial(N1, F1), F is N*F1
        ; F = 1
      ).
```

## More Prolog Syntax

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- Assignments with arithmetic expressions is done using the keyword “is”.
- If-then-else is written as ( *cond*  $\rightarrow$  *then-part* ; *else-part* )
- If more than one action needs to be performed in a rule, they are written one after another, separated by a comma.
- Arithmetic expressions are not directly used as arguments when calling a predicate; they are first evaluated, and then passed to the called predicate.

# Arithmetic Operators

- Integer/Floating Point operators: `+`, `-`, `*`, `/`
- Integer operators: `mod`, `//` (div)
- Int  $\leftrightarrow$  Float operators: `floor`, `ceiling`
- Comparison operators: `<`, `>`, `=<`, `>=`, `==`, `=\=`

# Sequences, revisited

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# Mystery Program

```
m(X, X).
```

```
m(X1, X5) :- a(X1, X2), m(X2, X3), b(X3, X4), m(X4, X5).
```

```
a([0|Y], Y).
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# Definite Clause Grammars

$m \rightarrow []$ .

$m \rightarrow a, m, b, m$ .

$a \rightarrow [0]$ .

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`L=[0,1,0,0,1,1], ...`

?- `phrase(m, [0,1,0,0,1,1])`

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`⋮`

# Definite Clause Grammars (Magic?)

$r([]) \text{ --> } [].$

$r([X|Xs]) \text{ --> } r(Xs), [X].$

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?- `phrase(r(Q), [1,2,3,4]).`



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?- `phrase(r([1,2,3,4]), L).`

`L=[4,3,2,1]`

?- `phrase(r(Q), [1,2,3,4]).`

`Q=[4,3,2,1]`

# Definite Clause Grammars (Trick exposed!)

$r([]) \rightarrow []$ .

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Translated to:

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```

---

```
?- phrase(r([1,2,3,4]), L).
      ≡ r([1,2,3,4], L, [])
      L=[4,3,2,1]
```

- A way to reverse a list in **polynomial time!**

# Unification

- Operation done to “match” the goal atom with the head of a clause in the program.
- Forms the basis for the *matching* operation we used for Prolog evaluation.
  - $f(a,Y)$  and  $f(X,b)$  unify when  $X=a$  and  $Y=b$ .
  - $f(a,X)$  and  $f(X,b)$  do not unify.
  - $X$  and  $f(X)$  do not unify  
(but they “match” in Prolog!)







## Composition of Substitutions

- Composition of substitutions  $\theta = \{X_1 \mapsto s_1, \dots, X_m \mapsto s_m\}$  and  $\sigma = \{Y_1 \mapsto t_1, \dots, Y_n \mapsto t_n\}$ :
  - First form the set  $\{X_1 \mapsto s_1\sigma, \dots, X_m \mapsto s_m\sigma, Y_1 \mapsto t_1, \dots, Y_n \mapsto t_n\}$
  - Remove from the set  $X_i \mapsto s_i\sigma$  if  $s_i\sigma = X_i$
  - Remove from the set  $Y_j \mapsto t_j$  if  $Y_j$  is identical to some variable  $X_i$
- Example: Let  $\theta = \sigma = \{X \mapsto g(Y), Y \mapsto Z, Z \mapsto a\}$ . Then  $\theta\sigma =$ 

$$\{X \mapsto g(Y), Y \mapsto Z, Z \mapsto a\}\{X \mapsto g(Y), Y \mapsto Z, Z \mapsto a\}$$

$$= \{X \mapsto g(Z), Y \mapsto a, Z \mapsto a\}$$
- More examples: Let  $\theta = \{X \mapsto f(Y)\}$  and  $\sigma = \{Y \mapsto a\}$ 
  - $\theta\sigma = \{X \mapsto f(a), Y \mapsto a\}$
  - $\theta\sigma = \{X \mapsto f(Y), Y \mapsto a\}$
- Composition is not *commutative* but is *associative*:  $\theta(\sigma\gamma) = (\theta\sigma)\gamma$
- Also,  $E(\theta\sigma) = (E\theta)\sigma$

# Idempotence

- A substitution  $\theta$  is **idempotent** iff  $\theta\theta = \theta$ .

- Examples:

- $\{X \mapsto g(Y), Y \mapsto Z, Z \mapsto a\}$  is not idempotent since

$$\begin{aligned} & \{X \mapsto g(Y), Y \mapsto Z, Z \mapsto a\} \{X \mapsto g(Y), Y \mapsto Z, Z \mapsto a\} \\ = & \{X \mapsto g(Z), Y \mapsto a, Z \mapsto a\} \end{aligned}$$

- $\{X \mapsto g(Z), Y \mapsto a, Z \mapsto a\}$  is not idempotent either since

$$\begin{aligned} & \{X \mapsto g(Z), Y \mapsto a, Z \mapsto a\} \{X \mapsto g(Z), Y \mapsto a, Z \mapsto a\} \\ = & \{X \mapsto g(a), Y \mapsto a, Z \mapsto a\} \end{aligned}$$

- $\{X \mapsto g(a), Y \mapsto a, Z \mapsto a\}$  is idempotent

- For a substitution  $\theta = \{X_1 \mapsto t_1, \dots, X_n \mapsto t_n\}$ ,

- $Dom(\theta) = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$

- $Range(\theta) =$  set of all variables in  $t_1, \dots, t_n$

- A substitution  $\theta$  is idempotent iff  $Dom(\theta) \cap Range(\theta) = \emptyset$

# Unifiers

- A substitution  $\theta$  is a unifier of two terms  $s$  and  $t$  if  $s\theta$  is identical to  $t\theta$ .
- $\theta$  is a unifier of a set of equations  $\{s_1 \doteq t_1, \dots, s_n \doteq t_n\}$ , if for all  $i$ ,  $s_i\theta = t_i\theta$ .
- A substitution  $\theta$  is more general than  $\sigma$  (written as  $\theta \succeq \sigma$ ) if there is a substitution  $\omega$  such that  $\sigma = \theta\omega$
- A substitution  $\theta$  is a most general unifier (mgu) of two terms (or a set of equations) if for every unifier  $\sigma$  of the two terms (or equations)  $\theta \succeq \sigma$
- Example: Consider two terms  $f(g(X), Y, a, b)$  and  $f(Z, W, X, b)$ .
  - $\theta_1 = \{X \mapsto a, Y \mapsto b, Z \mapsto g(a), W \mapsto b\}$  is a unifier
  - $\theta_2 = \{X \mapsto a, Y \mapsto W, Z \mapsto g(a)\}$  is also a unifier
  - $\theta_2$  is a most general unifier

# Equations and Unifiers

- A set of equations  $\mathcal{E}$  is in solved form if it is of the form  $\{X_1 \doteq t_1, \dots, X_n \doteq t_n\}$  iff
  - all  $X_i$ 's are distinct, and
  - no  $X_i$  appears in any  $t_j$ .
- Given a set of equations in solved form  $\mathcal{E} = \{X_1 \doteq t_1, \dots, X_n \doteq t_n\}$  the substitution  $\{X_1/t_1, \dots, X_n/t_n\}$  is an idempotent mgu of  $\mathcal{E}$ .
- Two sets of equations  $\mathcal{E}_1$  and  $\mathcal{E}_2$  are said to be equivalent iff they have the same set of unifiers.
- To find the mgu of two terms  $s$  and  $t$ , find a set of equations in solved form that is equivalent to  $\{s \doteq t\}$ .  
If there is no equivalent solved form, there is no mgu.

## A Simple Unification Algorithm (via Examples)

- Example 1: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(Y))$  and  $f(g(Z), Z)$

$$\{f(X, g(Y)) \doteq f(g(Z), Z)\} \Rightarrow$$

## A Simple Unification Algorithm (via Examples)

- Example 1: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(Y))$  and  $f(g(Z), Z)$

$$\{f(X, g(Y)) \doteq f(g(Z), Z)\} \Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(Z), g(Y) \doteq Z\}$$



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$$\{f(X, g(Y)) \doteq f(g(Z), Z)\} \Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(Z), g(Y) \doteq Z\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(Z), Z \doteq g(Y)\}$$

## A Simple Unification Algorithm (via Examples)

- Example 1: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(Y))$  and  $f(g(Z), Z)$

$$\begin{aligned} \{f(X, g(Y)) \doteq f(g(Z), Z)\} &\Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(Z), g(Y) \doteq Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(Z), Z \doteq g(Y)\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(g(Y)), Z \doteq g(Y)\} \end{aligned}$$

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- Example 2: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(X), b)$  and  $f(a, g(Z), Z)$

$$\{f(X, g(X), b) \dot{=} f(a, g(Z), Z)\} \Rightarrow$$

## A Simple Unification Algorithm (via Examples)

- Example 1: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(Y))$  and  $f(g(Z), Z)$

$$\{f(X, g(Y)) \doteq f(g(Z), Z)\} \Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(Z), g(Y) \doteq Z\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(Z), Z \doteq g(Y)\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(g(Y)), Z \doteq g(Y)\}$$

- Example 2: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(X), b)$  and  $f(a, g(Z), Z)$

$$\{f(X, g(X), b) \doteq f(a, g(Z), Z)\} \Rightarrow \{X \doteq a, g(X) \doteq g(Z), b \doteq Z\}$$

## A Simple Unification Algorithm (via Examples)

- Example 1: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(Y))$  and  $f(g(Z), Z)$

$$\begin{aligned} \{f(X, g(Y)) \dot{=} f(g(Z), Z)\} &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} g(Z), g(Y) \dot{=} Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} g(Z), Z \dot{=} g(Y)\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} g(g(Y)), Z \dot{=} g(Y)\} \end{aligned}$$

- Example 2: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(X), b)$  and  $f(a, g(Z), Z)$

$$\begin{aligned} \{f(X, g(X), b) \dot{=} f(a, g(Z), Z)\} &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} a, g(X) \dot{=} g(Z), b \dot{=} Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} a, g(a) \dot{=} g(Z), b \dot{=} Z\} \end{aligned}$$

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- Example 1: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(Y))$  and  $f(g(Z), Z)$

$$\begin{aligned}\{f(X, g(Y)) \dot{=} f(g(Z), Z)\} &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} g(Z), g(Y) \dot{=} Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} g(Z), Z \dot{=} g(Y)\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} g(g(Y)), Z \dot{=} g(Y)\}\end{aligned}$$

- Example 2: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(X), b)$  and  $f(a, g(Z), Z)$

$$\begin{aligned}\{f(X, g(X), b) \dot{=} f(a, g(Z), Z)\} &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} a, g(X) \dot{=} g(Z), b \dot{=} Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} a, g(a) \dot{=} g(Z), b \dot{=} Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} a, a \dot{=} Z, b \dot{=} Z\}\end{aligned}$$

## A Simple Unification Algorithm (via Examples)

- Example 1: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(Y))$  and  $f(g(Z), Z)$

$$\begin{aligned}\{f(X, g(Y)) \dot{=} f(g(Z), Z)\} &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} g(Z), g(Y) \dot{=} Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} g(Z), Z \dot{=} g(Y)\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} g(g(Y)), Z \dot{=} g(Y)\}\end{aligned}$$

- Example 2: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(X), b)$  and  $f(a, g(Z), Z)$

$$\begin{aligned}\{f(X, g(X), b) \dot{=} f(a, g(Z), Z)\} &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} a, g(X) \dot{=} g(Z), b \dot{=} Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} a, g(a) \dot{=} g(Z), b \dot{=} Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} a, a \dot{=} Z, b \dot{=} Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} a, Z \dot{=} a, b \dot{=} Z\}\end{aligned}$$

## A Simple Unification Algorithm (via Examples)

- Example 1: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(Y))$  and  $f(g(Z), Z)$

$$\begin{aligned} \{f(X, g(Y)) \dot{=} f(g(Z), Z)\} &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} g(Z), g(Y) \dot{=} Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} g(Z), Z \dot{=} g(Y)\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} g(g(Y)), Z \dot{=} g(Y)\} \end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \{f(X, g(X), b) \dot{=} f(a, g(Z), Z)\} &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} a, g(X) \dot{=} g(Z), b \dot{=} Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} a, g(a) \dot{=} g(Z), b \dot{=} Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} a, a \dot{=} Z, b \dot{=} Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} a, Z \dot{=} a, b \dot{=} Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \dot{=} a, Z \dot{=} a, b \dot{=} a\} \end{aligned}$$



## A Simple Unification Algorithm (via Examples)

- Example 1: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(Y))$  and  $f(g(Z), Z)$

$$\begin{aligned} \{f(X, g(Y)) \doteq f(g(Z), Z)\} &\Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(Z), g(Y) \doteq Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(Z), Z \doteq g(Y)\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(g(Y)), Z \doteq g(Y)\} \end{aligned}$$

- Example 2: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(X), b)$  and  $f(a, g(Z), Z)$

$$\begin{aligned} \{f(X, g(X), b) \doteq f(a, g(Z), Z)\} &\Rightarrow \{X \doteq a, g(X) \doteq g(Z), b \doteq Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \doteq a, g(a) \doteq g(Z), b \doteq Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \doteq a, a \doteq Z, b \doteq Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \doteq a, Z \doteq a, b \doteq Z\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{X \doteq a, Z \doteq a, b \doteq a\} \\ &\Rightarrow \mathbf{fail} \end{aligned}$$

# A Simple Unification Algorithm

Given a set of equations  $\mathcal{E}$ :

repeat

select  $s \doteq t \in \mathcal{E}$ ;

case  $s \doteq t$  of

1.  $f(s_1, \dots, s_n) \doteq f(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ :

replace the equation by  $s_i \doteq t_i$  for all  $i$

2.  $f(s_1, \dots, s_n) \doteq g(t_1, \dots, t_m)$ ,  $f \neq g$  or  $n \neq m$ :

halt with **failure**

3.  $X \doteq X$ : remove the equation

4.  $t \doteq X$ : where  $t$  is not a variable

replace equation by  $X \doteq t$

5.  $X \doteq t$ : where  $X \neq t$  and  $X$  occurs more than once in  $\mathcal{E}$ :

if  $X$  is a proper subterm of  $t$

then halt with **failure** (5a)

else replace all other  $X$  in  $\mathcal{E}$  by  $t$  (5b)

until no action is possible for any equation in  $\mathcal{E}$

return  $\mathcal{E}$

# A Simple Unification Algorithm (More Examples)

- Example 1: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(Y))$  and  $f(g(Z), Z)$   
 $\{f(X, g(Y)) \doteq f(g(Z), Z)\} \Rightarrow$

# A Simple Unification Algorithm (More Examples)

- Example 1: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(Y))$  and  $f(g(Z), Z)$   
 $\{f(X, g(Y)) \doteq f(g(Z), Z)\} \Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(Z), g(Y) \doteq Z\}$  case 1

# A Simple Unification Algorithm (More Examples)

- Example 1: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(Y))$  and  $f(g(Z), Z)$ 

$$\{f(X, g(Y)) \doteq f(g(Z), Z)\} \Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(Z), g(Y) \doteq Z\} \quad \text{case 1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(Z), Z \doteq g(Y)\} \quad \text{case 4}$$

# A Simple Unification Algorithm (More Examples)

- Example 1: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(Y))$  and  $f(g(Z), Z)$ 

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$$\Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(Z), Z \doteq g(Y)\} \quad \text{case 4}$$

$$\Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(g(Y)), Z \doteq g(Y)\} \quad \text{case 5b}$$

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- Example 3: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(X))$  and  $f(Z, Z)$ 

$$\{f(X, g(X)) \doteq f(Z, Z)\} \Rightarrow$$

## A Simple Unification Algorithm (More Examples)

- Example 1: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(Y))$  and  $f(g(Z), Z)$ 

$$\{f(X, g(Y)) \doteq f(g(Z), Z)\} \Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(Z), g(Y) \doteq Z\} \quad \text{case 1}$$

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- Example 3: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(X))$  and  $f(Z, Z)$ 

$$\{f(X, g(X)) \doteq f(Z, Z)\} \Rightarrow \{X \doteq Z, g(X) \doteq Z\} \quad \text{case 1}$$



# A Simple Unification Algorithm (More Examples)

- Example 1: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(Y))$  and  $f(g(Z), Z)$ 

$$\{f(X, g(Y)) \doteq f(g(Z), Z)\} \Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(Z), g(Y) \doteq Z\} \quad \text{case 1}$$

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$$\Rightarrow \{X \doteq Z, g(Z) \doteq Z\} \quad \text{case 5b}$$

$$\Rightarrow \{X \doteq Z, Z \doteq g(Z)\} \quad \text{case 4}$$

# A Simple Unification Algorithm (More Examples)

- Example 1: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(Y))$  and  $f(g(Z), Z)$ 
  - $\{f(X, g(Y)) \doteq f(g(Z), Z)\} \Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(Z), g(Y) \doteq Z\}$  case 1
  - $\Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(Z), Z \doteq g(Y)\}$  case 4
  - $\Rightarrow \{X \doteq g(g(Y)), Z \doteq g(Y)\}$  case 5b
- Example 3: Find the mgu of  $f(X, g(X))$  and  $f(Z, Z)$ 
  - $\{f(X, g(X)) \doteq f(Z, Z)\} \Rightarrow \{X \doteq Z, g(X) \doteq Z\}$  case 1
  - $\Rightarrow \{X \doteq Z, g(Z) \doteq Z\}$  case 5b
  - $\Rightarrow \{X \doteq Z, Z \doteq g(Z)\}$  case 4
  - $\Rightarrow$  **fail** case 5a

## Complexity of the unification algorithm

Consider

$$\mathcal{E} = \{g(X_1, \dots, X_n) \doteq g(f(X_0, X_0), f(X_1, X_1), \dots, f(X_{n-1}, X_{n-1}))\}.$$

- By applying **case 1** of the algorithm, we get

$$\{X_1 = f(X_0, X_0), X_2 = f(X_1, X_1), \dots, X_n = f(X_{n-1}, X_{n-1})\}$$

- If terms are kept as *trees*, the final value for  $X_n$  is a tree of size  $O(2^n)$ .
- Recall that for **case 5** we need to first check if a variable appears in a term, and this could now take  $O(2^n)$  time.
- There are *linear-time* unification algorithms that share structures (terms as DAGs).
- $X = t$  is the most common case for unification in Prolog. The fastest algorithms are linear in  $t$ .
- Prolog cuts corners by omitting *case 5a* (the occur check), thereby doing  $X = t$  in *constant time*.

# Most General Unifiers

- Note that mgu stands for a most general unifier.
- There may be more than one mgu. E.g.  $f(X) \doteq f(Y)$  has two mgus:
  - $\{X \mapsto Y\}$
  - $\{Y \mapsto X\}$
- If  $\theta$  is an mgu of  $s$  and  $t$ , and  $\omega$  is a *renaming*, then  $\theta\omega$  is an mgu of  $s$  and  $t$ .
- If  $\theta$  and  $\sigma$  are mgus of  $s$  and  $t$ , then there is a renaming  $\omega$  such that  $\theta = \sigma\omega$ .