Introduction to Unification Theory Applications

Temur Kutsia

RISC, Johannes Kepler University of Linz, Austria kutsia@risc.uni-linz.ac.at





Programming

Program Transformation

Computational Linguistics





Programming

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Computational Linguistics



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



- Resolution is a rule of logical inference that allows one from "A or B" and "not-A or C" to conclude that "B or C".
- Logically

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- For instance, from the two sentences
 - it rains or it is sunny,
 - it does not rain or trees are wet (this is the same as if it rains then trees are wet)

one concludes that

- it is sunny or trees are wet.
- Just take A for it rains, B for it is sunny, and C for trees are wet.



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

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How?

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- ► 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 formulae 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:

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

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- ► 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

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

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.

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Prove:

0 is less than its successor.

Translating into formulae.

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. $\neg less_than(0, s(0))$.

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- 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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(Contradiction, resolvent of 3 and 5).





Programming

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- Unification plays a crucial role in logic programming.
- Used to perform execution steps.



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.



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.



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



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.



Higher-Order Logic Programming Example

A λ -Prolog program:

(age bob 24). (age sue 23). (age ned 23). (mappred P nil nil). (mappred P (X::L) (Y::K)):- (P X Y), (mappred P L K).

mappred maps the predicate P on the lists (X::L) and (Y::K).



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mappred maps the predicate P on the lists (X::L) and (Y::K).

The goal (mappred x\y\(age x y) L (23::24::nil)) returns two answers:

L = (sue::bob::nil) L = (ned::bob::nil)



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Higher-Order Logic Programming

Example (Cont.)

 On the previous slide, the goal was unified with the head of the (copy of) second mappred clause by the substitution

 $\{P \mapsto x \setminus y \setminus (age \ x \ y), L \mapsto (X :: L'), Y \mapsto 23, K \mapsto (24 :: nil)\}$

x y (age x y) is the λ -Prolog notation for $\lambda x \cdot \lambda y \cdot (age x y)$.

It made the new goal

(age X 23), (mappred x y (age x y) L' (24::nil)).

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etc.

Higher-Order Logic Programming

- The fragment of higher-order unification used in λ-prolog is unification for higher-order patterns.
- Higher-order pattern is a λ-term where arguments of free variables are distinct bound variables.

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Higher-order pattern unification is unitary.

Programming in Mathematica

- Mathematica is a symbolic computation system, a product of Wolfram Research, Inc.
- It comes with a rule based programming language.
- An example of Mathematica code to compute factorial:

```
\begin{split} f[0] &:= 1 \\ f[n_] &:= n * f[n-1]/; n > 0 \end{split}
```

- ► To compute f[5], it first tries to match 0 with 5, which fails.
- Next, n matches 5 with the substitution n → 5, the condition 5 > 0 is satisfied and the next goal becomes 5*f[4].
- n_ indicates that n is a variable that can match an expression.
- Matching is a special case of unification: s =? t is a matching problem if t is ground.



Programming in Mathematica

- Mathematica has a special kind of variable, called sequence variable.
- Sequence variables can be instantiated by finite sequences.
- Convenient to write short, elegant programs.
- Unification with sequence variables is decidable and infinitary, matching is finitary.

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Programming in Mathematica

An example of Mathematica code for bubble sort:

$$\label{eq:sort} \begin{split} & \text{sort}[\{x__,u_,y__,v_,z__\}] := \text{sort}[\{x,v,y,u,z\}]/; u > v \\ & \text{sort}[\{x__\}] := \{x\} \end{split}$$

- x____ indicates that x is a sequence variable.
- ▶ sort[{x___, u_, y___, v_, z___}] matches sort[{1, 2, 3, 4, 1}] in various ways.
- The one that satisfies the condition u > v is

$$\{x \mapsto 1, u \mapsto 2, y \mapsto (3, 4), v \mapsto 1, z \mapsto ()\}$$

▶ The next goal becomes sort[{1,1,3,4,2}], and so on.





Theorem Proving

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Program Transformation

- Program transformation is the act of changing one program into another.
- Some techniques describe transformation as rewriting systems for program schemas, together with constraints on the instances of the schemas that must be met in order for the transformation to be valid.
- When a rewriting rule is applied to a particular program, the schema in the left hand side of the rule should match the program.
- Usually schemas are expressed in a higher-order language.
- Leads to higher-order matching.



Program Transformation

Example (Schema Matching)

► Schema:

 $F(x) \leftarrow$ if A(x) then B(x) else H(D(x), F(E(x))).

Instance program:

$$fact(x) \leftarrow if x = 0$$
 then 1 else $x * fact(x - 1)$

The schema matches the instance with the substitution:

$$\{F \mapsto \lambda x. fact(x), A \mapsto \lambda x. x = 0, B \mapsto \lambda x. 1, \\ H \mapsto \lambda x. \lambda y. x * y, D \mapsto \lambda x. x, E \mapsto \lambda x. x - 1\}$$



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Program Transformation

Example (Schema Matching)

The same schema, different instance.

Schema:

$$F(x) \leftarrow \text{ if } A(x) \text{ then } B(x) \text{ else } H(D(x), F(E(x)))$$

Instance:

 $rev(x) \leftarrow if Null(x)$ then x else app(rev(Cdr(x)), Cons(Car(x), nil))

Matching substitution:

$$\{F \mapsto \lambda x.\operatorname{rev}(x), A \mapsto \lambda x.\operatorname{Null}(x), B \mapsto \lambda x.x, \\ H \mapsto \lambda x.\lambda y.\operatorname{app}(y, x), D \mapsto \lambda x.\operatorname{Cons}(\operatorname{Car}(x), \operatorname{nil}), \\ E \mapsto \lambda x.\operatorname{Cdr}(x)\}$$



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- An elliptical construction involves two phrases (clauses) that are parallel in structure in some sense.
- The source clause is complete.
- The target clause is missing material found in the source.
- Goal: To recover the property of the parallel element in the target the missing material stands for.



Example

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Find P such that
$$P(dan) \doteq$$
? *like*(dan, golf).

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- ► To interpret "George does too", we require the property *P* such that, when applied to the interpretation of the subject of "Dan likes golf", i.e. *dan*, gives the interpretation of "Dan likes golf".
- Find *P* such that $P(dan) \doteq$? *like*(<u>dan</u>, golf).
- $\sigma_1 = \{ P \mapsto \lambda x. like(\underline{dan}, golf) \}, \sigma_2 = \{ P \mapsto \lambda x. like(x, golf) \}.$

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- Interpretation: like(dan, golf) ∧ P(george) σ₂ that gives like(dan, golf) ∧ like(george, golf).



Higher-order unification generates multiple solutions.

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- Leads to multiple readings.
- Constraints help to filter out some.
- Still, several may remain.
- Strict and sloppy reading.

Example

Dan likes his wife, and George does too.



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- Strict reading: $P(george)\sigma_3 = like(george, wife-of(dan))$.



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- Sloppy reading: $P(george)\sigma_4 = like(george, wife-of(george))$.



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First-order syntactic unification

First-order equational unification

Higher-order unification

Applications related to logic, language, and information



- First-order syntactic unification
 - Most general unifier.
 - Unification algorithm.
 - Improvements of the algorithm.
- First-order equational unification

Higher-order unification

Applications related to logic, language, and information



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 - Most general unifier.
 - Unification algorithm.
 - Improvements of the algorithm.
- First-order equational unification
 - Minimal complete set of unifiers.
 - Decidability/Undecadibility, Unification type.
 - Results for particular theories.
 - Universal E-unification procedure.
 - Narrowing.
- Higher-order unification

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 - Unification type (zero).
 - Preunification procedure.
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- Higher-order unification
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 - Unification type (zero).
 - Preunification procedure.
- Applications related to logic, language, and information
 - Theorem proving.
 - Programming, program transformation.
 - Ellipsis resolution.



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Open Problems

Some open problems in unification theory:

- Is there an equational theory for which unification with constants is decidable, but general unification is undecidable? (Baader and Schulz, 1992).
- Is unification of patterns decidable for equational theories whose axioms have the same set of variables on left and right hand side? (Jouannaud, 1994).
- Are context unification and linear second order unification decidable? (Comon, 1991, Schmidt-Schauß, 1994, Levy, 1996).
- What is the exact complexity of word unification? (Schulz, 1998).

The RTA list of open problems:

http://rtaloop.pps.jussieu.fr/

