Unification

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Improving the Recursive Descent Algorithm

- Improvement 1: Linear Space, Exponential Time
- Improvement 2. Linear Space, Quadratic Time
- Improvement 3. Almost Linear Algorithm



Recursive Descent Algorithm is Expensive

Example

$$s = h(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, f(y_0, y_0), f(y_1, y_1), \dots, f(y_{n-1}, y_{n-1}), y_n)$$

$$t = h(f(x_0, x_0), f(x_1, x_1), \dots, f(x_{n-1}, x_{n-1}), y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n, x_n)$$

Unifying *s* and *t* will create an mgu where each x_i and each y_i is bound to a term with $2^{i+1} - 1$ symbols:

$$\{ x_1 \mapsto f(x_0, x_0), x_2 \mapsto f(f(x_0, x_0), f(x_0, x_0)), \dots, \\ y_0 \mapsto x_0, y_1 \mapsto f(x_0, x_0), y_2 \mapsto f(f(x_0, x_0), f(x_0, x_0)), \dots \}$$

- Problem: Duplicate occurrences of the same variable cause the explosion in the size of terms.
- Fix: Represent terms as graphs, which share subterms.



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Term Dag

A term dag is a directed acyclic graph such that

- its nodes are labeled with function symbols or variables,
- its outgoing edges from any node are ordered,
- outdegree of any node labeled with a symbol *f* is equal to the arity of *f*,
- nodes labeled with variables have outdegree 0.



- Convention: Nodes and terms the term dags represent will not be distinguished.
- Example: "node" f(a, x) is a node labeled with f and having two arcs to a and to x.



The only difference between various dags representing the same term is the amount of structure sharing between subterms.

Example

Three representations of the term f(g(a, x), g(a, x)):





- It is possible to build a dag with unique, shared variables for a given term in O(n * log(n)) where n is the number of symbols in the term.
- Assumption for the algorithm we plan to consider:
 - The input is a term dag representing the two terms to be unified, with unique, shared occurrences of all variables.



Representing substitutions involving only subterms of a term dag:

- Directly by a relation on the nodes of the dag, either
 - stored explicitly as a list of pairs, or
 - by storing a link ("substitution arcs") in the graph itself, and maintaining a list of variables (nodes) bound by the substitution.



Substitution application. Two alternatives:

- 1. Implicit: Identifies two nodes connected with a substitution arc, without actually moving any of the subterm links.
- 2. Explicit: Expresses the substitution by moving any arc (subterm or substitution) pointing to a variable to point to a binding.

Example

A term dag for two terms f(x, g(a)) and f(g(y), g(y)), and for their mgu $\{x \mapsto g(a), y \mapsto a\}$:



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- With implicit application, the binding for a variable can be determined by traversing the graph depth first, left to right.
- Explicit application represents a substitution in a direct way.



Recursive Descent Algorithm (RDA) on Term Dags

Assumptions:

- Dags consist of nodes.
- Any node in a given dag defines a unique subdag (consisting of the nodes which can be reached from this node), and thus a unique subterm.
- Two different types of nodes: variable nodes and function nodes.
- Information at function nodes:
 - The name of the function symbol.
 - The arity *n* of this symbol.
 - The list (of length n) of successor nodes (corresponds to the argument list of the function)
- Both function and variable nodes may be equipped with one additional pointer (displayed as a dashed arrow in diagrams) to another node.



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▶ Find:

Takes a node of a dag as input, and follows the additional pointers until it reaches a node without such a pointer. This node is the output of Find.

Example





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Example

▶ Find(3)=(3)



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Example

Find(3)=(3)
Find(2)=

 $\begin{array}{c} f_{(1)} & f_{(4)} \\ \swarrow & \searrow & \swarrow \\ x_{(2)} & a_{(3)} & y_{(5)} \end{array}$



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Union:

Takes as input a pair of nodes u, v that do not have additional pointers and creates such a pointer from u to v.



▶ Occur:

Takes as input a variable node u and another node v (both without additional pointers) and performs the occur check, i.e. it tests whether the variable is contained in the term corresponding to v. The test is performed on the virtual term expressed by the additional pointer structure, i.e. one applies Find to all nodes that are reached during the test.

Example





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Takes as input a variable node u and another node v (both without additional pointers) and performs the occur check, i.e. it tests whether the variable is contained in the term corresponding to v. The test is performed on the virtual term expressed by the additional pointer structure, i.e. one applies Find to all nodes that are reached during the test.

Example

Occur(2,6)=False

 $f_{(1)}$ $t_{(5)}$ $g_{(6)}$ $g_{(3)}$ $g_{(7)}$ a(4) У<mark>(8</mark>)

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▶ Occur:

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Example

- Occur(2,6)=False
- Occur(2,7)=True

 $f_{(1)}$ $t_{(5)}$ $g_{(3)}$ $g_{(6)}$ $g_{(7)}$ X(2) $a_{(4)}$ Y(8)



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RDA on Term Dags

Input: A pair of nodes k₁ and k₂ in a dag
Output: *True* if the terms corresponding to k₁ and k₂ are unifiable. *False* Otherwise.
Side Effect: A pointer structure which allows to read off an may and the unified term

mgu and the unified term.

Unify1 (k_1, k_2) if $k_1 = k_2$ then return *True*; /* Trivial */ else if function-node (k_2) then $u := k_1; v := k_2$ else $u := k_2; v := k_1;$ /* Orient */ end

Procedure Unify1. Recursive descent algorithm on term dags. (Continues on the next slide)

Recursive Descent Algorithm on Term Dags

(Continues on the next slide)

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Recursive Descent Algorithm on Term Dags

else if function-symbol(u) \neq function-symbol(v) then

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else

n := arity(function-symbol(u)); $(u_1, \dots, u_n) := succ-list(u);$ $(v_1, \dots, v_n) := succ-list(v);$ i := 0; bool := True;

while i ≤ n and bool do
 i := i + 1; bool := Unify1(Find(u_i), Find(v_i));
 /* Decomposition */

end

return bool

return False:

 $\label{eq:procedure_unify1} \ensuremath{\text{Procedure}}\xspace \ensuremath{\text{Unify1}}\xspace. \\ \ensuremath{\text{Finished}}\xspace. \\ \ensuremath{\text{Finished}}\xspace. \\ \ensuremath{\text{Constraint}}\xspace \ensuremath{\math{\text{Constraint}}\xspace \ensuremath{\math{\math{\text{Constraint}}\xspace \ensuremath{\math{\math{\math{\text{Constraint}}\xspace \ensuremath{\math{$

- Unify f(x, g(a), g(z)) and f(g(y), g(y), x).
- First, create dags.
- Numbers indicate nodes.





Algorithm run starts with Unify1(1,7) and continues:



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Algorithm run starts with Unify1(1,7) and continues:

Unify1(Find(2), Find(8))



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Algorithm run starts with Unify1(1,7) and continues:

Unify1(Find(2), Find(8))
Find(2) = (2)
$$f_{(1)}$$

Find(8) = (8) \downarrow
Occur(2,8) = False $X_{(2)}$ $g_{(3)}$





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Algorithm run starts with Unify1(1,7) and continues:

```
Unify1(Find(2), Find(8))
  Find(2) = (2)
                                      f_{(1)}
                                                           t_{(7)}
  Find(8) = (8)
                                                  ⇒ g(8)
                               x_{(2)} - \bar{g}_{(3)}
  Occur(2,8) = False
                                           g_{(4)}
                                                           g_{(9)}
  Union(2,8)
Unify1(Find(3), Find(9))
                                     (a(5)
                                                       y_{(10)}
  Find(3) = (3)
  Find(9) = (9)
  Unify1(Find(5), Find(10))
    Find(5) = 5
    Find(10) = 10
    orient(10,5)
    Occur(10,5) = False
    Union(10,5)
```

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Algorithm run starts with Unify1(1,7) and continues:





Algorithm run starts with Unify1(1,7) and continues:

Unify1(Find(4),Find(2))





Algorithm run starts with Unify1(1,7) and continues:





Algorithm run starts with Unify1(1,7) and continues:

Unify1(Find(4), Find(2))
Find(4) = 4
Find(2) = 8

$$f_{(1)}$$
 $f_{(7)}$
 $x_{(2)}$ $g_{(3)}$ $g_{(4)}$ $g_{(8)}$ $g_{(9)}$
 \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow
 $a_{(5)}$ $z_{(6)}$ $y_{(10)}$



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Algorithm run starts with Unify1(1,7) and continues:







RDA on Term Dags. Example 1 (Cont.)



- From the final dag one can read off:
 - The unified term f(g(a), g(a), g(a)).
 - The mgu in triangular form $[x \mapsto g(y); y \mapsto a; z \mapsto a]$.
- The algorithm does not create new nodes. Only one extra pointer for each variable node.
- Needs linear space.
- Time is still exponential. See the next example.



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Consider again the problem:

$$s = h(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, f(y_0, y_0), f(y_1, y_1), \dots, f(y_{n-1}, y_{n-1}), y_n)$$

$$t = h(f(x_0, x_0), f(x_1, x_1), \dots, f(x_{n-1}, x_{n-1}), y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n, x_n)$$

A dag representation of the term bound to x_n and y_n :

$$\begin{array}{cccc} x_n & - \rightarrow f & f \leftarrow -y_n \\ & & & & \downarrow \end{pmatrix} & & & \downarrow \end{pmatrix} \\ x_{n-1} & \rightarrow f & f \leftarrow y_{n-1} \\ & & & & \\ x_1 & - \rightarrow f & f \leftarrow -y_1 \\ & & & \downarrow \end{pmatrix} \\ x_0 & & & y_0 \end{array}$$

Exponential number of recursive calls.



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Exponential number of recursive calls.



Consider again the problem:

$$s = h(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, f(y_0, y_0), f(y_1, y_1), \dots, f(y_{n-1}, y_{n-1}), y_n)$$

$$t = h(f(x_0, x_0), f(x_1, x_1), \dots, f(x_{n-1}, x_{n-1}), y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n, x_n)$$

A dag representation of the term bound to x_n and y_n :

$$\begin{array}{cccc} X_n \dashrightarrow f & f & \leftarrow & y_n \\ & & & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ X_{n-1} & \to f & f & \leftarrow & y_{n-1} \\ & & & \vdots & & \\ X_1 & \dashrightarrow f & f & \leftarrow & y_1 \\ & & & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ & & & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ & & & \chi_0 & \dashrightarrow & y_0 \end{array}$$

Exponential number of recursive calls.



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Exponential number of recursive calls.


RDA on Term Dags. Example 2

Consider again the problem:

$$s = h(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, f(y_0, y_0), f(y_1, y_1), \dots, f(y_{n-1}, y_{n-1}), y_n)$$

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$$() \qquad ()$$

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Exponential number of recursive calls.



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Correctness of RDA for Term Dags

Proof is similar as for the RDA. These two algorithm differ only by the data structure they operate on.



- Linear space: terms are not duplicated anymore.
- Exponential time: Calls Unify1 recursively exponentially often.



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- Linear space: terms are not duplicated anymore.
- Exponential time: Calls Unify1 recursively exponentially often.
- Fortunately, with an easy trick one can make the running time quadratic.
- Idea: Keep from revisiting already-solved problems in the graph.
- The algorithm of Corbin and Bidoit:
 - J. Corbin and M. Bidoit. A rehabilitation of Robinson's unification algorithm.
 In R. Mason, editor, *Information Processing 83*, pages 909–914. Elsevier Science, 1983.



Quadratic Algorithm on Term Dags

Input: A pair of nodes k₁ and k₂ in a dag
Output: *True* if the terms corresponding to k₁ and k₂ are unifiable. *False* Otherwise.
Side Effect: A pointer structure which allows to read off an

mgu and the unified term.

Unify2 (k_1, k_2) if $k_1 = k_2$ then return *True*; /* Trivial */ else if function-node (k_2) then $u := k_1; v := k_2$ else $u := k_2; v := k_1;$ /* Orient */ end

Procedure Unify2. Quadratic Algorithm. (No difference from Unify1 so far. Continues on the next slide)



Quadratic Algorithm

Procedure Unify2. Quadratic Algorithm. Continued. (No difference from Unify1 so far. Continues on the next slide)



Quadratic Algorithm

return False:

else if function-symbol(u) \neq function-symbol(v) then

```
/* Symbol clash */
```

else

 $\begin{array}{l} n := arity(function-symbol(u));\\ (u_1, \ldots, u_n) := succ-list(u);\\ (v_1, \ldots, v_n) := succ-list(v);\\ i := 0; \ bool := True; \end{array}$

Union(**u,v**);

while $i \leq n$ and bool do

i := i + 1; **bool** := Unify2(Find(u_i), Find(v_i));

/* Decomposition */

end

return bool

Procedure Unify2. Quadratic Algorithm. Finished. (The only difference from Unify1 is Union(u,v).)



$$\begin{array}{cccc} X_n & - \rightarrow f & f \leftarrow - y_n \\ & & & & \downarrow \end{pmatrix} \\ X_{n-1} & \rightarrow f & f \leftarrow - y_{n-1} \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ X_1 & - \rightarrow f & f \leftarrow - y_1 \\ & & & & \downarrow \end{pmatrix} \\ X_0 & & & y_0 \end{array}$$



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$$\begin{array}{c} X_n \dashrightarrow f \dashrightarrow f \longleftarrow f \longleftarrow y_n \\ () () () \\ X_{n-1} \dashrightarrow f f \longleftarrow y_{n-1} \\ \vdots \\ X_1 \dashrightarrow f f \longleftarrow y_{n-1} \\ () () \\ X_1 \longleftarrow y_n \end{array}$$



The same example that revealed exponential behavior of RDA:

$$X_{n} \xrightarrow{- \rightarrow} f \xrightarrow{- \rightarrow} f \xleftarrow{- \gamma_{n}} f \xrightarrow{(\gamma)} y_{n-1}$$

$$X_{n-1} \xrightarrow{- \gamma} f \qquad f \xleftarrow{- \gamma_{n-1}} f \xrightarrow{(\gamma)} y_{n-1}$$

$$X_{1} \xrightarrow{(\gamma)} f \qquad f \xleftarrow{- \gamma_{1}} f \xrightarrow{(\gamma)} y_{n-1}$$

$$(\gamma) \qquad (\gamma)$$

$$X_{0} \qquad (\gamma)$$

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$$X_{n} \xrightarrow{-} f \xrightarrow{-} f \xrightarrow{-} y_{n}$$

$$(\downarrow) \qquad (\downarrow)$$

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$$X_{n} \longrightarrow f \longrightarrow f \longleftarrow y_{n}$$

$$(\downarrow) \qquad (\downarrow)$$

$$X_{n-1} \longrightarrow f \longrightarrow f \longleftarrow y_{n-1}$$

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$$X_{n} \longrightarrow f \longrightarrow f \longleftarrow y_{n}$$

$$\langle \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow$$

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$$(\downarrow) \qquad (\downarrow)$$

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$$(\downarrow) \qquad (\downarrow)$$

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Properties of the Quadratic Algorithm

- Correctness can be shown in the similar way as for the RDA.
- The algorithm is quadratic in the number of symbols in original terms:
 - Each call of Unify2 either returns immediately, or makes one more node unreachable for the Find operation.
 - Therefore, there can be only linearly many calls of Unify2.
 - Quadratic complexity comes from the fact that Occur and Find operations are linear.

How to eliminate two sources of nonlinearity of Unify2?

- Occur: Just omit the occur check during the execution of the algorithm.
 - Consequence: The data structure may contain cycles.
 - Since the occur-check failures are not detected immediately, at the end an extra check has to be performed to find out whether the generated structure is cyclic or not.
 - Detecting cycles in a directed graph can be done by linear search.
- Find: Use more efficient union-find algorithm from
 - 🔋 R. Tarjan.

Efficiency of a good but not linear set union algorithm.

J. ACM, 22(2):215–225, 1975.



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Collapsing-find:

- Like Find it takes a node k of a dag as input, and follows the additional pointers until the node Find(k) is reached.
- In addition, Collapsing-find relocates the pointer of all the nodes reached during this process to Find(k).

Example





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Example

CF(3)=(3)
CF(2)= (3)

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
f_{(1)} & f_{(4)} \\
\swarrow & & & & \\
x_{(2)} & a_{(3)} & y_{(5)} \\
& & & & \\
\end{array}$$



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Union-with-weight:

- Takes as input a pair of nodes u, v that do not have additional pointers.
- If the set {k | Find(k) = u} is larger than the set {k | Find(k) = v} then it creates an additional pointer from v to u.
- Otherwise, it creates an additional pointer from u to v.

Weighted union does not apply when we have a variable node and a function node.



One more auxiliary procedure:

- Not-cyclic:
 - Takes a node k as input, and tests the graph which can be reached from k for cycles.
 - The test is performed on the virtual graph expressed by the additional pointer structure, i.e. one first applies Collapsing-find to all nodes that are reached during the test.



Input: A pair of nodes k_1 and k_2 in a directed graph. **Output**: *True* if k_1 and k_2 correspond unifiable terms. *False* Otherwise.

Side Effect: A pointer structure which allows to read off an mgu and the unified term.

```
Unify3 (k<sub>1</sub>, k<sub>2</sub>)
if Cyclic-unify(k<sub>1</sub>, k<sub>2</sub>) and Not-cyclic(k<sub>1</sub>) then
return True
else
return False
end
```

Procedure Unify3. Almost Linear Algorithm. (Continues on the next slide)



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Cyclic-unify
$$(k_1, k_2)$$

if $k_1 = k_2$ then return *True*; /* Trivial */
else
if function-node (k_2) then
 $u := k_1; v := k_2$
else
 $u := k_2; v := k_1;$ /* Orient */
end

Procedure Cyclic-unify. (Continues on the next slide)

if variable-node(u) then if variable-node(v) then Union-with-weight(u, v) else Union(u, v); /* No occur-check. Variable elimination */ return True end

Procedure Cyclic-unify. (Continues on the next slide)


Almost Linear Algorithm

else if function-symbol(u) \neq function-symbol(v) then

```
return False:
                                            / * Symbol clash */
else
   n := arity(function-symbol(u));
   (u_1,\ldots,u_n) := succ-list(u);
   (v_1,\ldots,v_n) := succ-list(v);
   i := 0: bool := True:
   Union-with-weight (U,V);
   while i < n and bool do
      i := i + 1:
      bool := Cyclic-unify(Collapsing-find(u_i)
               Collapsing-find(V_i); /* Decomposition */
```

end

return bool

Procedure Cyclic-unify. Finished.



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The algorithm is very similar to the one described in Gerard Huet's thesis:

 G. Huet. Résolution d'Équations dans des Langages d'ordre 1, 2, ..., ω.
 Thèse d'État, Université de Paris VII, 1976.



The algorithm is almost linear in the number of symbols in original terms:



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 - A sequence of *n* Collapsing-find and Union-with-weight operations can be done in $O(n * \alpha(n))$ time, where α is an extremely slowly growing function (functional inverse of Ackerman's function) never exceeding 5 for practical input.



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 - The use of nonoptimal Union can increase the time complexity at most by a summand O(m) where m is the number of different variable nodes.
 - Therefore, complexity of Cyclic-unify is O(n * α(n)).
 - Complexity of Not-cyclic is linear.
 - Hence, complexity of Unify3 is O(n * α(n)).



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Summary of Unification Algorithms

- Recursive Descent Algorithm for unification is exponential in time and space.
- Using term dags reduces space complexity to linear.
- Making the union pointer between function nodes before unifying their arguments reduces time complexity to quadratic.

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Using collapsing-find and union-with-weight further reduces time complexity to almost linear.

Application Example

Theorem Proving

- Robinson's unification algorithm was introduced in the context of theorem proving.
- Unification: Computational mechanism behind the resolution inference rule.



Resolution for first-order clauses:

$$\frac{A_1 \vee B}{B\sigma \vee C\sigma} \neg A_2 \vee C,$$

where $\sigma = mgu(A_1, A_2)$.



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For instance, from the two sentences

- Every number is less than its successor.
- If y is less than x then y is less than the successor of x.

one concludes that

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How?

Let's write the sentences as logical formulas.



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- Let's write the sentences as logical formulas.
- ► Every number is less than its successor: $\forall x \text{ number}(x) \Rightarrow \text{less_than}(x, s(x))$
- ► If y is less than x then y is less than the successor of x: $\forall y \forall x \text{ less_than}(y, x) \Rightarrow \text{less_than}(y, s(x))$



- Let's write the sentences as logical formulas.
- ► Every number is less than its successor: $\forall x \text{ number}(x) \Rightarrow \text{less_than}(x, s(x))$
- ► If y is less than x then y is less than the successor of x: $\forall y \forall x \text{ less_than}(y, x) \Rightarrow \text{less_than}(y, s(x))$
- Write these formulas in disjunctive form and strip off the quantifiers:

 \neg number(x) \lor less_than(x, s(x))

 \neg less_than(y, x) \lor less_than(y, s(x))



Prepare for the resolution step. Make the clauses variable disjoint:

 \neg number(x) \lor less_than(x, s(x))

 \neg *less_than*(y, x') \lor *less_than*(y, s(x'))



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► Unify *less_than*(x, s(x)) and *less_than*(y, x'). The mgu $\sigma = \{x \mapsto y, x' \mapsto s(y)\}$

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► Perform the resolution step and obtain the resolvent: ¬number(y) ∨ less_than(y, s(s(y))).

- Prepare for the resolution step. Make the clauses variable disjoint:
 - \neg number(x) \lor less_than(x, s(x))
 - \neg *less_than*(y, x') \lor *less_than*(y, s(x'))
- Unify *less_than*(x, s(x)) and *less_than*(y, x'). The mgu $\sigma = \{x \mapsto y, x' \mapsto s(y)\}$
- ► Perform the resolution step and obtain the resolvent: ¬number(y) ∨ less_than(y, s(s(y))).
- What would go wrong if we did not make the clauses variable disjoint?



Factoring

Another rule in resolution calculus that requires unification.Factoring

$$\frac{A_1 \lor A_2 \lor C}{A_1 \sigma \lor C \sigma}$$

where $\sigma = mgu(A_1, A_2)$.



Given:

- ► If *y* is less than *x* then *y* is less than the successor of *x*.
- If x is not less than a successor of some y, than 0 is less than x.

(日)

Prove:

0 is less than its successor.

Translating into formulas.

Given:

- ▶ \neg less_than(y, x) \lor less_than(y, s(x)).
- less_than(x, s(y)) \lor less_than(0, x).

Prove:

less_than(0, s(0))



Negate the goal and try to derive the contradiction:

- 1. \neg *less_than*(y, x) \lor *less_than*(y, s(x)).
- 2. $less_than(x, s(y)) \lor less_than(0, x)$.
- 3. $\neg less_than(0, s(0))$.

Negate the goal and try to derive the contradiction:

- 1. \neg less_than(y, x) \lor less_than(y, s(x)).
- 2. $less_than(x, s(y)) \lor less_than(0, x)$.
- 3. $\neg less_than(0, s(0)).$
- 4. *less_than*(0, *s*(*x*)) \lor *less_than*(*x*, *s*(*y*)), (Resolvent of the renamed copy of 1 \neg *less_than*(*y'*, *x'*) \lor *less_than*(*y'*, *s*(*x'*)) and 2, obtained by unifying *less_than*(*y'*, *x'*) and *less_than*(0, *x*) with {*y'* \mapsto 0, *x'* \mapsto *x*}.

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Negate the goal and try to derive the contradiction:

- 1. \neg less_than(y, x) \lor less_than(y, s(x)).
- 2. $less_than(x, s(y)) \lor less_than(0, x)$.
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- 5. *less_than*(0, s(0)) (Factor of 4 with { $x \mapsto 0, y \mapsto 0$ }



Negate the goal and try to derive the contradiction:

- 1. \neg less_than(y, x) \lor less_than(y, s(x)).
- 2. $less_than(x, s(y)) \lor less_than(0, x)$.
- 3. $\neg less_than(0, s(0))$.
- 4. *less_than*(0, *s*(*x*)) \lor *less_than*(*x*, *s*(*y*)), (Resolvent of the renamed copy of 1 \neg *less_than*(*y'*, *x'*) \lor *less_than*(*y'*, *s*(*x'*)) and 2, obtained by unifying *less_than*(*y'*, *x'*) and *less_than*(0, *x*) with {*y'* \mapsto 0, *x'* \mapsto *x*}.
- 5. *less_than*(0, s(0)) (Factor of 4 with { $x \mapsto 0, y \mapsto 0$ }
- 6. 🗆

(Contradiction, resolvent of 3 and 5).



Application Example

Logic Programming:

Logic programs consist of (nonnegative) clauses, written:

$$A \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_n,$$

where $n \ge 0$ and A, B_i are atoms.

- Example:
 - ► likes(john, X) ← likes(X, wine). John likes everybody who likes wine.
 - likes(john, wine).
 John likes wine.
 - likes(mary, wine).
 Marry likes wine.



Logic Programming

Goals are negative clauses, written

$$\leftarrow D_1, \ldots, D_m$$

where $m \ge 0$.

Example:

- ► ← likes(john, X). Who (or what) does John like?
- ► ← likes(X, marry), likes(X, wine). Who likes both marry and wine?
- $\leftarrow likes(john, X), likes(Y, X).$ Find such X and Y that both John and Y like X.



Logic Programming

Inference step:

$$\frac{\leftarrow D_1, \dots, D_m}{\leftarrow D_1 \sigma, \dots, D_{i-1} \sigma, B_1 \sigma, \dots, B_n \sigma, D_{i+1} \sigma, \dots, D_m \sigma}$$

where $\sigma = mgu(D_i, A)$ for (a renamed copy of) some program clause $A \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_n$.



Logic Programming

Example Program:

likes(*john*, X) \leftarrow *likes*(X, *wine*). *likes*(*john*, *wine*). *likes*(*mary*, *wine*).

Goal:

$$\leftarrow \textit{likes}(X, \textit{marry}), \textit{likes}(X, \textit{wine}).$$

Inference:

- ► Unifying *likes*(*X*,*marry*) with *likes*(*john*,*X'*) gives $\{X \mapsto john, X' \mapsto marry\}$
- ▶ New goal: ← *likes(marry, wine), likes(john, marry)*.



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Prolog

- Prolog: Most popular logic programming language.
- Unification in Prolog is nonstandard: Omits occur-check.
- ► Result: Prolog unifies terms x and f(x), using the substitution {x → f(f(f(...)))}.
- Because of that, sometimes Prolog might draw conclusions the user does not expect:

```
less(X, s(X)).
foo : -less(s(Y), Y).
? - foo.
yes.
```

 Infinite terms in a theoretical model for real Prolog implementations.



The RTA list of open problems contains several ones related to unification:

http://www.lsv.ens-cachan.fr/rtaloop/

