A Second Look At Prolog

Outline

- Unification
- Three views of Prolog's execution model
 - Procedural
 - Implementational
 - Abstract
- The lighter side of Prolog

Substitutions

■ A *substitution* is a function that maps variables to terms:

$$\sigma = \{X \rightarrow a, Y \rightarrow f(a,b)\}$$

- This σ maps \mathbf{X} to \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{Y} to $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$
- The result of applying a substitution to a term is an *instance* of the term
- $\sigma(g(X,Y)) = g(a,f(a,b))$ so g(a,f(a,b)) is an *instance* of g(X,Y)

Unification

- Two Prolog terms t_1 and t_2 unify if there is some substitution σ (their unifier) that makes them identical: $\sigma(t_1) = \sigma(t_2)$
 - a and b do not unify
 - f(X,b) and f(a,Y) unify: a unifier is $\{X\rightarrow a, Y\rightarrow b\}$
 - f(X,b) and g(X,b) do not unify
 - a(X,X,b) and a(b,X,X) unify: a unifier is $\{X \rightarrow b\}$
 - a(X, X, b) and a(c, X, X) do not unify
 - a(X,f) and a(X,f) do unify: a unifier is {}

Multiple Unifiers

- parent(X,Y) and parent(fred,Y):
 - one unifier is σ_1 = {**X**→**fred**}
 - another is $\sigma_2 = \{X \rightarrow fred, Y \rightarrow mary\}$
- Prolog chooses unifiers like σ_1 that do just enough substitution to unify, and no more
- That is, it chooses the MGU—the Most General Unifier

MGU

- Term x_1 is more general than x_2 if x_2 is an instance of x_1 but x_1 is not an instance of x_2
 - Example: parent (fred, Y) is more general than parent (fred, mary)
- A unifier σ_1 of two terms t_1 and t_2 is an MGU if there is no other unifier σ_2 such that $\sigma_2(t_1)$ is more general than $\sigma_1(t_1)$
- MGU is unique up to variable renaming

Unification For Everything

- Parameter passing
 - reverse([1,2,3],X)
- Binding
 - x=0
- Data construction
 - X=. (1, [2,3])
- Data selection
 - -[1,2,3]=.(X,Y)

The Occurs Check

- Any variable **x** and term t unify with $\{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow t\}$:
 - \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{b} unify: an MGU is $\{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{b}\}$
 - X and f(a,g(b,c)) unify: an MGU is $\{X \rightarrow f(a,g(b,c))\}$
 - \mathbf{X} and $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{Y})$ unify: an MGU is $\{\mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{Y})\}$
- Unless **x** occurs in t:
 - X and f(a, X) do not unify, in particular not by $\{X \rightarrow f(a, X)\}$

Occurs Check Example

```
append([], B, B).
append([Head|TailA], B,
[Head|TailC]) :-
   append(TailA, B, TailC).
```

```
?- append([], X, [a | X]).
X = [a|**].
```

- Most Prologs omit the occurs check
- ISO standard says the result of unification is undefined in cases that should fail the occurs check

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A Procedural View

- One way to think of it: each clause is a procedure for proving goals
 - $\mathbf{p} : \mathbf{q}$, \mathbf{r} . To prove a goal, first unify the goal with \mathbf{p} , then prove \mathbf{q} , then prove \mathbf{r}
 - s. To prove a goal, unify it with s
- A proof may involve "calls" to other procedures

Simple Procedural Examples

```
p:-q, r. boolean p() {return q() && r();}
q:-s. boolean q() {return s();}
r:-s. boolean r() {return s();}
s. boolean s() {return true;}
```

Backtracking

- One complication: backtracking
- Prolog explores all possible targets of each call, until it finds as many successes as the caller requires or runs out of possibilities
- Consider the goal **p** here: it succeeds, but only after backtracking

```
1. p := q, r.
```

$$2. q :- s.$$

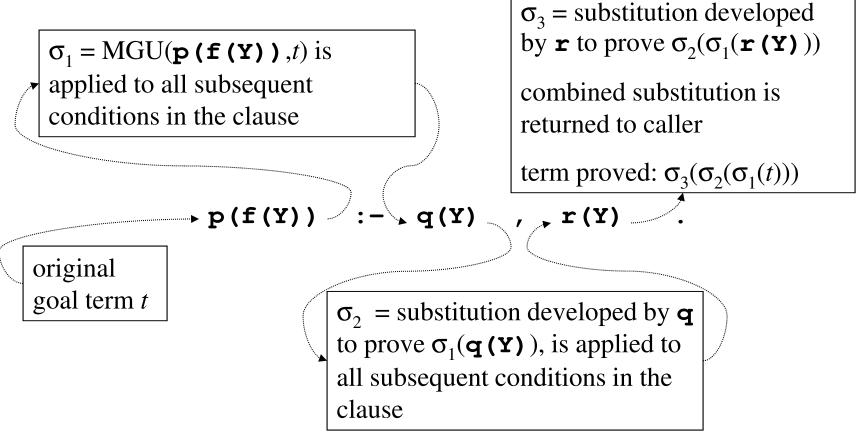
3. q.

4. r.

5. s :- 0=1.

Substitution

- Another complication: substitution
- A hidden flow of information



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Resolution

- The hardwired inference step
- A clause is represented as a list of terms (a list of one term, if it is a fact)
- Resolution step applies one clause, once, to make progress on a list of goal terms

```
function resolution(clause, goals):
  let sub = the MGU of head(clause) and head(goals)
  return sub(tail(clause) concatenated with tail(goals))
```

Resolution Example

Given this list of goal terms:

And this rule to apply:

$$p(f(Y)) := q(Y), r(Y).$$

The MGU of the heads is $\{x \rightarrow f(y)\}$, and we get:

function resolution(clause, goals):

let **sub** = the MGU of head(**clause**) and head(**goals**)

return **sub**(tail(**clause**) concatenated with tail(**goals**))

A Prolog Interpreter

```
function solve(goals)

if goals is empty then succeed()

else for each clause c in the program, in order

if head(c) does not unify with head(goals) then do nothing

else solve(resolution(c, goals))
```

A partial trace for query **p**(**X**):

```
    p(f(Y)):- solve([p(X)])
        q(Y),r(Y).
    q(g(Z)).
    q(h(Z)).
    r(h(a)).
    nothing
    nothing
    nothing
```

solve tries each of the four clauses in turn

- The first works, so it calls itself recursively on the result of the resolution step (not shown yet)
- The other three do not work: heads do not unify with the first goal term

1. p(f(Y)) := solve([p(X)])

- 2. q(g(Z)).
- 3. q(h(Z)).
- 4. r(h(a)).

A partial trace for query **p**(**X**), expanded:

- q(Y), r(Y). 1. solve([q(Y), r(Y)])
 - 1. nothing
 - 2. solve([r(g(Z))])

3. solve([r(h(Z))])

- 4. nothing
- 2. nothing
- 3. nothing
- 4. nothing

- 1. p(f(Y)) := q(Y), r(Y).
- 2. q(g(Z)).
- 3. q(h(Z)).
- 4. r(h(a)).

A complete trace for query **p**(**X**):

solve([p(X)])

- 1. solve([q(Y),r(Y)])
 - 1. nothing
 - 2. solve([r(g(Z))])
 - 1. nothing
 - 2. nothing
 - 3. nothing
 - 4. nothing
 - 3. solve([r(h(Z))])
 - 1. nothing
 - 2. nothing
 - 3. nothing
 - 4. solve([]) —

success!

- 4. nothing
- 2. nothing
- 3. nothing
- 4. nothing

Collecting The Substitutions

```
function resolution(clause, goals, query):
    let sub = the MGU of head(clause) and head(goals)
    return (sub(tail(clause) concatenated with tail(goals)), sub(query))

function solve(goals, query)
    if goals is empty then succeed(query)
    else for each clause c in the program, in order
        if head(c) does not unify with head(goals) then do nothing
        else solve(resolution(c, goals, query))
```

- Modified to pass original query along and apply all substitutions to it
- Proved instance is passed to **succeed**

A complete trace for query **p**(**X**):

```
1. p(f(Y)) := solve([p(X)], p(X))
       q(Y), r(Y). 1. solve([q(Y), r(Y)], p(f(Y)))
2. q(g(Z)).
                         1. nothing
3. q(h(Z)).
                         2. solve([r(g(Z))],p(f(g(Z))))
4. r(h(a)).
                              1. nothing
                              2. nothing
                              3. nothing
                              4. nothing
                         3. solve([r(h(Z))],p(f(h(Z))))
                              1. nothing
                              2. nothing
                              3. nothing
                              4. solve([],p(f(h(a))))
                         4. nothing
                     2. nothing
                     3. nothing
                     4. nothing
```

Prolog Interpreters

- The interpreter just shown is how early Prolog implementations worked
- All Prolog implementations must do things in that order, but most now accomplish it by a completely different (compiled) technique

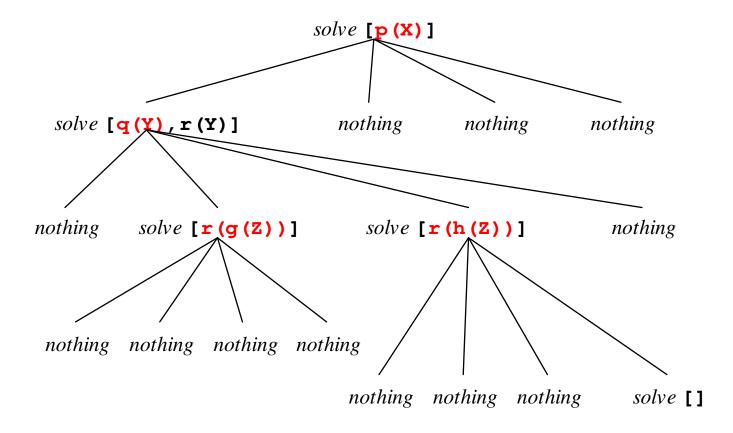
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Proof Trees

- We want to talk about the order of operations, without pinning down the implementation technique
- Proof trees capture the order of traces of **prove**, without the code:
 - Root is original query
 - Nodes are lists of goal terms, with one child for each clause in the program

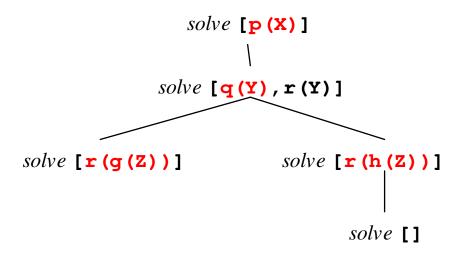
Example



Simplifying

- Children of a node represent clauses
- They appear in the order they occur in the program
- Once this is understood, we can eliminate the *nothing* nodes, which represent clauses that do not apply to the first goal in the list

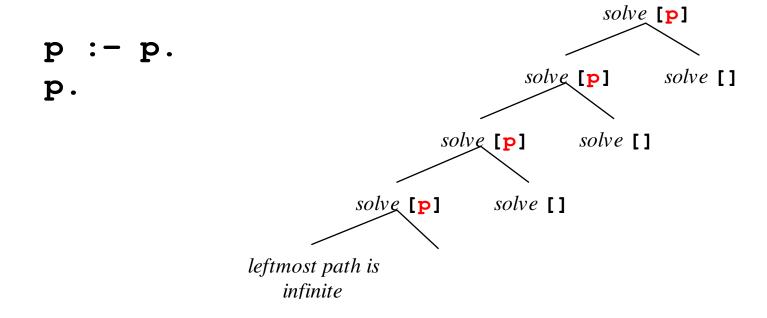
Example



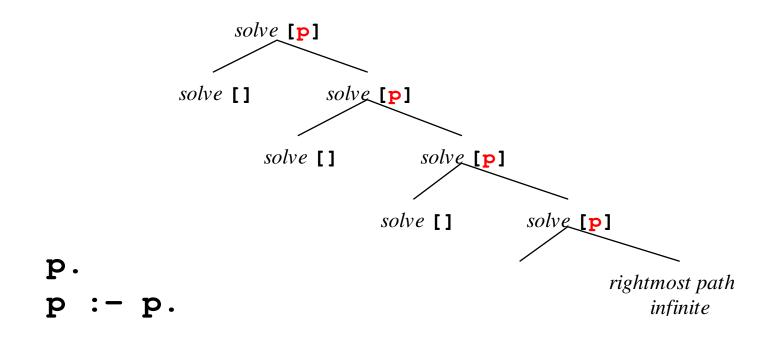
Prolog Semantics

- Given a program and a query, a Prolog language system must act in the order given by a depth-first, left-to-right traversal of the proof tree
- It might accomplish that using an interpreter like our **prove**
- Or it might do it by some completely different means

Infinite Proof Tree, Nonterminating Program



Infinite Proof Tree, Terminating Program



A Problem

- All three of the models of Prolog execution we have seen are flawed
- They work on the examples we chose
- On other examples they would not agree with common sense, or with the actual behavior of a Prolog language system
- For instance, reverse ([1,2],X)

A Problem

```
solve [reverse([1,2],X)]
nothing
            solve [reverse([2],Y),
                   append (Y, [1], X)]
        nothing
                    solve [reverse([],X),
                           append (X, [2], X),
                           append(X, [1], X)]
     solve [append([],[2],[]),
                                        nothing
            append([],[1],[])]
                nothing
```

```
reverse([],[]).
reverse([Head|Tail],X) :-
  reverse(Tail,Y),
  append(Y,[Head],X).
```

The Error

This step is wrong: we substituted **x** for **y**, but there is already a different **x** elsewhere in the goal list.

```
reverse([],[]).
reverse([Head|Tail],X) :-
  reverse(Tail,Y),
  append(Y,[Head],X).
```

Variable Renaming

- To avoid capture, use fresh variable names for each clause, every time you apply it
- The first application of **reverse** might be:

```
reverse([Head1 | Tail1], X1) :-
reverse(Tail1, Y1),
append(Y1, [Head1], X1).
```

And the next might be:

```
reverse([Head2 | Tail2], X2) :-
reverse(Tail2, Y2),
append(Y2, [Head2], X2).
```

■ And so on...

Correct

```
solve [reverse([1,2],X)]
                            nothing
                                       solve [reverse([2], Y1),
                                              append (Y1, [1], X1)]
                                    nothing
                                              solve [reverse([], Y2),
                                                     append (Y2, [2], X2)
                                                     append(X2, [1], X1)
                                 solve [append([],[2],X2),
                                                                 nothing
                                        append (X2, [1], X1)]
                                solve [append([2],[1],X1)]
reverse([],[]).
reverse([Head Tail], X) :-
                                          solve []
  reverse (Tail, Y),
  append(Y, [Head], X).
```

Rename Everywhere

- This renaming step is required for all three of our models of Prolog execution
- Every time a clause is used, it must have a fresh set of variable names
- This implements clause scope as required: the scope of a definition of a variable is the clause containing it

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Quoted Atoms As Strings

- Any string of characters enclosed in single quotes is a term
- In fact, Prolog treats it as an atom:
 - 'abc' is the same atom as abc
 - 'hello world' and 'Hello world' are atoms too
- Quoted strings can use \n, \t, \', \\

Input and Output

```
?- write('Hello world').
Hello world
true.
?- read(X).
|: hello.
X = hello.
```

- Simple term input and output.
- Also the predicate nl: equivalent to write('\n')

Debugging With write

```
?- p.
[] [1, 2]
[1] [2]
[1, 2] []
false.
```

```
p :-
    append(X,Y,[1,2]),
    write(X), write(' '), write(Y), write('\n'),
    X=Y.
```

The assert Predicate

```
?- parent(joe, mary).
false.
?- assert(parent(joe, mary)).
true.
?- parent(joe, mary).
true.
```

Adds a fact to the database (at the end)

The retract Predicate

```
?- parent(joe, mary).
true.
?- retract(parent(joe, mary)).
true.
?- parent(joe, mary).
false.
```

- Removes the first clause in the database that unifies with the parameter
- Also retractall to remove all matches

Dangerous Curves Ahead

- A very dirty trick: self-modifying code
- Not safe, not declarative, not efficient—but can be tempting, as the final example shows
- Best to use them only for facts, only for predicates not otherwise defined by the program, and only where the clause order is not important
- Note: if a predicate was compiled by consult, SWI-Prolog will not permit its definition to be changed by assert or retract

The Cut

- Written!, pronounced "cut"
- Logically simple: a goal that always succeeds (sort of like **true**)
- Procedurally tricky: when it succeeds, it usually also eliminates some backtracking
- We'll use it in only one simple way: as the final condition in a rule

What Cut Does There

p := q1, q2, ..., qj, !.

- If q1 through qj succeed, the cut does too
- It tells Prolog there's no going back:
 - No backtracking to look for other solutions for
 q1 through qj
 - And, no backtracking to try other clauses for the goal p that succeeded this way
- In effect: the first solution found for a given goal using this rule will be the last solution found for that goal

No Cut, Normal Backtracking

```
p :- member(X,[a,b,c]), write(X).
p :- write(d).
```

```
?- p.
a
true ;
b
true ;
c
true ;
d
true.
```

Cut Discards Backtracking

■ Because of the cut, it stops after finding the first solution

Cut With Care

- Uses of cut are non-declarative, and can be extremely subtle and error prone
 - Some cuts improve efficiency, saving time and space on backtracking where you know there are no more solutions anyway ("green cuts")
 - Others (like the previous example) change the solutions that are found ("red cuts")
- Useful and sometimes necessary, but use with caution

An Adventure Game

- Prolog comments
 - /* to */, like Java
 - Also, % to end of line

```
/*
  This is a little adventure game. There are three
  entities: you, a treasure, and an ogre. There are
  six places: a valley, a path, a cliff, a fork, a maze,
  and a mountaintop. Your goal is to get the treasure
  without being killed first.
*/
```

```
/*
 First, text descriptions of all the places in
 the game.
*/
description (valley,
  'You are in a pleasant valley, with a trail ahead.').
description (path,
  'You are on a path, with ravines on both sides.').
description(cliff,
  'You are teetering on the edge of a cliff.').
description (fork,
  'You are at a fork in the path.').
description (maze (_),
  'You are in a maze of twisty trails, all alike.').
description (mountaintop,
  'You are on the mountaintop.').
```

```
/*
  report prints the description of your current
  location.
*/
report :-
  at(you, X),
  description(X, Y),
  write(Y), nl.
```

```
?- assert (at (you, cliff)).
true.
?- report.
You are teetering on the edge of a cliff.
true.
?- retract(at(you, cliff)).
true.
?- assert (at (you, valley)).
true.
?- report.
You are in a pleasant valley, with a trail ahead.
true.
```

```
/*
  These connect predicates establish the map.
  The meaning of connect(X,Dir,Y) is that if you
  are at X and you move in direction Dir, you
  get to Y. Recognized directions are
  forward, right and left.
*/
connect (valley, forward, path).
connect(path, right, cliff).
connect (path, left, cliff).
connect (path, forward, fork).
connect(fork,left,maze(0)).
connect(fork, right, mountaintop).
connect (maze(0),left,maze(1)).
connect (maze(0), right, maze(3)).
connect (maze(1),left,maze(0)).
connect (maze(1), right, maze(2)).
connect (maze (2), left, fork).
connect (maze(2), right, maze(0)).
connect (maze(3),left,maze(0)).
connect (maze(3), right, maze(3)).
```

```
/*
  move (Dir) moves you in direction Dir, then
  prints the description of your new location.
*/
move(Dir) :-
  at (you, Loc),
                                 Note the final cut: the second clause
  connect (Loc, Dir, Next),
                                 for move will be used only if the first
  retract (at (you, Loc)),
                                 one fails, which happens only if Dir
  assert(at(you, Next)),
                                 was not a legal move.
  report,
  !.
/*
  But if the argument was not a legal direction,
  print an error message and don't move.
*/
move():-
  write('That is not a legal move.\n'),
  report.
```

```
/*
    Shorthand for moves.
*/
forward :- move(forward).
left :- move(left).
right :- move(right).
```

?- assert(at(you, valley)).
true.

?- forward.

You are on a path, with ravines on both sides. true.

?- forward.

You are at a fork in the path. true.

?- forward.

That is not a legal move. You are at a fork in the path. true.

```
/*
  If you and the ogre are at the same place, it
  kills you.
*/
ogre :-
  at (ogre, Loc),
  at (you, Loc),
  write('An ogre sucks your brain out through\n'),
  write('your eyesockets, and you die.\n'),
  retract (at (you, Loc)),
  assert (at (you, done)),
  ! .
/*
  But if you and the ogre are not in the same place,
  nothing happens.
*/
                            Note again the final cut in the first clause,
                            producing an "otherwise" behavior: ogre
ogre.
                            always succeeds, by killing you if it can, or
                            otherwise by doing nothing.
```

```
/*
  If you and the treasure are at the same place, you
  win.
*/
treasure :-
  at (treasure, Loc),
  at (you, Loc),
  write('There is a treasure here.\n'),
  write('Congratulations, you win!\n'),
  retract (at (you, Loc)),
  assert(at(you,done)),
  ! .
/*
  But if you and the treasure are not in the same
 place, nothing happens.
*/
treasure.
```

```
/*
   If you are at the cliff, you fall off and die.
*/
cliff :-
   at(you, cliff),
   write('You fall off and die.\n'),
   retract(at(you, cliff)),
   assert(at(you, done)),
   !.
/*
   But if you are not at the cliff nothing happens.
*/
cliff.
```

```
/*
  Main loop. Stop if player won or lost.
*/
main :-
  at (you, done),
  write('Thanks for playing.\n'),
  !.
/*
  Main loop. Not done, so get a move from the user
  and make it. Then run all our special behaviors.
  Then repeat.
*/
main :-
  write('\nNext move -- '),
  read (Move),
  call (Move),
                      The predefined predicate call (X)
  ogre,
                      tries to prove X as a goal term.
  treasure,
  cliff,
  main.
```

```
/*
  This is the starting point for the game.
  assert the initial conditions, print an initial
  report, then start the main loop.
*/
go :-
  retractall(at(_,_)), % clean up from previous runs
  assert(at(you, valley)),
  assert (at (ogre, maze (3))),
  assert(at(treasure, mountaintop)),
  write('This is an adventure game. \n'),
  write('Legal moves are left, right or forward.\n'),
  write('End each move with a period.\n\n'),
  report,
  main.
```

?- go.

This is an adventure game.

Legal moves are left, right or forward.

End each move with a period.

You are in a pleasant valley, with a trail ahead.

Next move -- forward.

You are on a path, with ravines on both sides.

Next move -- forward.

You are at a fork in the path.

Next move -- right.

You are on the mountaintop.

There is a treasure here.

Congratulations, you win!

Thanks for playing.

true.