

Planning in prolog

- **Blocks on a table**

- Initial state:

on(a, table).

on(b, c).

on(c, table).

- Our program will modify on/2, so make it dynamic:

:- dynamic on/2.

- Put one block on top of another (or the table):

put_on(A,B) :-

 A \== table,

 % Check that everything is ok.

 A \== B,

 on(A,X),

 clear(A),

 clear(B),

 retract(on(A,X)),

 % Modify the state.

 assert(on(A,B)),

 assert(move(A,X,B)).

 % Keep a record.

- What does it mean for a block or the table to be clear?

clear(table).

clear(B) :-

 not(on(_X,B)).

- We can now move blocks around:

?- put_on(a, b).

Yes

?- listing(on).

on(b, c).

on(c, table).

on(a, b).

?- put_on(a, c).

No

?- put_on(b, table).

No

?- put_on(a, table).

Yes

?- put_on(b, a).

Yes

- **Planning more advanced movements**

- Recursive movement of blocks:

r_put_on(A,B) :-

 on(A,B).

 % Base case: Already done.

r_put_on(A,B) :-

 not(on(A,B)),

 A \== table,

 A \== B,

 clear_off(A),

 % Fails if we cannot clear off A.

```

clear_off(B),
on(A,X),
retract(on(A,X)),
assert(on(A,B)),
assert(move(A,X,B)).

```

- Clearing off to make room:

```

clear_off(table).           % There is always room on the table.
clear_off(A) :-
    not(on(_X,A)).         % Already clear.
clear_off(A) :-
    A \== table,
    on(X,A),
    clear_off(X),          % Recursively clear off the block above.
    retract(on(X,A)),
    assert(on(X,table)),
    assert(move(X,A,table)).

```

- We can now move anything:

```

?- listing(on).
on(a, table).
on(b, c).
on(c, table).
Yes
?- r_put_on(c, a).
Yes
?- listing(on).
on(a, table).
on(b, table).
on(c, a).

```

How does it work?

- **Example program: A binary relation and its closure (G&J 8.2.2)**

```

rel(a, b).
rel(a, c).
rel(b, f).
rel(f, g).
clos(X, Y) :- rel(X, Y).
clos(X, Y) :- rel(X, Z), clos(Z, Y)

```

- **Example query: ?- clos(a, f).**

- Find facts and rules that "fit" the goal clos(a, f).
- Does clos(X, Y) "fit"?
 - Yes, because we can substitute the constant a for the variable X and the constant f for the variable Y.
- Can replace clos(a, f) with rel(a, Z), clos(Z, f).
- Then what?
- rel(a, Z) matches rel(a, b).
- We now have rel(a, b), clos(b, f).
- The first clause, rel(a, b). is a fact.

- The second clause matches $\text{rel}(b, f)$.
- $\text{rel}(b, f)$ is a fact.
- So the answer is yes.
- **Several other computations are possible also**
 - Some fail, some don't terminate.
 - See figure 8.6 in G&J (see slides)
- **Also possible with several succeeding computations.**
 - $\text{clos}(a, X)$ (try it!)
 - Several succeeding computations.
- **Search tree**
 - See figure 8.6 in G&J (see slides)
 - Backtracking: When a computation fails (or when the used does not accept an answer).
 - How do we search the tree—depth first or breadth first?
 - Depth first may enter nonterminating computation.
 - Sound but not complete.
 - Breadth first is complete and sound.
 - Prolog uses depth first; some other languages use breadth first.
 - Can we get a "no" answer if the tree is infinite? No.

Unification

- **Motivation**
 - We informally talked about a clause "matching" or "fitting" another clause.
 - Will now look at the matching in more detail.
- **Relationships to other things we've seen**
 - Generalization of a function call
 - Function call: Formal parameters are unbound, but become bound to the values of the actual parameters when the function is called.
 - Unification: Unbound names in both clauses can become bound.
 - Combined pattern matching and binding of variables.
 - Similar to pattern matching in Haskell.
- **Define t_1 and t_2**
 - t_1 : goal to prove
 - t_2 : fact or rule's head with which match is tried
- **" t_1 is more general than t_2 "**
 - There exists a substitution μ s.t. $t_2 = \mu(t_1)$
 - There does not exist a substitution π s.t. $t_1 = \pi(t_2)$
 - Example: $f(X, Y)$ is more general than $f(a, Y)$
 - $\mu = \{ \langle X, a \rangle \}$
 - "Substitute a for X ."
 - Can only substitute for variables, not for constants.
- **" t_1 and t_2 are variants"**
 - There exist substitutions μ and π s.t. $\mu(t_1) = t_2$ and $\pi(t_2) = t_1$

- Example: $f(X, Y)$ and $f(Z, W)$ are variants.
 - $\mu = \{ \langle X, Z \rangle, \langle Y, W \rangle \}$
 - $\pi = \{ \langle Z, X \rangle, \langle W, Y \rangle \}$
- **"t1 and t2 unify"**
 - Two terms unify if a substitution can be found that makes them equal.
- **" μ is a unifier"**
 - A substitution that makes two terms unify is called a unifier.
 - Example:
 - $s1 = \{ \langle X, a \rangle, \langle Y, c \rangle, \langle Z, b \rangle, \langle W, c \rangle \}$
is a unifier for $f(X, b, Y)$ and $f(a, Z, W)$
 - $s1(f(X, b, Y)) = f(a, b, c)$
 - $s1(f(a, Z, W)) = f(a, b, c)$
- **" μ is the most general unifier (MGU)"**
 - μ is the most general unifier (MGU) of $t1$ and $t2$ if $\mu(t1) = \mu(t2)$ is the most general instance of both $t1$ and $t2$.
 - "most general instance" means that no other instance is more general
 - Example:
 - $s2 = \{ \langle X, a \rangle, \langle Y, T \rangle, \langle Z, b \rangle, \langle W, T \rangle \}$
is the MGU for $f(X, b, Y)$ and $f(a, Z, W)$.
- **Unification algorithm**
 - Figure 8.3 in G&J (or see slides)