Definite Logic Programs: Derivation and Proof Trees

CSE 505 – Computing with Logic

Stony Brook University

http://www.cs.stonybrook.edu/~cse505

Refutation in Predicate Logic

parent(pam, bob). parent(tom, bob).
parent(tom, liz). ...
anc(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y).
anc(X,Y) :- parent(X,Z), anc(Z,Y).

- <u>Goal G</u>: For what values of Q is :- anc (tom, Q) a logical consequence of the above program?
- <u>Negate the goal G</u>: i.e. $\neg G \equiv \forall Q \neg anc(tom, Q)$.
- Consider the clauses in the program P U \neg G and apply refutation
 - Note that a program clause written as p(A,B) :- q(A,C), r(B,C) can be rewritten as: \nabla A,B,C (p(A, B) \nabla -q(A, C) \nabla -r(B, C))

i.e., l.h.s. literal is **positive**, while all r.h.s. literals are **negative**

• Note also that all variables are universally quantified in a clause!

• Note on syntax: we use :- , ?- and \leftarrow for IMPLICATION (c) Paul Fodor (CS Stony Brook) and Elsevier

Refutation: An Example

parent(pam, bob).

- parent(tom, bob).
- parent(tom, liz).

parent(bob, ann).

parent(bob, pat).

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parent(pat, jim).
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anc(X,Y) :-
    parent(X,Y).
anc(X,Y) :-
    parent(X,Z),
    anc(Z,Y).
```





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
 - That is, the query ?- f(a,X)=f(X,b).
 fails in Prolog

Substitutions

- A *substitution* is a mapping between variables and values (terms)
 - Denoted by $\{X_1/t_1, X_2/t_2, \ldots, X_n/t_n\}$ such that • $X_i \neq t_i$, and
 - X_i and X_j are distinct variables when $i \neq j$.
 - \bullet The empty substitution is denoted by $\{\}$ (or $\epsilon).$
 - A substitution is said to be a *renaming* if it is of the form {X₁/Y₁, X₂/Y₂,..., X_n/Y_n} and Y₁, Y₂,..., Y_n is a permutation of X₁, X₂,..., X_n.
 Example: {X/Y, Y/X} is a renaming substitution.

Substitutions and Terms • Application of a substitution:

- $X\theta = t ext{ if } X/t \in \theta.$
- $X\theta = X$ if $X/t \notin \theta$ for any term t.
- Application of a substitution $\{X_1/t_1, \ldots, X_n/t_n\}$ to a *term/formula* F:
 - is a term/formula obtained by simultaneously replacing every <u>free</u> occurrence of X_i in F by t_i.
 - Denoted by $F\theta$ [and $F\theta$ is said to be an *instance* of F]

• Example:

 $p(f(X,Z),f(Y,a)) \{X/g(Y), Y/Z, Z/a\} = p(f(g(Y),a),f(Z,a))$

Composition of Substitutions • *Composition* $\theta \sigma$ of substitutions $\theta = \{\mathbf{X}_1 / \mathbf{s}_1, \ldots, \}$ X_m/s_m and $\sigma = \{Y_1/t_1, \ldots, Y_n/t_n\}$: First form the set $\{X_1/s_1\sigma, ..., X_m/s_m\sigma, Y_1/t_1, ..., Y_n/t_n\}$ 1. Remove from the set $X_i / s_i \sigma$ if $s_i \sigma = X_i$ 2. Remove from the set $\mathbf{Y}_{j}/\mathbf{t}_{j}$ if \mathbf{Y}_{j} is identical to some variable \mathbf{X}_{i} 3. • Example: Let $\theta = \sigma = \{X/g(Y), Y/Z, Z/a\}$. Then $\theta \sigma = \{X/g(Y), Y/Z, Z/a\}\{X/g(Y), Y/Z, Z/a\} =$ $\{X/q(Z), Y/a, Z/a\}$ • More examples: Let $\theta = \{X/f(Y)\}$ and $\sigma = \{Y/a\}$ • $\theta \sigma = \{X/f(a), Y/a\}$

• $\sigma\theta = \{Y/a, X/f(Y)\}$

• Composition is not commutative but is associative: $\theta(\sigma\gamma) = (\theta\sigma)\gamma$

Idempotence

- A substitution θ is *idempotent* iff $\theta\theta = \theta$.
- Examples:
 - {X/g(Y), Y/Z, Z/a} is not idempotent since {X/g(Y),Y/Z, Z/a} {X/g(Y),Y/Z, Z/a} = {X/g(Z),Y/a, Z/a}
 {X/g(Z), Y/a, Z/a} {X/g(Z),Y/a, Z/a} is not idempotent either since {X/g(Z),Y/a,Z/a} {X/g(Z),Y/a,Z/a} = {X/g(a),Y/a,Z/a}
 {X/g(a), Y/a, Z/a} is idempotent
- For a substitution $\theta = \{X_1/t_1, X_2/t_2, \ldots, X_n/t_n\},\$
 - $Dom(\theta) = \{X_1, X_2, ..., X_n\}$
 - Range(θ) = set of all variables in t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n
- A substitution θ is *idempotent* iff $Dom(\theta) \cap Range(\theta) = \emptyset$

Unification

- **Unification** is a procedure that takes two atomic formulas as input, and either shows how they can be instantiated to identical atoms or, reports a failure.
 - For example:

?-f(X,g(Y)) = f(a,g(X)).

- Any solution of the equations: {X=a, g(Y)=g(X) } must clearly be a solution of equation above
- Similarly, any solution of: {X = a, Y = X} must be a solution of equations {X = a, g(Y) = g(X)}
- Finally any solution of: {X = a, Y = a} is a solution of {X = a, Y = X}

Unifiers

- A substitution θ is a <u>unifier of</u> two terms s and t if s θ is identical to t θ
 - θ is a unifier of a set of equations $\{s_1 = t_1, \ldots, s_n = t_n\}$, if for all $i, s_i \theta = t_i \theta$
- A substitution θ is *more general* than σ (written as $\theta \ge \sigma$) if there is a substitution ω such that $\sigma = \theta \omega$
- A substitution θ is a <u>most general unifier</u> (<u>mgu</u>) of two terms (or a set of equations) if for every unifier σ of the two terms (or equations) $\theta \ge \sigma$
 - Example: Consider two terms f(g(X), Y, a) and f(Z, W, X).
 θ₁ = {X/a, Y/b, Z/g(a), W/b} is a unifier
 θ₂ = {X/a, Y/W, Z/g(a)} is also a unifier
 θ₂ is more general than θ₁ because θ₁ = θ₂ω where ω = {W/b}

 θ_2 is also the most general unifier of the 2 terms

• A set of equations E is in <u>solved form</u> if it is of the form

- $\{X_1 = t_1, \ldots, X_n = t_n\}$ iff no X_i appears in any t_j .
 - Given a set of equations $\mathbf{E} = \{\mathbf{X}_1 = \mathbf{t}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{X}_n = \mathbf{t}_n\}$, the substitution $\{\mathbf{X}_1/\mathbf{t}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{X}_n/\mathbf{t}_n\}$ is an idempotent mgu of \mathbf{E}
- Two sets of equations E₁ and E₂ are said to be <u>equivalent</u> iff they have the same set of unifiers
- To find the mgu of two terms s and t, try to find a set of equations in solved form that is equivalent to {s = t}.

If there is no equivalent solved form, there is no mgu.

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A Simple Unification Algorithm
 Given a set of equations E:
 repeat
   select s = t \in E;
   case s = t of
        1. f(s_1, \ldots, s_n) = f(t_1, \ldots, t_n):
               replace the equation by s_i = t_i for all i
        2. f(s_1, \ldots, s_n) = g(t_1, \ldots, t_m), f \neq g or n \neq m:
               halt with failure
        3. X = X : remove the equation
        4. t = X : where t is not a variable, X is a variable
               replace equation by X = t
        5. X = t: where X \neq t and X occurs more than once in E:
               if X is a proper subterm of t
               then halt with failure
                                                         (5a)
               else replace all other X in E by t
                                                         (5b)
 until no action is possible for any equation in E
 return E
```

A Simple Unification Algorithm Example: Find the mgu of f(X, g(Y)) and f(g(Z), Z) $\{f(X, g(Y)) = f(g(Z), Z)\} \Rightarrow$ \Rightarrow {X = g(Z), g(Y) = Z} case 1 \Rightarrow {X = g(Z), Z = g(Y)} case 4 \Rightarrow {X = g(g(Y)), Z = g(Y)} case 5b

A Simple Unification Algorithm

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

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

$$\Rightarrow \{ \underline{X = Z}, g(X) = Z \}$$
 case 1
$$\Rightarrow \{ X = Z, \underline{g(Z)} = Z \}$$
 case 5b
$$\Rightarrow \{ X = Z, \underline{Z = g(Z)} \}$$
 case 4
$$\Rightarrow fail$$
 case 5a

A Simple Unification Algorithm

Example: Find the mgu of f(X,g(X),b) and f(a,g(Z),Z) $\{\underline{f(X,g(X),b)=f(a,g(Z),Z)}\} \Rightarrow$ $\Rightarrow \{\underline{X = a}, g(X) = g(Z), b = Z\}$ case 1 $\Rightarrow \{X = a, \underline{g(a)} = \underline{g(Z)}, b = Z\}$ case 5b $\Rightarrow \{X = a, \underline{a = Z}, b = Z\}$ case 1 $\Rightarrow \{X = a, \underline{Z = a}, b = Z\}$ case 4 $\Rightarrow \{X = a, Z = a, \underline{b = a}\}$ case 2 $\Rightarrow fail$

Complexity of the unification algorithm

• Consider the set of equations:

 $E = \{ g(X_1, \ldots, X_n) = g(f(X_0, X_0), f(X_1, X_1), \ldots, f(X_{n-1}, X_{n-1}) \}$

• By applying case 1 of the algorithm, we get

{ $X_1 = f(X_0, X_0), X_2 = f(X_1, X_1), X_3 = f(X_2, X_2), ..., X_n = f(X_{n-1}, X_{n-1})$ }

- 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(2ⁿ) time
- X = t is the most common case for unification in Prolog
 - There are linear-time unification algorithms that share structures (terms as DAGs)
 - Therefore, the fastest algorithms are linear in **t**
 - Prolog cuts corners by omitting case 5a (called *occur check*), thereby doing
 X = t in constant time

Most General Unifiers

- Note that mgu stands for <u>a/one</u> most general unifier
 - There may be more than one mgu
 - E.g. f(X) = f(Y) has two mgus:
 - {X / Y} (by our simple algorithm)
 - {Y / X} (by definition of mgu)
- If θ is an mgu of **s** and **t**, and ω is a renaming, then $\theta\omega$ is a mgu of **s** and **t**
- If θ and σ are mgus of **s** and **t**, then there is a renaming ω such that $\theta = \sigma \omega$
 - MGU is unique up to renaming!

SLD Resolution • Selective Linear Definite clause (SLD) Resolution: $\leftarrow A_1, \ldots, A_{i-1}, A_i, A_{i+1}, \ldots, A_m \quad B_0 \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_n$ $\leftarrow (A_1,\ldots,A_{i-1},B_1,\ldots,B_n,A_{i+1},\ldots,A_m)\theta$ where: 1. $\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{i}}$ are atomic formulas 2. $B_0 \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_n$ is a (<u>renamed variables</u>) definite clause in the program 3. $\theta = mgu(\mathbf{A}_i, \mathbf{B}_0)$ • A; is called the *selected* atom • Given a goal $\leftarrow \mathbf{A}_1, \dots, \mathbf{A}_n$ a function called the *selection function* or *computation rule* selects **A**_i 19 (c) Paul Fodor (CS Stony Brook) and Elsevier

SLD Resolution (cont.) • When the resolution rule is applied, from a goal **G** and a clause **C**, we get a new goal **G'** •We then say that **G**′ is *derived directly* from *G* and *C*: $G \xrightarrow{C} G'$

• An *SLD Derivation* is a sequence:

 $G_0 \stackrel{C_0}{\leadsto} G_1 \cdots G_i \stackrel{C_i}{\leadsto} G_{i+1} \cdots$

SLD Derivation



SLD Derivation \leftarrow anc(tom, Q) parent(pam, bob) anc(X,Y) \leftarrow parent(X,Z), anc(Z,Y) parent(tom, bob). parent(tom, liz). \leftarrow parent(tom,Z'), anc(Z', Q) parent(bob, ann) $parent(tom, bob) \leftarrow$ parent(bob, pat) parent(pat, jim). anc(tom, Q) \leftarrow anc(bob, Q) \rightarrow parent(tom, Z') anc(X,Y) :=anc(X,Y)anc(Z', Q) \leftarrow parent(X,Y) parent(X,Y). \rightarrow anc(bob, Q) anc(X,Y) :- \rightarrow parent(bob, Q) \leftarrow parent(bob, Q) parent(X,Z), $\sim \rightarrow$ parent(bob, ann) \leftarrow $\operatorname{anc}(\mathbf{Z},\mathbf{Y})$. Q=ann

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Computed Answer Substitution

• Let $\theta_0, \theta_1, \ldots, \theta_{n-1}$ be the sequence of mgus used in derivation $G_0 \stackrel{C_0}{\rightsquigarrow} G_1 \cdots G_{n-1} \stackrel{C_{n-1}}{\rightsquigarrow} G_n$

Then $\theta = \theta_0 \theta_1 \cdots \theta_{n-1}$ is the *computed substitution* of the derivation • Example derivation **in tabled form**:

Goal	Clause Used	mgu
anc(tom, Q)	anc(X',Y') :-	
	<pre>parent(X',Z'), anc(Z',Y')</pre>	$ heta_0 = \{X'/{ t tom}, Y'/Q\}$
<pre>parent(tom, Z'),</pre>		
anc(Z', Q)	<pre>parent(tom, bob).</pre>	$ heta_1=\{Z'/{ t bob}\}$
anc(bob, Q)	anc(X'', Y'') :-	
	<pre>parent(X'', Y'').</pre>	$ heta_2 = \{X''/ ext{bob}, Y''/Q\}$
<pre>parent(bob, Q)</pre>	parent(bob, ann).	$ heta_3 = \{Q t ann \}$
 Computed substitution for the above derivation is 		
$\theta_0 \theta_1 \theta_2 \theta_3 = \{x'/tom, y'/ann, z'/bob, x''/bob, y''/ann, Q/ann\}$		
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Computed Answer Substitution

• A finite derivation of the form

 $G_0 \stackrel{C_0}{\leadsto} G_1 \cdots G_{n-1} \stackrel{C_{n-1}}{\leadsto} G_n$

where G_n=□ (i.e., an empty goal) is an <u>SLD refutation</u> of G₀
The computed substitution of an SLD refutation of G, restricted to variables of G, is a <u>computed answer</u> <u>substitution</u> for G

Example: the previous SLD-derivation is an SLD refutation
The computed answer substitution is:

{X'/tom, Y'/ann, Z'/bob, X''/bob, Y''/ann, Q/ann}
restricted to Q is: {Q/ann}

Failed SLD Derivation

- A derivation of a goal clause G_0 whose <u>last element is not empty</u>, <u>and cannot be resolved with any clause of the program</u>.
- Example: consider the following program: grandfather(X,Z) :- father(X,Y), parent(Y,Z). parent(X,Y) :- father(X,Y). parent(X,Y) :- mother(X,Y). father(a,b). mother(b,c).

• A failed SLD derivation of grandfather(a,Q) is:

grandfather(a,Q)

- ~> father(a,Y'), parent(Y',Q)
- \rightarrow parent(b,Q)
- \rightsquigarrow father(b,Q)

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OLD Resolution

Prolog follows *OLD resolution* = SLD with <u>left-to-right</u> <u>literal selection</u>

- Prolog searches for OLD proofs by expanding the resolution tree depth first
- This depth-first expansion is close to how procedural programs are evaluated:
 - Consider a goal G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_n as a "procedure stack" with G_1 , the selected literal on top
 - Call G₁
 - <u>If</u> and <u>when</u> G₁ returns, continue with the rest of the computation: call G₂, and upon its return call G₃, etc. until nothing is left
 - \bullet Note: G_2 is "opened up" only when G_1 returns, not after executing only some part of G_1

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SLD Tree
 • A tree where every path is an SLD derivation
   (special case is the tree corresponding to all paths
   for a Prolog query)
                                        \leftarrow grandfather(a, Q)
grandfather(X,Z) :-
                                   \leftarrow father(a,Z'), parent(Z', Q)
   father(X,Y), parent(Y,Z).
parent(X,Y) := father(X,Y).
                                           \leftarrow parent(b, Q)
parent(X,Y) := mother(X,Y).
father(a,b).
mother(b,c).
                                 \leftarrow father(b, Q)
                                                    \leftarrow mother(b, Q)
 27
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Soundness of SLD resolution

- Let P be a definite program, R be a <u>computation</u> <u>rule</u>, and θ be a <u>computed answer substitution</u> for a goal G
- Then $\forall G \theta$ is a <u>logical consequence</u> of P
 - Proof is by induction on the number of resolution steps used in the refutation of G
 - Base case uses the following lemma:
 - Let F be a formula and F' be an instance of F, i.e., F' = Fθ for some substitution θ.
 Then (∀F) ⊨ (∀F').