TRANSLATING HORN CLAUSES FROM ENGLISH

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ABSTRACT

This work introduces a small grammar which translates a subset of English into Horn Clauses. The parallel between the syntactic structures of sentences and corresponding literals of their Procedural Logic representation facilitates the translation. An interpreter is also described which accepts English descriptions of problem solving methods and facts about an example domain, the Blocks World. The interpreter translates them into Horn Clauses by using the grammar, and interprets them as programs and data. It also carries out commands on data by using the programs, and answers queries about data. In addition, it provides a mechanism called "Consistency Rules" which maintains integrity of the database. This experiments shows that Procedural Logic provides a unified system to accomplish a wide variety of computations, and that a small grammar without any semantic or domain-specific knowledge can translate a small subset of English sentences into Horn Clauses. Further researches on several other domains are suggested to evaluate the usefulness of this translation.
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Chapter 1

Introduction

One of the merits of Procedural Logic as a programming language is that it is similar to one convenient form of human reasoning. Based on the theory of Clausal Logic which is a branch of logic, it can represent logical reasoning in a concise and self-explanatory way. The parallelism between the clauses of procedural logic programs and some English sentences also eases the process of converting English sentences to clauses or vice versa by using the computer. This thesis is a study of the process of converting English to Procedural Logic.

This introductory chapter explains several aspects of Procedural Logic, and discusses its parallelism with English sentences.

1.1 Procedural Logic as a Programming Language

Since the early 1970's when Procedural Logic was conceived as a programming tool [Colmerauer 78], it has been used as a major programming tool in AI research. In his book [Kowalski 79], Kowalski discussed several advantages of Procedural Logic as a programming language over the other formal languages. The advantages can be summarized as follows.

- It is very high level and human oriented. The top-down search of state space representation of a problem using Procedural Logic is one of the ways a person solves it.

- It provides a uniform representation for several different tasks such as data storage, queries, and integrity constraints in databases.

- It has the full power of standard logic and any representation of a logical statement has its counterpart in Procedural Logic.
Even though historically the disadvantage of Procedural Logic was said to lie in its slow speed in execution, current technology provides us with a powerful PROLOG compiler which can generate code with the efficiency of LISP [Warren 77]. There are several programming languages which are based on Procedural Logic such as PROLOG, QLOG, HCPRVR\textsuperscript{1}, and LOGLISP.

The syntax and semantics of those languages are principally based on Clausal Logic. The basic unit for programming in those languages is a Horn Clause which has the following form.

$$(C \ D^\star H_1 H_2 \ldots H_n) \text{ where } n=0,1,\ldots$$

**D is a delimiters and any symbol can be used.**

In this paper, $<$, IF, and TEMP are used as D.

D can be omitted if $n=0$.

The semantics of this Horn Clause is that the truth value of $C$(Conclusion) is true if all of $H_i$(Hypotheses) are true. Therefore, if $n=0$, $C$ is always true. Such a Horn Clause is called an assertion. If $n$ is greater than 0, it is called a rule. $C$ and $H_i$ are called literals and each literal may be a variable, or a list of a predicate name and any number (possibly 0) of arguments. Each argument may be a variable, a constant, or a literal. The quantifiers of variables are entirely omitted, and follow the convention that the variables in $C$ (or $C$ and $H_i$ both) are universally quantified, and those which are only in $H_i$ are existentially quantified\textsuperscript{2}.

Figure 1-1 is an example of a procedural logic program which consists of two clauses. MEMBER is a predicate name and (MEMBER X (X . Z)), (MEMBER X (Y . Z)), and (MEMBER X Z) are examples of literals. The variables, X, Y, and Z are all universally quantified.

\textsuperscript{1}HCPRVR is the acronym of \textit{Horn Clauses PRoVeR} which has been developed in the University of Texas at Austin by Daniel Chester [Chester 80]. All the procedural logic programs in this work run in HCPRVR, and other LISP functions are written in ELISP.

\textsuperscript{2}Further explanations of the Horn Clause can be found in [Simmons 84a] [Kowalski 79]
Figure 1-1: Procedural Logic Program for MEMBER

The mechanism of using a procedural logic program is to prove the given task (called a theorem) by using the assertions and the rules. The task of proving a theorem in HCPVR is achieved by tracing the subgoals. When a goal (a theorem to be proved) is given, HCPVR tries to find an assertion or a rule whose conclusion can be matched with the theorem. If it finds a rule, it tries to prove the hypotheses or the subgoals of the rule. If it can prove all of the subgoals, the theorem is proved. If it finds that the theorem matches an assertion, the theorem is proved. Otherwise, it will seek another assertion or another rule. If it fails to find any rule or assertion whose conclusion is matched with the theorem and whose hypotheses are all proved, the theorem is false. This mechanism works recursively for subgoals, and when there is another option to make another set of subgoals and the current subgoals cannot be proved, the backtracking mechanism is used. And, when two literals are compared, the Unification Algorithm is used.

For example, if we want to use the program of Figure 1-1 to check whether A is a member of the list (B A C D), we will ask HCPVR to prove the theorem, (MEMBER A (B A C D)). At the first round, HCPVR fails to match the theorem with the first clause(assertion), but succeeds with the second clause(rule). The match will generate a subgoal, (MEMBER A (A C D)), and it will be proved by the first clause at the second round. Because there is a proof for the theorem, (MEMBER A (B A C D)), the theorem is true and the desired task has been successfully achieved.

Also, in HCPVR, we can call any LISP function. If the function call returns NIL, it fails. Otherwise, it is proved.
1.2 Parallelism between English and Procedural Logic

In Figure 1-1, we easily read the program. An English description of the program, which is natural and easy to understand, is as below.

X is a member of the list (X . Z).
X is a member of the list (Y . Z)
if X is a member of the list Z.

In this example, there is an apparent parallelism between the program and the English sentences which describe it. This shows not only that the program is very high level and self-explanatory, but also that it is easy to convert some English description of a problem-solving method to a procedural logic program, and vice versa. Figure 1-2 shows other examples of the parallelism between some simple English sentences and the corresponding literals in one of possible Horn Clause representations of them.

The block is above the table.  (ABOVE* (BLOCK DET THE)
                                (TABLE DET THE))
The block is on the table.  (ON* (BLOCK DET THE)
                                (TABLE DET THE))
The block is clear.  (CLEAR* (BLOCK DET THE))
The block is supportable.  (SUPPORTABLE* (BLOCK DET THE))
Pick up the block.  (PICKUP (BLOCK DET THE))
Put the block down.  (PUTDOWN (BLOCK DET THE))

**Figure 1-2:** Parallelism between English sentences and Literals

In those examples, we can see the parallel between the syntactic structures of sentences and corresponding literals of their Procedural Logic representations. This suggests the study of a mechanical translation from English to Procedural Logic or vice versa for possible applications in natural language programming and automatic documentation procedures.
It is important to notice that the parallelism exists between the syntactic structures of the source language, English, and the object language, Procedural Logic. Because of this, we can make the translation procedures simple without any semantic or domain-specific knowledge.

1.3 Motivations and Goals

This work, motivated by the parallelism which was shown in the previous section, is about one direction of the translations: the translation from English to Procedural Logic. Since Procedural Logic has already been proved to be useful in several domains, we can use English in those domains if we can translate English sentences into Procedural Logic.

But the main objective is not to translate every English sentence into Horn Clauses, because there are many English sentences which are hard or impossible to translate only with the analysis of syntactic structures. As a matter of fact, we can translate only a small set of English sentences into Procedural Logic and can make programs only from careful descriptions of problem-solving methods. Therefore, the main objectives in the research on the translation of English to Procedural Logic are to study the following:

- The characteristics of the translation procedure.
- The characteristics of the subset of the English sentences which can be translated into Procedural Logic.
- The characteristics of domains in which we can use the translation to facilitate communication with computers.

This work is one of a series of preliminary experimental works which are on the way to accomplish those objectives ultimately. Two previous works, [Wang 83] and [Simmons 84b], made experiments over two tiny domains with simple subsets of English sentences. This work investigates a more complex domain, the Blocks World, with an extended set of English sentences. First, it presents a small grammar which can translate a subset of English into Horn Clauses. Later, we will present an interpreter which will accept English descriptions of a Blocks World and some problem-solving methods in the Blocks
World, translate them into Procedural Logic by using the small grammar, and interpret them as programs and data which are stored in its database. As was mentioned earlier, Procedural Logic provides a uniform way to deal with several database and programming tasks. And, because of the close correspondence of Procedural Logic and natural language, we can communicate with the interpreter solely in English which will be translated into Procedural Logic in the interpreter as far as we represent our intentions in the subset of English carefully.

In Chapter 2, we will present a small grammar which is used in translating a subset of English into Horn Clauses. First, we will show the procedure of translating simple sentences into literals. The translation of complex sentences will be the translation of several simple sentences of which the complex sentences are made up. Later, the treatment of noun phrases will be discussed.

In Chapter 3, an interpreter for the Blocks World will be described. The interpreter accepts four types of sentences, translates them into Horn Clauses by using the grammar described in Chapter 2, and interprets them as programs and data. The chapter will show several examples of the actual translation in the Blocks World.

In Chapter 4, after discussing some points which are not covered in the previous chapters, and showing related works, we will draw the conclusions from this research and suggest directions for further research.
Chapter 2

Translating English into Horn Clauses

This chapter describes the procedure of translating a subset of English into Horn Clauses with a small grammar. The basic units of Horn Clauses are literals, and the main task of the translation is to obtain the predicate names and arguments for literals. The procedure used here for this task is chiefly based on the syntactic structure of each sentence. Usually one English sentence is translated into one Horn Clause. Sometimes, however, it may result in several or no Horn Clauses. There are four types of sentences: fact, rule, command, and query. The translation procedures for them are largely similar. The grammar used here has been made to be applied to the experiment with the Blocks World of the next chapter, not for a general purpose, even though it does not have any domain-specific knowledge.

2.1 Translating a Simple Sentence

The basic syntactic unit of Horn Clauses is a literal, and as was shown in Section 1.3, a sentence having a simple structure may be translated into a literal. A simple sentence is a sentence which has only one main verb and no adverbial clauses. Its examples are in Figure 2-1.

Sentences of fact, command, and query types use typical forms of simple sentences. With the combinations of simple sentences and conjunctions, we can make sentences of more complex structures. The following subsections deal with simple sentences which can be found in each type of sentence which our grammar supports.
A block is on the table.  \hspace{1cm} \text{(fact)}
The red block is clear.  \hspace{1cm} \text{(fact)}
Put the red block down.  \hspace{1cm} \text{(command)}
Is the red block on the table?  \hspace{1cm} \text{(query)}

\textbf{Figure 2-1:} Examples of the Simple Sentences

\subsection{2.1.1 Fact}

Facts are statements about relationships among the objects, states of the objects, or attributes of the objects. The simple sentences which our grammar supports are sentences containing the \textit{be} verb. Figure 2-2 shows the allowed syntactic structures of the simple sentences which can be used in facts, and their corresponding structures as literals of Horn Clauses.

NPi means a noun phrase which has a noun with modifiers like adjectives or other nouns, or a Noun Clause, NCi. NCi is a clause which is a simple sentence or simple sentences, but one used as if it were a noun in the main sentence. For instance, the italicized parts of the following sentences are NCi's.

\begin{quote}
It is consistent \textbf{that the block is on the table}.  \\
The fact that a block is on a pyramid is false.
\end{quote}

NCi's are again translated into literals. In the figure, parenthesized items can be omitted in some cases. Rel-name is a name indicating the relationship between a NP and an adjective or a NP and a noun. COLOR is rel-name for \textit{a block} and \textit{red}, and SUB(Subclass) is rel-name for \textit{a red block} and \textit{pyramid}. NP* stands for a noun phrase or several noun phrases which are connected by and's, e.g. \textit{a red block and a blue block}. A noun with modifiers is translated
1. NP1 + be + prep + NP2
2. NP1 + be + adj
3. NP1 + be + (art) + noun
4. NP1 + be + (art) + noun + of + NP2
5. NP1 + be + adj + prep + NP2
6. it + be + adj + NC1
7. it + be + (art) + noun + NC1
8. there + be + NP*
9. there + be + NP1 + prep + NP2

   (prep* NP1 NP2)
   (rel-name NP1 adj)
   (adj* NP1)
   (rel-name NP1 noun)
   (noun* NP1)
   (noun* NP1 NP2)
   (adj* NP1 NP2)
   (adj* NC1)
   (noun* NC1)
   (THERE-IS NP*)
   (prep* NP1 NP2)

Figure 2-2: Syntactic Structures and Literals: Fact

into a frame.¹ An example of frame is (BLOCK DET A COLOR RED) for a
noun phrase, "a red block."

The predicate name is a word usually with the suffix, "", which
represents the relationships of the subject and the other objects (1,4,5,9), the
states of subjects (2,3,6,7), the attributes of the subjects (2,3), or existence of
subjects (8).

Examples of translations of the simple sentences of Figure 2-2 are in
Figure 2-3. In the syntactic structures of 2 and 3, there are two options. The
reason for making these two options is to gain computational efficiency in the
later use of resulting Horn Clauses. Because the predicate name is the main key
to searching for a Horn Clause, we have to make the predicate name become
the word which will be given most often when the clause is searched for. An

¹See [Rich 83] for the details of the frame structure.
1. The block is on the table. (ON* (BLOCK DET THE) (TABLE DET THE))
   (SIZE (BLOCK DET THE) LARGE) (CLEAR* (BLOCK DET THE))

2. The block is large.

3. The block is a pyramid.
   The block is a support.

4. X is a member of Y. (MEMBER* X Y)

5. X is equal to Y. (EQ* X Y)

6. It is consistent that X is on Y. (CONSISTENT* (ON* X Y))

7. It is a fact that the block is clear.
   (FACT* (CLEAR* (BLOCK DET THE)))

8. There is a block and a table. (THERE-IS ((BLOCK DET THE) (TABLE DET THE)))

9. There is a block on the table. (ON* (BLOCK DET A) (TABLE DET THE))

**Figure 2-3:** Examples of Literals: Fact

descriptive or a noun may be used as the prime key to retrieving clauses, or may be the value which is looked for through the other keys. For example, we usually want to find the color of an object, and want to know if something is clear. In the first case, the color "red" may be searched with the keys of "block" and "color". In the latter case, the search proceeds with the key, "clear". There is no specific boundary between the words of two options. Sometimes, an adjective or a noun can be categorized into the first option, but sometimes not. The strategy used here is that, if an adjective or a noun represents a static characteristic of NP, then the first option is used. Otherwise, the second form will be the choice. But, if we choose the first form, the resulting literal exists only during the translation procedure. Later it will be incorporated into the frame of NP and the literal will disappear. Also the predicate "THERE-IS" is a temporary predicate and exists only during the translation. Details of these aspects will be described in the next section.
It should be noted that the noun clause of the structure 7 is translated into a literal. As mentioned in Chapter 1, a literal can have a literal as its argument. In 8, NP* yields a list of frames or a list of literals.

2.1.2 Command

A command is an imperative statement which starts with a transitive verb. In our grammar, both forms of active and passive voices of commands are accepted. The active voice form is used in actual commanding, while the other form is used in describing the programs defining the command. Figure 2-4 represents the syntactic structure of simple sentences used in commands and their corresponding formats of literals.

Because the passive forms are only used in describing programs and the programs are given to the actor who will execute the commands later, we do not need the phrase such as "by somebody", and the structures in the figure reflect it. The predicate names are made up of the transitive verb with suffix "**", particle, or preposition. Examples of the literals of simple sentences of commands are in Figure 2-5.

2.1.3 Query

A query is a question about known facts. Queries can be divided into two types- yes/no questions and WH-questions. The former ones start with the "be" verb or an auxiliary verb, while the latter ones start with a question term which includes one of what, which, how, where, who, and whom. The type covered by our grammar is only the former one. Since the only syntactic forms available for facts are the ones with the "be" verb, the queries in our grammar should start with the "be* verb, too.

The only difference between a fact and a yes/no query about the fact is not the literal itself, but the post-processing of resulting Horn Clauses. The Horn Clause of a fact is asserted while that of a query is to be proved. In the translation procedure, a simple sentence of a query is translated into the literal
ACTIVE VOICE

1. trans.verb + particle + NP1
trans.verb + NP1 + particle (trans.verb.particle NP1)
2. trans.verb + NP1 (trans.verb* NP1)
3. trans.verb + NP1 + prep + NP2 (trans.verb.prep NP1 NP2)

PASSIVE VOICE

4. NP1 + be + verb(p.p. form) + particle (trans.verb.particle NP1)
5. NP1 + be + verb(p.p. form) (trans.verb* NP1)
6. NP1 + be + verb(p.p. form) + prep + NP2 (trans.verb.prep NP1 NP2)
7. It + is + verb(p.p. form) + NC1 (trans.verb NC1)

Figure 2-4: Syntactic Structures and Literals: Commands

1. Pick up the block.
   Pick the block up. (PICKUP (BLOCK DET))

2. Make it that
   the block is on the table. (MAKE* (ON* (BLOCK DET THE)
   (TABLE DET THE)))

3. Put the block on the table. (PUTON (BLOCK DET THE)
   (TABLE DET THE))

4. The block is picked up. (PICKUP (BLOCK DET THE))

5. The fact that the block is clear (PRINT* (CLEAR*
   is printed. (BLOCK DET THE)))

6. The block is put on the table. (PUTON (BLOCK DET THE)
   (TABLE DET THE))

7. It is asserted that
   the block is on the table. (ASSERT* (ON* (BLOCK DET THE)
   (TABLE DET THE)))

Figure 2-5: Examples of Literals: Command
of the corresponding simple sentence of a fact. First, a simple sentence of a query is translated into the similar simple sentence of a fact, and the fact will be translated into a literal according to Figure 2-2. The translation procedure from a query to a fact is in Figure 2-6, and examples are in Figure 2-7.

1. be + there + remainders \rightarrow there + be + remainders
2. is + it + remainders \rightarrow It + is + remainders
3. be + NP1 + remainders \rightarrow NP1 + be + remainders

**Figure 2-6:** Query to Fact

1. Is there a pyramid? *(THERE-IS (PYRAMID DET A))*
2. Is it consistent to put a block on a pyramid? *(CONSISTENT* (PUTON (BLOCK DET A) (PYRAMID DET A)))
3. Is the block on the table? *(ON* (BLOCK DET THE) (TABLE DET THE))

**Figure 2-7:** Queries and Literals

### 2.1.4 Rule

Rules are the main parts of programs for problem-solving methods and inferences. Simple sentences used in rules are those which are used in facts or commands (passive forms), and there are no special syntactic structures for simple sentences used in rules. Therefore, we will discuss the structure of the rule in the sentence level.

---

2. There are some differences in dealing with some predicate names and noun phrases of a query and those of a fact. Usually, however, the resulting literals are the same. For the time being, we will not think about those different cases. The different cases will be discussed in the next section.
The HCPRVR program for translating simple sentences into literals is in Appendix A.

2.2 Translation of a Sentence

The translation of a sentence is done by analyzing the sentence into several simple sentences, the translation of which was discussed in the preceding section. A sentence is composed of one or several simple sentences and conjunctions such as "and" and "if". There are some allowed formats of sentence which can be made up of simple sentences and conjunctions. They depend on the types of the sentences. Among these formats, those of rules are the most complex ones, and explained first.

\[
\text{Rule Structure} = \text{if-clause} \; \text{then-clause}
\]
\[
| \; \text{simple-snt} \; \text{if-clause}
\]
\[
| \; \text{It is always the case that simple-snt}
\]
\[
| \; \text{It is not the case that simple-snt}
\]
\[
\text{if-clause} = \text{if-word} \; \text{simple-snt} \; \{ \text{and simple-snt} \}
\]
\[
| \; \text{and if-word simple-snt}\}
\]
\[
\text{then-clause} = \text{then} \; \text{simple-snt} \; | \; \text{simple-snt}
\]
\[
\text{if-word} = \text{if} \; | \; \text{unless}
\]

| means alternatives and \{ \} means unspecified number of repetitions (possibly 0).

Figure 2-8: Structures of Rules

Figure 2-8 is the allowed structures of a rule which can be made up of simple sentences in our grammar. The simple sentences should be those used in facts, or passive forms of those used in commands. A rule is mainly composed of an if-clause and a then-clause. The latter should be a simple sentence while the former may include a simple sentence or several simple sentences which are connected by and's, if's, and unless's.

The format of the Horn Clause for that type of rule is given below.
(then-literal IF if-literal\(_1\) if-literal\(_2\) ...)

where then-literal is the literal of then-clause
and if-literal\(_1\) is the literals of if-clause.

In simple sentences of the last section, we have not dealt with a negative sentence, because negative information cannot be represented as a literal unless we use a negative predicate name and specify that a predicate is a negative one of the other by a rule. In rules, however, we can represent negative information in if-clauses. That is, by using the predicate name, UNLESS+, we can represent a negative premise for the conclusion. UNLESS+ takes any number of literals as its arguments. If any of them is false, the truth value of this literal is true. (Therefore, a logical-and is assumed among the literals in UNLESS+.) Examples of rules and their Horn Clauses are in Figure 2-9.

A block is picked up if the block is clear
and the robotarm is clear.

\[
((\text{PICKUP (BLOCK DET A)}) \text{ IF } (\text{CLEAR* (BLOCK DET THE)})
\text{ (CLEAR* (ROBOTARM DET THE))})
\]

\(X\) is clear unless something is on \(X\).

\[
((\text{CLEAR* } X) \text{ IF } (\text{UNLESS+ (ON* SOMETHING } X)))
\]

Figure 2-9: Examples of Rules and Horn Clauses

There are two special types of syntactic structures for rules which are composed of only a simple sentence while others need at least two simple sentences (one for then-clause and one for if-clause). The reason for providing those special structures is that their meanings are those of rules and more than one literal is needed to represent their meanings even if they look like facts. The second special structure is used for the negative information. Their corresponding Horn Clauses are in 2-10.
It is always the case that \textit{simple-snt}
\begin{verbatim}
  ( simple-literal IF !**)
\end{verbatim}

It is not the case that \textit{simple-snt}
\begin{verbatim}
  ( simple-literal IF ! (FAIL)***)
\end{verbatim}

where simple-literal is the literal of simple-snt.

** !** is treated as a literal in HCPRVR, and it always succeeds. But, it marks the boundary which HCPRVR can not backtrack over.

*** (FAIL) is a literal which always fails to be proved.

\textbf{Figure 2-10: Horn Clauses of Two Special Rule Structures}

A fact may be a simple sentence or several simple sentences which are connected by and's. In the case of several simple sentences, the literals of these simple sentences are combined into a list to avoid being confused with rules, and will be asserted separately later. A logical-and may be thought as the predicate name of the list, but it does not appear in the list. *IF* is added as a delimiter in the Horn Clauses. Figure 2-11 shows some examples of facts.

\begin{verbatim}
A red block is on the table.
((ON* (BLOCK DET A COLOR RED) (TABLE DET THE)) IF)

A white block is on the red block
and a blue block is on the white block.
(((ON* (BLOCK DET A COLOR WHITE) (BLOCK DET THE COLOR RED))
  (ON* (BLOCK DET A COLOR BLUE) (BLOCK DET THE COLOR WHITE)))
  IF)
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{Figure 2-11: Facts and Horn Clauses}
A command may be a sentence of an active form having one or more than one simple sentences whose voices are active. The allowed form of a command is the same as that of a fact but the allowed types of simple sentences are different from one another.

A yes/no question must be a simple sentence which starts with the "be" verb and ends with the question mark "?". In this work, only simple questions are covered, since the translation of WH-questions, which are indefinitely complex, is a big problem by itself, and it is not a primary interest of this thesis. General Questioning/Answering systems with Clausal Logic can be found in [LeVine 80] and [Tseng 83].

Figure 2-12 is the HCPRVR program for the sentence analysis described so far. The top-level predicate name is SNT(Sentence) and the lowest one is SIMSNT(Simple Sentence). The translation is done by proving the literal below,

\[(SNT \ (sentence) \ Variable)\]

and the result of translation will be the value of Variable. In the program, facts, commands, and yes/no questions are treated as special cases of rules, that is, rules with no if-clause. CONJSNT deals with the if-clause's and SIMCONJSNT processes simple sentences which are connected by and's.

2.3 Frames for Noun Phrases

This section discusses how to treat the noun phrases in the translation procedure. Even though the procedure described in this section is applied to each simple sentence, the necessity of the procedure comes from the interactions of several sentences which refer to the same object.

When we translate the following text according to the process discussed in the previous section,

A blue block is on the table.
(AXIOMS
   '(((SNT (IT IS ALWAYS THE CASE THAT . X) (V IF !))
     <
     ! (SIMSNT X V NIL))
   ((SNT (IT IS NOT THE CASE THAT . X) (V IF ! (FAIL)))
     <
     ! (SIMSNT X V NIL))
   ((SNT (IF . X) (V1 IF . V))
     <
     ! (CONJSNT (AND IF . X) V R)
     (SIMSNT R V1 NIL))
   ((SNT (UNLESS . X) (V1 IF . V))
     <
     ! (CONJSNT (AND UNLESS . X) V R) !
     (SIMSNT R V1 NIL))
   ((SNT X (U IF . V1))
     < (SIMCONJSNT X V R) (NORM V U) (CONJSNT R V1 NIL))))

(AXIOMS
   '(((CONJSNT (THEN . Y) NIL Y))
     ((CONJSNT (AND IF . Y) V2 R1)
     <
     ! (SIMCONJSNT Y V R)
     (CONJSNT R V1 R1)
     (APPEND* V V1 V2))
     ((CONJSNT (AND UNLESS . Y) ((UNLESS+ . V) . V1) R1)
     <
     (SIMCONJSNT Y V R)
     (CONJSNT R V1 R1))
     ((CONJSNT X NIL X))))

(AXIOMS
   '(((SIMCONJSNT NIL NIL NIL NIL) < !)
     ((SIMCONJSNT (IF . X) NIL (AND IF . X))
     ((SIMCONJSNT (UNLESS . X) NIL (AND UNLESS . X)))
     ((SIMCONJSNT (THEN . X) NIL (THEN . X))
     (SIMCONJSNT X (U . V) R)
     < (SIMSNT X U R1) (SIMCONJSNT R1 V R) )
     ((SIMCONJSNT X NIL X))))

---

Figure 2-12: HCPRVR program for a Sentence Analysis
A white block is on the block.
The block is large.

the resulting Horn Clauses will be the following:

\[
((\text{ON} \ast \text{ (BLOCK DET A COLOR BLUE) (TABLE DET THE)) IF})
((\text{ON} \ast \text{ (BLOCK DET A COLOR WHITE) (BLOCK DET THE)) IF})
((\text{SIZE (BLOCK DET THE) LARGE) IF})
\]

The problem in the resulting Horn Clauses is that there is no knowing to which objects each noun phrase refers later, because the Horn Clauses are not saved in a serial list, but according to the predicate name. If we use proper nouns only, there will no problem like this. But, in real situations, we have to deal with common nouns, and pronominal references. To make an efficient solution of the problem, we decided to represent each common noun and all of its attributes in a frame structure with an index, and to use the index instead of the noun phrase in Horn Clauses. The reason for using the frame structure is to get the computational efficiency of the structure and the reason for using indices is to distinguish the identical objects which are not the same objects. In this scheme, the Horn Clauses above would be represented in the following way.

\[
((\text{ON} \ast \text{ (INST 2) (INST 1)) IF})
((\text{ON} \ast \text{ (INST 3) (INST 2)) IF})
((\text{INST 1 TABLE) IF})
((\text{INST 2 BLOCK COLOR BLUE) IF})
((\text{INST 3 BLOCK COLOR WHITE SIZE LARGE) IF})
\]

The predicate name for the frame is INST and each frame has an unique number as an index. A new index is generated by the grammar whenever the grammar finds a new object. It is remarkable that the last sentence only changed the content of the frame, and disappeared completely. There is another type of simple sentence which does not yield any Horn Clause but generates frames. This is *there + be + NP**. The predicate THERE-IS is given temporarily and the whole literal disappears after the frames are made for the noun phrases in the literal. The other types of a simple sentence of facts may or may not generate the frames. But, if they produce frames, the frames
are made as a side effect. In making a frame, DET and its value are omitted for convenience.

Finding the correct index for a noun phrase is an example of anaphoric resolution. In this grammar, a simple method is used. By maintaining a list of frames in the reverse order of references [Ehrlich 81], and searching for the candidate in the list, the frame which is encountered first and fulfills all the requirements of the noun phrase will be used as the prime candidate.

There is a procedure which is very helpful in dealing with frames. It is *Relaxed Unification* [Simmons 83]. Unlike the Unification algorithm which has no restriction on the format of arguments, the algorithm should have the arguments of the following form.

\[(\text{Head} \ Arc-name_1 \ Arc-val_1 \ Arc-name_2 \ Arc-val_2 \ ... )\]

While Unification algorithm requests that two arguments be exactly the same or that they be made the same by substituting appropriate values for variables in them, this algorithm thinks that the first argument is matched with the second if the head words are same and all the pairs of arc-name and arc-val of the first argument are a subset of those of the second one. The order of pairs does not matter.

Also the algorithm uses a taxonomic structure in matching two objects. For example, if the first argument is "a block" and the second one is "a pyramid", the algorithm thinks that they match because "pyramid" is a subclass of "block", and every pyramid is a block.

The HCPRVR program which compares two frames by using the concept of Relaxed Unification algorithm is shown in Figure 2-13. The program is the same as Relaxed Unification algorithm except that the first pair of arc-name and arc-val is always the index and noun for the frame and, as an argument, an index of a frame can be given instead of the frame itself. This program is useful in searching for a frame which has certain attributes or in checking if a frame has certain properties. For instance, to find a block which is red, we put (INST N BLOCK COLOR RED) as the fist argument and one of
(AXIOMS
  '(((RELMATCH (INST . X) (INST . X)))
    (RELMATCH (INST N X . X1) (INST N X . Y))
    (RELUNIF (INST N X . X1) (INST N X . Y)))
  <
    (RELUNIF (INST N X . X1) (INST N X . Y))
    (RELMATCH (INST N) (INST N X . Y))
    <
    (INST N . Z)
    (RELMATCH (INST N . Z) (INST N X . Y))
    (RELMATCH (INST N X . Y) (INST N))
    <
    (INST N . Z)
    (RELMATCH (INST N X . Y) (INST N . Z))
    (RELMATCH (INST N X . X1) (INST N Y . Y1))
    <
    (NOUN X _NF1 U1)
    (NOUN Y _NF2 U2)
    (FRAMEARC X Y SUB)
    (RELUNIF (INST N Y . X1) (INST N Y . Y1))
    (RELMATCH (INST N Y . X1) (INST N X . Z))
    <
    (NOUN X _NF1 U1)
    (NOUN Y _NF2 U2)
    (FRAMEARC X Y S)
    (RELUNIF (INST N X S Y . X1) (INST N X . Z)))

(AXIOMS
  '(((RELUNIF (INST N X) (INST N X . Y)))
    (RELUNIF (INST N X U V . R) (INST N X . Y))
    <
    (MEMPAIR (U V) Y)
    (RELUNIF (INST N X . R) (INST N X . Y)))

(AXIOMS
  '(((MEMPAIR (X Y) (X Y . Z)))
    (MEMPAIR (X Y) (U V . Z)) < (MEMPAIR (X Y) Z))))

---

**Figure 2-13:** Relaxed Unification
existing frames as the second argument. If the program succeeds, a red block is
found and the value of variable N is the index of the frame. Otherwise, we
choose another from the remaining frames and check it until either we find one
or there is no frame left untried.

To check if a block is large, we use the program proving the following
Horn Clause.

\[ \text{(RELMATCH (INST X BLOCK SIZE LARGE) (INST n))} \]
where (INST n) is the index of the frame of the block.

If it succeeds, the block is large. Otherwise, it is not.

While a noun phrase of a fact indicates a specific object, a noun phrase
with an indefinite article of a rule or a query does not indicate a specific object.
The noun phrase "a block" of the sentence below, for example, does not specify
any particular object, and it is rather a variable.

A block is clear unless something is on the block.
Is a block on the red block?

But we cannot simply substitute it with a variable like X or (INST X). It is
required that the value which is bound to variable must be a block. Therefore,
a noun phrase having an indefinite article may be thought as a variable with
some qualifiers and the qualifiers restrict the possible values of the variable. In
our grammar, each noun clause with an indefinite article in a rule or a query is
substituted with a variable, and a literal which restricts the values for the
variable is inserted as Figure 2-14.

Several English words are the same as the variables in their original
meanings. Those words are treated as the actual variables in this grammar.
"Something", "everything", and "anything" are their examples. The ordinary
variables supported in HCPVR are letters from "M" through "Z" optionally
followed by a number from 1 to 4, or any atom which starts with the underline
"_", e.g. _VARIABLE.

Also, in queries and rules, literals about some attributes of NP's such
((CLEAR* (INST N)) IF
 (RELMATCH (INST N BLOCK) (INST N))
 (UNLESS+ (ON* SOMETHING (INST N)))))

(((ON* (INST N) (INST 2))
 (RELMATCH (INST N BLOCK) (INST N))) IF)

**Figure 2-14:** Horn Clauses of Noun Phrase Variables

as (SIZE (INST 3) LARGE) or (COLOR (INST 2) BLUE) are substituted with
(RELMATCH (INST V1 V2 SIZE LARGE)(INST 3)) or (RELMATCH (INST V1 V2 COLOR BLUE) (INST 2)).

The procedure described in this section will be invoked after the
procedure of the previous section has been accomplished successfully. The
remaining question is how the Horn Clauses which are generated by this
grammar should be processed in order to be interpreted as programs and data.
This will be discussed in the next chapter with the examples of the Blocks
World.
Chapter 3

HCTRANS and Blocks World

This chapter describes an interpreter which has been developed to translate several types of English sentences about the Blocks World as an example domain. The interpreter is equipped with the small grammar described in the previous chapter. Because neither the interpreter nor the grammar includes any domain-specific knowledge about the Blocks World, the interpreter can be experimented with in other domains with little modification.

3.1 An Interpreter: HCTRANS

The interpreter which has been developed in this research is called HCTRANS(Horn Clause TRANSlator). Its major functions can be summarized as below.

1. It accepts English descriptions of objects, relationships among them, and problem-solving methods. It translates them into Horn Clauses, and stores the Horn Clauses in the database(DB).

2. It interprets the resulting Horn Clauses as programs and data, and uses them to accomplish several tasks such as answering questions and executing commands.

3. It maintains integrity of the DB.

The top level executive of HCTRANS is written in ELISP, whose code is given in Appendix B.1. The executive reads a sentence at a time and pre-processes it, and calls the HCPRVR programs which translate the sentence into Horn Clauses, and finally post-processes the clauses according to the type of the sentence.
Through the pre-processing, it changes variables into dummy variables to prevent them from being substituted with anything in the grammar and to make them remain as variables in the resulting Horn Clause, and decides the type of a given sentence. The decision of the type of the sentence is made only with syntactic structure of the sentence. If it ends with "?", it is a query. If it has if-clause or is one of two special structures for rules, it is regarded as a rule. And if it starts with a transitive verb, it is a command. Otherwise, it is a fact.

After the grammar, which is also represented in HCPRVR programs, translates a sentence into a Horn Clause or several Horn Clauses, the HCPRVR programs which make the following post-processing are called. The post-processing is based on the type of the sentence which was decided in the pre-processing.

**Fact**
It checks the resulting Horn Clauses according to Consistency Rules (see Section 3.5) for integrity of the DB and stores them in the DB. Later, they are used mainly as data.

**Rule**
It stores them in the DB directly. They are used as programs. In the DB, there is no difference between a fact and a rule. Every Horn Clause is stored with the Clauses having the same predicate name.

**Command**
After checking it with consistency rules to see if the command is reasonable, it finds a program of the command, and executes it to accomplish the required task. The program should be given in advance.

**Query**
It attempts to prove the resulting Horn Clauses in the DB. If it succeeds, it answers "Yes". Otherwise, it says "No". As for the DB, we assume the closed-world DB. [Clark 78] [Jaffer 83] In the closed-world DB, failing to prove a theorem in DB means that the theorem is false in DB.

The details of post-processing can be seen in the HCPRVR program of Figure 3-1. The complete list of the program is in Appendix B.2.

For a sentence of fact, the interpreter first parses it into a Horn Clause
(AXIOMS
  '((((FACT X) < (SNT X (Y IF)) (MULTI-FACTS Y))))

  (AXIOMS
   '(((MULTI-FACTS NIL) < !)
      ((MULTI-FACTS (U . V) . Y))
      <
      ! (SING-FACT (U . V)) ! (MULTI-FACTS Y))
      ((MULTI-FACTS X) < (SING-FACT X)))))

  (AXIOMS
   '(((SING-FACT X)
      <
      (CHK-OBJS X Y) (CONSISTENT Y) (ASSERT-FACT Y))))

  (AXIOMS
   '(((COMMAND X) < (SNT X (Y IF)) (MULTI-CMDS Y))))

  (AXIOMS
   '(((MULTI-CMDS NIL) < !)
      ((MULTI-CMDS (U . V) . Y))
      <
      (SING-CMD (U . V)) ! (MULTI-CMD Y))
      ((MULTI-CMDS X) < (SING-CMD X)))))

  (AXIOMS
   '(((SING-CMD X) < (CHK-OBJS X Y) (CONSISTENT Y) (EXECUTE Y)))))

  (AXIOMS
   '(((RULE X) < (SNT X Y) (TRANS-OBJS Y Z) (ASSERT-RULE Z))))

  (AXIOMS
   '(((QUERY X)
      <
      (SNT X (Y IF))
      (TRANS-OBJS Y Z)
      (SETV* W (SUBLIS (PAIRVARS VARLIST) 'Z))
      (ASKS W))))

-----------------------------------------------

Figure 3-1: HCPRVR program of HCTRANS
as described in Section 2.2 (SNT). Because a sentence may result in several literals in case that several simple sentences are connected by and's (MULTIFACTS), it checks the result of SNT, and if it is a list of literals, it processes them as if they were separate sentences(SING-FACT). For each literal, it substitutes a noun phrase with a frame index, eliminates THERE-IS and rel-name predicates (CHK-OBJJS), and adjusts the list of frames. After it checks the result with the consistency rules (CONSISTENT), it asserts the literal as a Horn Clause (ASSERT-FACT).

The processing of a sentence of command is the same as that of a sentence of fact except that HCTRANS executes the program instead of storing it in the DB. The execution of command is the same as proving the literal of the command. HCPRVR will automatically retrieve the program of the command, and execute it.

The post-processing of rules and queries is simpler. There are no consistency rules for them. The major difference of rules and queries from facts and commands is in the grammar as mentioned in Chapter 2; the grammar changes a noun phrase, which has an indefinite article, e.g. "a", "an", and "another" for a variable and a qualification literal which constrains the possible values of the variable. It also changes the literals of THERE-IS and rel-name predicates by using RELMATCH (TRANS-OBJJS). The Horn Clause of a rule is asserted and that of a query is asked.

There are three predicate names whose evaluations are made by the interpreter program. They are TRUE*, FALSE*, and LIST*. Because the evaluations of them are too primitive or dependent on the implementation of the interpreter, the interpreter provides the programs for them instead of asking users to do so. The meanings of them are explained as below. For each entry, the first word is the one used in English and the second one is the predicate name.

**True --> TRUE** A literal with this name is true if a literal or a list of literals which is given as the argument is true, that is, if the literal or all the literals in the list can be proved in the current DB.
FALSE* The value of the literal with this predicate name is the reverse of TRUE* and it is equivalent to (UNLESS+ (TRUE* X)).

LIST* The value of the literal with this predicate name is true if the argument is a list of literals or a list of indices.

3.2 Blocks World: An Example Domain

The Blocks World is an example domain which has been used in many researches in the AI field [Winograd 72] [Fikes 71]. The reasons it has been chosen as an example domain here are as follows:

- The domain is simple and well defined. The Blocks World is like a simplified real world.
- Its characteristics are well exploited in the several researches.
- Even though it is simple, it is not a domain which can be attacked easily. For example, it has the characteristic of non-monotonicity.
- We can extend the domain easily.

The discussions in the remaining part of this chapter will proceed with the test sessions of HCTRANS whose recorded listings are presented throughout the section. In those recorded sessions, user's inputs are those which are typed in when the prompts have come (*** in LISP mode, and ** in HCTRANS mode). Comments are in the brackets (**{ ***}**) and italicized. When it prints Horn Clauses, it will substitute the indices with actual frames for readability.

The basic assumptions on the blocks world which is described here are as follows:

- There is only one table, and only one robotarm. The size of the table is infinite and there is always room for more blocks on the table.
- The robotarm can hold one block at a time.
• Only one block can be on another block at a time.
• A pyramid cannot support anything.
• The table and the robotarm can not be put on anything.

The purpose of the test sessions is to show the ability of the grammar and the interpreter. Several types of English sentences with several purposes are all translated into Horn Clauses and interpreted as programs and data.

### 3.3 Examples of Facts and Rules

We will start the test run with a simple example of Blocks World in Figure 3-2. We will describe the example to the interpreter in English, and the interpreter will make the DB for it. We will also add some inference rules, and ask questions about the example.

[PHOTO: Recording initiated Sun 8-Jul-84 12:49AM]

[Link from CS.YU, TTY36]

Tops-20 Command processor 5.1(121700)
2@ELISP  {Getting into the ELISP mode.}
Elisp, 4 1 84

A version of recursion-checking HCRVR. FLAP is loaded, and functions and HCRVR program for HCTRANS are loaded, too

To use HCTRANS, type (HCTRANS)

*(HCTRANS)  {Getting into the interpreter.}
Welcome to HCTRANS, a translator from English to Horn Clauses

I can accept facts, rules, queries, and commands, and make inferences with them. To exit, type ^G at any time.

You can type in any LISP expression, too.

{Starting to describe the Blocks World to the interpreter.}
Rule: If X is large and Y is small
then X is larger than Y.
It is always the case
that the table is larger than anything.

If X is on Y and Y is on Z
then X is above Z.

If X is on Y then Y is under X.

Figure 3-2: Description of a Blocks World

-THERE IS A TABLE AND A ROBOTARM .

(Asserted: (INST 1 TABLE))
(Asserted: (INST 2 ROBOTARM))

{Whenever a new object is introduced,
the interpreter creates a frame for it.}
{Note that there is no predicate name for
"there + be + NP** statement."}

-A WHITE BLOCK IS ON THE TABLE
-AND A BLUE BLOCK IS ON THE WHITE BLOCK.

   {Two simple sentences are connected by "and" to make a fact.}
   {This sentence not only introduces new objects
      but addresses the relationships among objects.}

   (Asserted: (INST 3 BLOCK COLOR WHITE))
   (Asserted: (ON* (INST 3 BLOCK COLOR WHITE) (INST 1 TABLE)))
   (Asserted: (INST 4 BLOCK COLOR BLUE))
   (Asserted: (ON* (INST 4 BLOCK COLOR BLUE)
                   (INST 3 BLOCK COLOR WHITE)))

-THE WHITE BLOCK IS LARGE AND THE BLUE BLOCK IS SMALL.

   {This sentence does not introduce any new object
    nor does it address any relationship among objects.
    But, it describes some attributes of known objects
    and it changes the frames of objects.}

   (Deleted: (INST 3 BLOCK COLOR WHITE))
   (Asserted: (INST 3 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR WHITE))
   (Deleted: (INST 4 BLOCK COLOR BLUE))
   (Asserted: (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE))

-THERE IS A RED BLOCK ON THE BLUE BLOCK.

   (Asserted: (INST 5 BLOCK COLOR RED))
   (Asserted: (ON* (INST 5 BLOCK COLOR RED)
                   (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE)))

-THE BLOCK IS A PYRAMID.

   (Deleted: (INST 5 BLOCK COLOR RED))
   (Asserted: (INST 5 BLOCK SUB PYRAMID COLOR RED))

-A LARGE RED BLOCK IS ON THE TABLE
-AND A YELLOW PYRAMID IS ON THE BLOCK.

   (Asserted: (INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED))
   (Asserted: (ON* (INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED)
                   (INST 1 TABLE)))
   (Asserted: (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW))
   (Asserted: (ON* (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW)
                   (INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED)))
{Starting to input the rules to the interpreter.}

-IF X IS LARGE AND Y IS SMALL THEN X IS LARGER THAN Y.

{This rule is valid on the assumption that there are only two sizes in the world.}

(Asserted: ((LARGER* X Y)
  IF
  (RELMATCH (INST VAR1 VAR2 SIZE LARGE) X)
  (RELMATCH (INST _VAR3 _VAR4 SIZE SMALL) Y)))

{The simple sentences about the attributes of objects are changed into RELMATCH's.}

-IT IS ALWAYS THE CASE
  THAT THE TABLE IS LARGER THAN ANYTHING.

{A special format for a rule.}

(Asserted: ((LARGER* (INST 1 TABLE) ANYTHING) IF !))

-IF X IS ON Y THEN Y IS UNDER X.

{Antonym. Because the interpreter does not have the knowledge about the relationships among words, we have to specify them by rules.}

(Asserted: ((UNDER* Y X) IF (ON* X Y)))

-IF X IS ON Y AND Y IS ON Z
  THEN X IS ABOVE Z.

(Asserted: ((ABOVE* X Z) IF (ON* X Y) (ON* Y Z)))

{Question and Answering Session.}

-IS THERE A RED PYRAMID?

{Question about the existence of any red pyramid.}

(YES (RELMATCH (INST 5 PYRAMID COLOR RED)
  (INST 5 BLOCK SUB PYRAMID COLOR RED)))
{It finds a red pyramid.}

-IS THE YELLOW PYRAMID ON THE RED BLOCK?

{It asks about the relationship between two objects.}

(YES (ON* (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW)
             (INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED)))

-IS THERE A WHITE PYRAMID?

{Again, it asks about the existence of an object, but the interpreter fails to find any.}

(NO)

-IS THE RED BLOCK ON THE TABLE LARGE?

{It asks about an attribute of an object.}
{Because there are two red blocks, we specify one by stating its relationship with another object. The grammar uses the prepositional phrase to locate the correct object.}

(YES (RELMATCH (INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE)
                (INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED)))

{Note that RELMATCH is used for checking the attribute of the object, and the grammar locates the correct object.}

-IS THE BLUE BLOCK LARGE?

{The blue block is small.}

(NO)

-IS THE RED BLOCK ON THE BLUE BLOCK ABOVE THE WHITE BLOCK?

{This sentence can be interpreted in two ways, that is, "Is the red block on the blue block which is on the white block?", and "Is the red block, which is on the blue block, above the white block?" The interpreter tries to find any possible interpretation}
which can make the answer "yes", and finds one of two interpretations makes it true.

{This query also uses the rule about "above".}

(YES (ABOVE* (INST 5 BLOCK SUB PYRAMID COLOR RED) (INST 3 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR WHITE)))

-IS THE WHITE BLOCK LARGER THAN THE RED BLOCK UNDER THE YELLOW BLOCK?

{This query uses the rule about "larger-than".}
{The search of the rule is done by HCPRVR.}

(NO)

-IS THE BLOCK LARGER THAN BLUE BLOCK?

{In this question, a simple anaphoric reference is resolved. The list of frames is maintained in the reverse order of references.}

(YES (LARGER* (INST 3 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR WHITE) (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE)))

{To be continued in the next section.}

3.4 Examples of Commands

In this section, we will add the programs for three commands: PICKUP, PUTDOWN, and PUTON. It should be made clear that, since this is a kind of simulation, the real operations are primitive operations of ASSERT and DELETE which are primitive functions of the interpreter. There are some commands for which HCTRANS provides the programs, because they are related with the dealing with the memory unit or printers. They are ASSERT, DELETE, and PRINT. The first two are asserting or deleting some facts into or from the DB, and the last one prints out the argument in the screen.

Some special cases of PUTON are the same as other commands. *Put
something on the robotarm* is the same as PICKUP, and *put something on
the robotarm on the table* is the same as PUTDOWN.

{Continued from the last record session.}

{Starting to give programs of commands.}

-IT IS ALWAYS THE CASE THAT THE TABLE IS CLEAR .

{This and the next rules are about the predicate name
"clear", which will be used in other programs."clear" means that there is room for another block.}.

(Asserted: ((CLEAR* (INST 1 TABLE)) IF !))

-X IS CLEAR UNLESS SOMETHING IS ON X
- AND UNLESS X IS ON THE ROBOTARM .

(Asserted: ((CLEAR* X)
 IF
 (UNLESS+ (ON* SOMETHING X))
 (UNLESS+ (ON* X (INST 2 ROBOTARM)))))

{There are three commands: Pick up, Put down, and Put on.}

-A BLOCK IS PICKED UP IF THE BLOCK IS CLEAR
- AND IF THE ROBOTARM IS CLEAR
- AND IF IT IS DELETED THAT THE BLOCK IS ON SOMETHING
- AND IF IT IS ASSERTED THAT THE BLOCK IS ON THE ROBOTARM .

{The program uses two primitive commands: Assert and Delete.
It first checks the pre-condition of the command.}

(Asserted: ((PICKUP (INST _VAR1))
 IF
 (RELMATCH (INST _VAR1 BLOCK) (INST _VAR1))
 (CLEAR* (INST _VAR1))
 (CLEAR* (INST 2 ROBOTARM))
 (DELETE (ON* (INST _VAR1) SOMETHING))
 (ASSERT* (ON* (INST _VAR1) (INST 2 ROBOTARM)))))

{Note that a noun phrase "a block" is substituted with a
variable and a literal which limits the possible values of
the variable is inserted.)
{Also the word "something" is treated as a variable.}

-A BLOCK IS PUT DOWN IF IT IS ON THE ROBOTARM
- AND IF IT IS DELETED THAT THE BLOCK IS ON SOMETHING
- AND IF IT IS ASSERTED THAT THE BLOCK IS ON THE TABLE.

{The passive form of commands is used in rules, and it makes
the rules look more natural.}

(Asserted: ((PUTDOWN (INST_VAR1))
  IF
  (RELMATCH (INST_VAR1 BLOCK) (INST_VAR1))
  (ON* (INST_VAR1) (INST 2 ROBOTARM))
  (DELETE (ON* (INST_VAR1) SOMETHING))
  (ASSERT* (ON* (INST_VAR1) (INST 1 TABLE)))))

-A BLOCK IS PUT ON THE ROBOTARM
- IF THE BLOCK IS PICKED UP.

(Asserted: ((PUTON (INST_VAR1) (INST 2 ROBOTARM))
  IF
  (RELMATCH (INST_VAR1 BLOCK) (INST_VAR1))
  (PICKUP (INST_VAR1))))

{There are three rules for PUTON. The first two specify
the operation is some special cases, and the last
one is for general cases. The third rule uses PICKUP and
another rule of PUTON as primitive operations.}

-A BLOCK IS PUT ON X IF THE BLOCK IS ON THE ROBOTARM
- AND IF X IS CLEAR
- AND IF IT IS DELETED THAT THE BLOCK IS ON THE ROBOTARM
- AND IF IT IS ASSERTED THAT THE BLOCK IS ON X.

(Asserted: ((PUTON (INST_VAR1) X)
  IF
  (RELMATCH (INST_VAR1 BLOCK) (INST_VAR1))
  (ON* (INST_VAR1) (INST 2 ROBOTARM))
  (CLEAR* X) -
  (DELETE (ON* (INST_VAR1) (INST 2 ROBOTARM)))
  (ASSERT* (ON* (INST_VAR1) X))))

-A BLOCK IS PUT ON X IF THE BLOCK IS CLEAR
- AND IF X IS CLEAR
AND IF THE ROBOTARM IS CLEAR
AND THE BLOCK IS PICKED UP
AND THE BLOCK IS PUT ON X.

{In this case, the whole operation is divided into two steps: Picking up a block and putting it on the desired place.}

(Asserted: ((PUTON (INST _VAR1) X)
    IF
    (RELMATCH (INST _VAR1 BLOCK) (INST _VAR1))
    (CLEAR* (INST _VAR1))
    (CLEAR* X)
    (CLEAR* (INST 2 ROBOTARM))
    (PICKUP (INST _VAR1))
    (PUTON (INST _VAR1) X)))

{Test runs of the command programs.}

-PICK UP THE RED BLOCK ON THE BLUE BLOCK.

(Deleted: (ON* (INST 5 BLOCK SUB PYRAMID COLOR RED)
    (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE)))

(Asserted: (ON* (INST 5 BLOCK SUB PYRAMID COLOR RED)
    (INST 2 ROBOTARM)))

{The actual operation is the deletion and assertion of facts.}

-PUT IT DOWN.

{A pronoun is used.}

(Deleted: (ON* (INST 5 BLOCK SUB PYRAMID COLOR RED)
    (INST 2 ROBOTARM)))

(Asserted: (ON* (INST 5 BLOCK SUB PYRAMID COLOR RED)
    (INST 1 TABLE)))

-PUT THE YELLOW BLOCK ON THE TABLE.

{The third rule of PUTON is used in this case.}

(Deleted: (ON* (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW)
    (INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED)))

(Asserted: (ON* (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW)
    (INST 2 ROBOTARM)))
(Deleted: (ON* (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW)  
(INST 2 ROBOTARM)))

(Asserted: (ON* (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW)  
(INST 1 TABLE)))

--- PICK UP THE BLUE BLOCK ON THE WHITE BLOCK. ---

(Deleted: (ON* (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE)  
(INST 3 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR WHITE)))

(Asserted: (ON* (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE)  
(INST 2 ROBOTARM)))

--- PUT IT ON THE RED BLOCK. ---

{The second rule is used in this case.}

(Deleted: (ON* (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE)  
(INST 2 ROBOTARM)))

(Asserted: (ON* (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE)  
(INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED)))

--- PUT THE LARGE YELLOW BLOCK ON THE TABLE. ---

{This command is aborted because there is a unknown object in the command.}

(Unidentifiable Object: (BLOCK DET THE SIZE LARGE COLOR YELLOW))

(Unacceptable Command:
  (PUTON (BLOCK DET THE SIZE LARGE COLOR YELLOW)  
  (TABLE DET THE)))

(Processing of input aborted)

--- PUT THE LARGE RED BLOCK ON THE WHITE BLOCK. ---

{This command is aborted because there is no rule which can accomplish the task. Later, in Section 3.6, we will modify the rules to accomplish this task.}

(Unacceptable Command:
  (PUTON (BLOCK DET THE SIZE LARGE COLOR RED)  
  (BLOCK DET THE COLOR WHITE)))

(Processing of input aborted)

--- PUT THE BLUE BLOCK ON THE WHITE BLOCK ON THE TABLE. ---
{This command can be interpreted in two ways. The one is "put the blue block which is on the white block on the table", the other is "put the blue block on the white block which is on the table."}

(Unacceptable Command :
(PUTON (BLOCK DET THE COLOR BLUE ON* (BLOCK DET THE COLOR WHITE)) (TABLE DET THE)))

{The first interpretation can not be accomplished, because there is no blue block on the white block.}

(Deleted: (ON* (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE) (INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED)))

(Asserted: (ON* (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE) (INST 2 ROBOTARM)))

(Deleted: (ON* (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE) (INST 2 ROBOTARM)))

(Asserted: (ON* (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE) (INST 3 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR WHITE)))

{But the second interpretation succeeded.}

{HCTRANS tries to find the interpretation with which it can accomplish the command.}

{To be continued in the next section.}

3.5 Consistency Rules

{Continued from the last recorded session.}

{A description and a command are given.}

- ANOTHER WHITE BLOCK IS ON THE YELLOW BLOCK .

{This description is inconsistent with the restriction on the Blocks World: No block can be on a pyramid, but the yellow block is a pyramid.}

(Asserted: (INST 8 BLOCK COLOR WHITE))

(Asserted: (ON* (INST 8 BLOCK COLOR WHITE) (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW)))

{But the interpreter accepts it.}
-IS THE YELLOW PYRAMID UNDER A BLOCK?

(YES (UNDER* (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW)
   (INST 8 Block COLOR WHITE)))

-PUT THE WHITE BLOCK ON THE RED PYRAMID.

{This command makes a state which is not allowed.}

(Deleted: (ON* (INST 8 Block COLOR WHITE)
   (INST 7 Pyramid COLOR YELLOW)))
(Asserted: (ON* (INST 8 Block COLOR WHITE)
   (INST 2 Robotarm)))
(Deleted: (ON* (INST 8 Block COLOR WHITE)
   (INST 2 Robotarm)))
(Asserted: (ON* (INST 8 Block COLOR WHITE)
   (INST 5 Block SUB Pyramid COLOR RED)))

{But, the command is processed.}

- IS THE RED PYRAMID UNDER THE A BLOCK?

(YES (UNDER* (INST 5 Block SUB Pyramid COLOR RED)
   (INST 8 Block COLOR WHITE)))

In the recorded session above, there were some mistakes in descriptions and commands. But, the interpreter, having not detected it, stored the description and processed the command which resulted in an inconsistent DB. We could see the inconsistency by observing inconsistent answers to a set of questions.

To preserve integrity of the Blocks World whose possible semantics is described in Section 3.2, we need a way to state the constraints of the Blocks World to HCTRANS. Because HCTRANS stores everything in the DB, the problem can be reduced to the problem of preserving integrity of the DB [Nicholas 78a] [Nicholas 78b] [Kowalski 78] [Wiederhold 84]. That is, to preserve integrity of the Blocks World, we only need to check if the changes of the DB are consistent and allowed according to the semantics of the Blocks World.
In the interpreter, three of the four types of sentences can change the DB. Both facts and rules can add Horn Clauses into the DB, while a command adds some clauses and deletes some others. But, the determination of inconsistency of a rule with a set of rules is a complicated logic problem that has been discussed extensively and, has not been solved completely. Even though we can solve the problem in some cases, it usually demands lots of computing power, as well as a great deal of time.

The interpreter provides a mechanism for consistency constraints on facts and commands. That is, by stating the consistency constraints as rules of the form below, and by making the interpreter examine any new facts and commands with the rules, the DB integrity can be preserved. The rules are called as Consistency Rules.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{It is consistent that } & <\text{fact}> \\
\text{if } & <\text{constraints}> \\
\text{It is consistent to } & <\text{command}> \\
\text{if } & <\text{constraints}>
\end{align*}
\]

When we described the post-processing of facts and commands, we mentioned that the Horn Clauses of those sentences are checked with the consistency rules. If there is no rule to show that a clause of a sentence is consistent, the sentence will be rejected. (Actually, there will be backtracking for other possible interpretations of the sentence. If there is no interpretation which proves to be consistent according to any consistency rule, the sentence will be rejected.) For instance, if the consistency rules of Figure 3-3 had been provided, the inconsistent fact and command in the recorded session above would have been rejected.

In case of commands, we can put the consistency constraints in the programs directly. But, since there may be several rules for a command and this will make us state the constraints repeatedly, it is better to put the constraints separately. There are two occasions in which a command cannot accomplish the given task. The first one is the case that there is no program for the command currently, even though the command is consistent with the
It is consistent that a block is on X
if X is clear
and unless X is equal to a pyramid.

It is consistent to put a block on X
unless X is equal to a pyramid.

**Figure 3-3:** Examples of Consistency Rules

semantics of the Blocks World. In this case, by augmenting the program, we can make the interpreter accomplish the task. The second one is the case of an impossible command which is inconsistent with the semantics of the Blocks World, and which is prohibited by the consistency rules. In the latter case, augmenting the program does not change the situation.

When we make consistency rules for some commands, it is important to specify all the conditions in which the commands can be executed, even if the current programs for the commands can not accomplish the task. For example, in the case of the consistency rule for PUTON command, we may add the condition "unless X is clear", because the current programs can not execute the "put a block on X" if X is not clear. But, if we do so, then we will be in trouble when we augment the programs by using planning (See Section 3.6), because, by planning, it will be possible to execute the commands in the case of "X is not clear" while the consistency rule makes the command unacceptable. Therefore, we have to put all the possible conditions in consistency rules, even if some of them can not be accomplished currently.

By convention of HCTRANS, if there is no consistency rule for a predicate name at all, every fact or command of the predicate name will be accepted. The following recorded session is one with consistency rules for ON* and PUTON.

---

*Continued from the record session of the last section.*
{We type in the consistency rules of ON* and PUTON.}

- IT IS CONSISTENT THAT A BLOCK IS ON X
  - IF X IS CLEAR
  - AND X IS NOT EQUAL TO A PYRAMID.

(Asserted: ((CONSISTENT* (ON* (INST_VAR1) X)) IF
  (RELMATCH (INST_VAR1 BLOCK) (INST_VAR1))
  (CLEAR* X)
  (UNLESS+ (EQ* X (INST_VAR2))
    (RELMATCH (INST_VAR2 PYRAMID)
      (INST_VAR2)))))

- IT IS CONSISTENT TO PUT A BLOCK ON X
  - UNLESS X IS EQUAL TO A PYRAMID.

(Asserted: ((CONSISTENT* (PUTON (INST_VAR1) X)) IF
  (RELMATCH (INST_VAR1 BLOCK) (INST_VAR1))
  (UNLESS+ (EQ* X (INST_VAR2))
    (RELMATCH (INST_VAR2 PYRAMID)
      (INST_VAR2)))))

- ANOTHER WHITE BLOCK IS ON THE YELLOW BLOCK.

{With the consistency rules, this fact can not be
accepted, because the yellow block is a pyramid.
The fact is rejected.}

(Unacceptable Fact: (ON* (BLOCK DET ANOTHER COLOR WHITE)
  (BLOCK DET THE COLOR YELLOW)))

(Processing of input aborted)

- PUT THE WHITE BLOCK ON THE RED PYRAMID.

{Also this command is rejected according to the
consistency rules.}

(Unacceptable Command: (PUTON (BLOCK DET THE COLOR WHITE)
  (PYRAMID DET THE COLOR RED)))

(Processing of input aborted)
3.6 Planning

So far, the possible commands are atomic: they do only one operation (actually two or four primitive operations) at a time. This section gives the implementation of planning in the Blocks World. By planning, the interpreter will make a plan to accomplish the task which cannot be made directly, but can be made if some preparatory tasks are accomplished.

The most prominent planning scheme in the Blocks World is SCRIPT. There are several versions of it. Because SCRIPT itself is very complex, we will use a simple version of it. The program is described under the command "make" in Figure 3-4. Its argument(X) is a desired state or a set of desired states which must be accomplished at the same time. The algorithm tries to accomplish one state at a time. If an operation for one state undoes another operation which was done for another state, it tries to re-accomplish the broken state from the current state. The algorithm does not yield an optimal solution to some cases. But, it is enough to show that a complex problem-solving method like planning can be accomplished by translating English descriptions into rules.

*Print* commands are inserted to show the atomic operations. The consistent rule of this command requires that there be no circularity like "A is on B, B is on C and C is on A." Also the programs for the commands, PUTON and PICKUP, are augmented by the planning program.

The following session is one with the operator, "make." All the rules added are listed in the Appendix C.

{Continued from the last session.}

{Rules for "make" operator are typed in.}
X is made if X is true.

The fact that X is on Y is made
    if it is made that X is clear and Y is clear
    and the robotarm is clear
    and if it is printed that X is put on Y
    and if X is put on Y.

The fact that the robotarm is clear is made
    if X is on the robotarm
    and if X is put down.

The fact that the X is clear is made ~
    if Y is on X
    and if it is made that Y is clear
    and the robotarm is clear
    and if it is printed that Y is put on the table
    and if Y is put on the table.

X is made
    if X is equal to list (XI . R)
    and XI is made
    and R is made
    and X is checked.

X is checked if X is made.

---

**Figure 3-4:** Operator: Make

\(-X \text{ IS MADE IF } X \text{ IS TRUE .}\)

\((\text{Asserted: } ((\text{MAKE} \ast X) \text{ IF } (\text{TRUE} \ast X)))\)

\{******* Other rules are not shown here *******\}
\{******* See Appendix C *******\}

\{We will test the operator. The next two commands\}
make the state of the Blocks World to be the initial state of Section 3.3.

-PUT THE YELLOW BLOCK ON THE RED BLOCK.

(Deleted: (ON* (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW)
(INST 1 TABLE)))

(Asserted: (ON* (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW)
(INST 2 ROBOTARM)))

(Deleted: (ON* (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW)
(INST 2 ROBOTARM)))

(Asserted: (ON* (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW)
(INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED)))

-PUT THE RED PYRAMID ON THE BLUE BLOCK.

(Deleted: (ON* (INST 5 BLOCK SUB PYRAMID COLOR RED)
(INST 1 TABLE)))

(Asserted: (ON* (INST 5 BLOCK SUB PYRAMID COLOR RED)
(INST 2 ROBOTARM)))

(Deleted: (ON* (INST 5 BLOCK SUB PYRAMID COLOR RED)
(INST 2 ROBOTARM)))

(Asserted: (ON* (INST 5 BLOCK SUB PYRAMID COLOR RED)
(INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE)))

{We are ready to test the new operator.}
{The information about the asserted facts
and deleted facts will be suppressed.}

-MAKE IT THAT THE BLUE BLOCK IS ON THE RED BLOCK

- UNDER THE YELLOW BLOCK.

{Because the blue block is under the red pyramid and
the yellow block is on the red pyramid, we cannot
put the red block on the red block directly.}

(PUTON (INST 5 BLOCK SUB PYRAMID COLOR RED)
(INST 1 TABLE))  {This clears the blue block.}

(PUTON (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW)
(INST 1 TABLE))  {This clears the red block.}

(PUTON (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE)
(INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED))

{Another example.}
-MAKE IT THAT THE WHITE BLOCK IS ON THE LARGE RED BLOCK
- AND THE YELLOW BLOCK IS ON THE WHITE BLOCK.

(PUTON (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE)
(INST 1 TABLE))  {This clears the red block.}

(PUTON (INST 3 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR WHITE)
(INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED))

(PUTON (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW)
(INST 3 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR WHITE))

{An example of inconsistent command of "make".}
{The next fact is asserted because we need one more large block.}

-THERE IS ANOTHER LARGE YELLOW BLOCK ON THE TABLE.

(Asserted: (INST 8 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR YELLOW))
(Asserted: (ON* (INST 8 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR YELLOW)
(INST 1 TABLE)))

-MAKE IT THAT THE LARGE YELLOW BLOCK IS ON THE WHITE BLOCK
- AND THE WHITE BLOCK IS ON THE LARGE RED BLOCK
- AND THE LARGE RED BLOCK IS ON THE LARGE YELLOW BLOCK.

(Unacceptable Command:
(MAKE* ((ON*
(BLOCK DET THE SIZE LARGE COLOR YELLOW)
(BLOCK DET THE COLOR WHITE))
(ON*
(BLOCK DET THE COLOR WHITE)
(BLOCK DET THE SIZE LARGE COLOR RED))
(ON*
(BLOCK DET THE SIZE LARGE COLOR RED)
(BLOCK DET THE SIZE LARGE COLOR YELLOW))))

(Processing of input aborted)

{Because there is a circularity in the required states and they
can not be made at the same time, the command is rejected.}

{The programs of PUTON and PICKUP are augmented.}

-A BLOCK IS PICKED UP
- IF IT IS MADE THAT THE BLOCK IS ON THE ROBOTARM.

(Asserted: ((PICKUP (INST _VAR1)))
IF
  (RELMATCH (INST_VAR1 BLOCK) (INST_VAR1))
  (MAKE* (ON* (INST_VAR1) (INST 2 ROBOTARM))))

-A BLOCK IS PUT ON X
- IF IT IS MADE THAT THE BLOCK IS ON X.

(Asserted: ((PUTON (INST_VAR1) X)
  IF
  (RELMATCH (INST_VAR1 BLOCK) (INST_VAR1))
  (MAKE* (ON* (INST_VAR1) X))))

{By planning, the robotarm can pick up the white block
 on which the yellow pyramid is.}

-PICK THE WHITE BLOCK UP.

{Because there is a yellow block on the white block,
 the robotarm can not pick it up directly.}

(PUTON (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW)
  (INST 1 TABLE)) {It clears the white block.}

(PUTON (INST 3 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR WHITE)
  (INST 2 ROBOTARM))

-PUT THE WHITE BLOCK ON THE LARGE YELLOW BLOCK.

{This can be done directly.}

(Deleted: (ON* (INST 3 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR WHITE)
  (INST 2 ROBOTARM)))
(Asserted: (ON* (INST 3 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR WHITE)
  (INST 8 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR YELLOW)))

-PICK UP THE YELLOW PYRAMID.

(Deleted: (ON* (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW)
  (INST 1 TABLE)))
(Asserted: (ON* (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW)
  (INST 2 ROBOTARM)))

{Because currently the robotarm is holding a block,
 it has to put it down to move another block.}
-PUT THE BLUE BLOCK ON THE LARGE RED BLOCK .

(PUTDOWN (INST 7 PYRAMID COLOR YELLOW))

(PUTON (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE)
(INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED))

-PUT THE BLUE BLOCK ON THE TABLE .

(Deleted: (ON* (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE)
(INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED)))

(Asserted: (ON* (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE)
(INST 2 ROBOTARM)))

(Deleted: (ON* (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE)
(INST 2 ROBOTARM)))

(Asserted: (ON* (INST 4 BLOCK SIZE SMALL COLOR BLUE)
(INST 1 TABLE)))

{An example which does not yield the best plan.}

-MAKE IT THAT THE RED BLOCK IS ON THE WHITE BLOCK AND

- THE YELLOW BLOCK IS ON THE RED BLOCK .

(PUTON (INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED)
(INST 3 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR WHITE))

(PUTON (INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED) (INST 1 TABLE))

{This is undoing the first movement above.}

(PUTON (INST 3 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR WHITE) (INST 1 TABLE))

(PUTON (INST 8 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR YELLOW)
(INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED))

(PUTON (INST 8 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR YELLOW) (INST 1 TABLE))

{This is undoing the movement above.}

(PUTON (INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED)
(INST 3 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR WHITE))

(PUTON (INST 8 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR YELLOW)
(INST 6 BLOCK SIZE LARGE COLOR RED))

{The planning mechanism used in this experiment is a simple
one. More complicated planning scheme which yields a better
solution can be found in [Rich 83].}

{End of record session.}