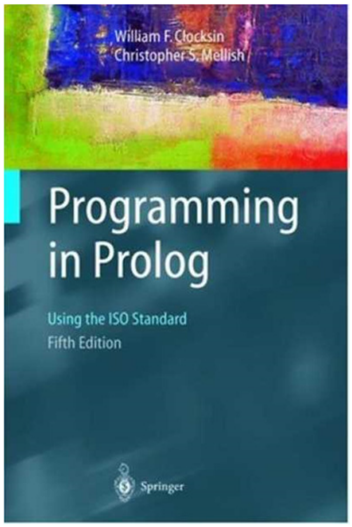
CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

Logic Programming with Prolog

Background

- 1972, University of Aix-Marseille
- Original goal: Natural language processing
- At first, just an interpreter written in Algol
  - Compiler created at Univ. of Edinburgh

More Information On Prolog



- Various tutorials available online
- Links on webpage

Logic Programming

- At a high level, logic programs model the relationship between “objects”
  1. Programmer specifies relationships at a high level
  2. Language builds a database
  3. Programmer then queries this database
  4. Language searches for answers

Features of Prolog

- Declarative
  - Specify what goals you want to prove, not how to prove them (mostly)
- Rule based
- Dynamically typed
- Several built-in datatypes
  - Lists, numbers, records, … but no functions
- Several other logic programming languages
  - Datalog is simpler; CLP and λProlog more feature-ful
  - Erlang borrows some features from Prolog

A Small Prolog Program – Things to Notice

Use /* */ for comments, or % for 1-liners

Period ends statements

Lowercase logically terminates

Program consists of facts and rules

Uppercase denotes variables

```
/* A small Prolog program */

female(alice).
male(bob).
male(charlie).
father(bob, charlie).
mother(alice, charlie).

% "X is a son of Y"
son(X, Y) :- father(Y, X), male(X).
son(X, Y) :- mother(Y, X), male(X).
```

Running Prolog (Interactive Mode)

Navigating location and loading program at top level

```
?- working_directory(C,C).
C = 'c:/windows/system32/'.
```

Find current directory

```
?- working_directory(C,'c:/Users/me/desktop/p6').
C = 'c:/Users/me/desktop/'.
```

Set directory

```
?- ['01-basics.pl'].
% 01-basics.pl compiled 0.00 sec, 17 clauses
true.
```

Load file 01-basics.pl

```
?- make.
true.
```

Reload modified files; replace rules

Running Prolog (Interactive Mode)

Listing rules and entering queries at top level

```
?- listing(son).
son(X, Y) :-
   father(Y, X),
   male(X).
son(X, Y) :-
   mother(Y, X),
   male(X).
true.
```

List rules for son

```
?- son(X,Y).
X = charlie,
Y = bob;
X = charlie,
Y = alice.
```

User types ; to request additional answer

Multiple answers

User types return to complete request

Style

One predicate per line

```
blond(X) :-
   father(Father, X),
   blond(Father),        % father is blond
   mother(Mother, X),
   blond(Mother).        % and mother is blond
```

Descriptive variable names

Inline comments with % can be useful

Outline

- Syntax, terms, examples
- Unification
- Arithmetic / evaluation
- Programming conventions
- Goal evaluation
  - Search tree, clause tree
- Lists
- Built-in operators
- Cut, negation

Prolog Syntax and Terminology

- Terms
  - Atoms: begin with a lowercase letter
    horse underscores_ok numbers2
  - Numbers
    123 -234 -12e-4
  - Variables: begin with uppercase or _ "don't care" variables
    X Biggest_Animal _the_biggest1 _
  - Compound terms: functor(arguments)
    bigger(horse, duck)
    bigger(X, duck)
    f(a, g(X, _), Y, _)
    No blank spaces between functor and (arguments)

Prolog Syntax and Terminology (cont.)

- Clauses
  - Facts: define predicates, terminated by a period
    bigger(horse, duck).
    bigger(duck, gnat).
    Intuitively: "this particular relationship is true"
  - Rules: Head :- Body
    is_bigger(X,Y) :- bigger(X,Y).
    is_bigger(X,Y) :- bigger(X,Z), is_bigger(Z,Y).
    Intuitively: "Head if Body", or "Head is true if each of the subgoals can be shown to be true"
- A program is a sequence of clauses

Prolog Syntax and Terminology (cont.)

- Queries
  - To "run a program" is to submit queries to the interpreter
  - Same structure as the body of a rule
    - Predicates separated by commas, ended with a period
  - Prolog tries to determine whether or not predicates are true

```
?- is_bigger(horse, duck).
?- is_bigger(horse, X).
```

"Does there exist a substitution for X such that is_bigger(horse,X)?"

Without which, nothing

Unification – The Sine Qua Non of Prolog

- Two terms unify if and only *if*
  - They are identical

```
?- gnat = gnat.
true.
```

  - They can be made identical by substituting variables

```
?- is_bigger(X, gnat) = is_bigger(horse, gnat).
X = horse.
```

This is the substitution: what X must be for the two terms to be identical.

```
?- pred(X, 2, 2) = pred(1, Y, X)
false
```

Sometimes there are multiple possible substitutions; Prolog can be asked to enumerate them all

```
?- pred(X, 2, 2) = pred(1, Y, _)
X = 1,
Y = 2.
```

The = Operator

- For unification (matching)
- ?- 9 = 9.
  true.
  ?- 7 + 2 = 9.
  false.
- Why? Because these terms do not match
  - 7+2 is a compound term (e.g., +(7,2))
- Prolog does not evaluate either side of =
  - Before trying to match

The Is Operator

- For arithmetic operations
- "LHS is RHS"
  - First evaluate the RHS (and RHS only!) to value V
  - Then match: LHS = V
- Examples

?- 9 is 7+2. true.	?- 7+2 is 9. false.
?- X = 7+2. X = 7+2.	?- X is 7+2. X = 9.

No Assignment

- = and is operators do not perform assignment
- Example
  - foo(...,X) :- ... X = 1,... % true only if X = 1
  - foo(...,X) :- ... X = 1, ..., X = 2, ... % always fails
  - foo(...,X) :- ... X is 1,... % true only if X = 1
  - foo(...,X) :- ... X is 1, ..., X is 2, ... % always fails

X can't be unified with 1 & 2 at the same time

Function Parameter & Return Value

- Code example

Parameter

Return value

```
increment(X,Y) :-
    Y is X+1.
?- increment(1,Z).        Query
Z = 2.                    Result
?- increment(1,2).
true.
?- increment(Z,2).
ERROR: incr/2: Arguments are not sufficiently instantiated
```

Can't evaluate X+1 since X is not yet instantiated to int

Function Parameter & Return Value

- Code example

Parameters
Return value

```
addN(X,N,Y) :-
    Y is X+N.
```

```
?- addN(1,2,Z).
Z = 3.
```

Query
Result

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Recursion

- Code example

```
addN(X,0,X).
addN(X,N,Y) :-
    X1 is X+1,
    N1 is N-1,
    addN(X1,N1,Y).
```

Base case
Inductive step
Recursive call

```
?- addN(1,2,Z).
Z = 3.
```

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Factorial

- Code

```
factorial(0,1).
factorial(N,F) :-
    N > 0,
    N1 is N-1,
    factorial(N1,F1),
    F is N*F1.
```


Tail Recursive Factorial w/ Accumulator

- Code

```
tail_factorial(0,F,F).
tail_factorial(N,A,F) :-
   N > 0,
   A1 is N*A,
   N1 is N -1,
   tail_factorial(N1,A1,F).
```

And and OR

- And
  - To implement X &&Y (use , in body of clause)
  - Example

    Z :- X,Y.
- OR
  - To implement X || Y (use two clauses)
  - Example

    Z :- X.
    Z :- Y.

Goal Execution

- When submitting a query, we ask Prolog to substitute variables as necessary to make it true
- Prolog performs goal execution to find a solution
  - Start with the goal
  - Try to unify the head of a rule with the current goal
  - The rule hypotheses become subgoals
    - Substitutions from one subgoal constrain solutions to the next
  - If it reaches a dead end, it backtracks
    - Tries a different rule
  - When it can backtrack no further, it reports false
- More advanced topics later – cuts, negation, etc.

Goal Execution (cont.)

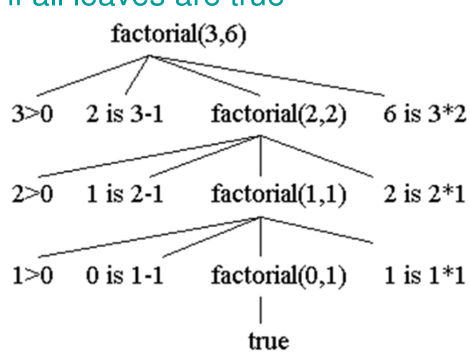
- Consider the following:
  - "All men are mortal"
    mortal(X) :- man(X).
  - "Socrates is a man"
    man(socrates).
  - "Is Socrates mortal?"
    ?- mortal(socrates).
    true.
- How did Prolog infer this?

1. Sets mortal(socrates) as the initial goal
2. Sees if it unifies with the head of any clause:
   mortal(socrates) = mortal(X).
3. man(socrates) becomes the new goal (since X=socrates)
4. Recursively scans through all clauses, backtracking if needed …

Clause Tree

- Clause tree
  - Shows (recursive) evaluation of all clauses
  - Shows value (instance) of variable for each clause
  - Clause tree is true if all leaves are true
- Factorial example

```
factorial(0,1).
factorial(N,F) :-
        N > 0,
        N1 is N-1,
        factorial(N1,F1),
        F is N*F1.
```



Tracing

- trace lets you step through a goal's execution
  - notrace turns it off

```
1 my_last(X, [X]).

2 my_last(X, [_|T]) :-
          my_last(X, T).
```

```
?- trace.
true.

[trace]  ?- my_last(X, [1,2,3]).
2  Call: (6) my_last(_G2148, [1, 2, 3]) ? creep
2  Call: (7) my_last(_G2148, [2, 3]) ? creep
1  Call: (8) my_last(_G2148, [3]) ? creep
   Exit: (8) my_last(3, [3]) ? creep
   Exit: (7) my_last(3, [2, 3]) ? creep
   Exit: (6) my_last(3, [1, 2, 3]) ? creep
X = 3
```

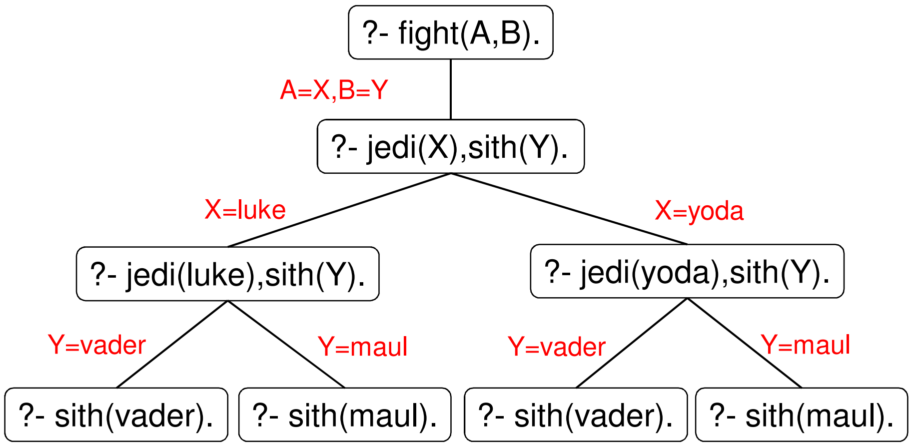

Goal Execution – Backtracking

- Clauses are tried in order
- If clause fails, try next clause, if available
- Example

```
jedi(luke).
jedi(yoda).
sith(vader).
sith(maul).
fight(X,Y) :- jedi(X), sith(Y).
```

```
?- fight(A,B).
A=luke,
B=vader;
A=luke,
B=maul;
A=yoda,
B=vader;
A=yoda,
B=maul.
```

Prolog (Search / Proof / Execution) Tree



Lists In Prolog

- [a, b, 1, ‘hi’, [X, 2]]
- But really represented as compound terms
  - [ ] is an atom
  - [a, b, c] is represented as .(a, .(b, .(c, [])))
- Matching over lists

```
?- [X, 1, Z] = [a, _, 17]
X = a,
Z = 17.
```

List Deconstruction

- Syntactically similar to Ocaml: [H|T] like h::t

```
?- [Head | Tail] = [a,b,c].
Head = a,
Tail = [b, c].

?- [1,2,3,4] = [ _, X | _].
X = 2
```

- This is sufficient for defining complex predicates
- Let's define concat(L1, L2, C)

```
?- concat([a,b,c], [d,e,f], X).
X = [a,b,c,d,e,f].
```


Example: Concatenating Lists

- To program this, we define the "rules" of concatenation
  - If L1 is empty, then C = L2

    ```
    concat( [ ], L2, L2 ).
    ```

  - Prepending a new element to L1 prepends it to C, so long as C is the concatenation of L1 with some L2

    ```
    concat( [E | L1], L2, [E | C] ) :-
       concat(L1, L2, C).
    ```

- … and we're done

Why Is The Return Value An Argument?

- Now we can ask what inputs lead to an output

```
?- concat(X, Y, [a,b,c]).
X = [ ],
Y = [a, b, c] ;
X = [a],
Y = [b, c] ;
X = [a, b],
Y = [c] ;
X = [a, b, c],
Y = [ ] ;
```

User types ; to request additional answers

More Syntax: Built-in Predicates

- Equality (a.k.a. unification)
  - X = Y   f(1,X,2) = f(Y,3,_)
- fail and true
- "Consulting" (loading) programs
  - ?- consult('file.pl')   ?- ['file.pl']
- Output/Input
  - ?- write('Hello world'), nl   ?- read(X).
- (Dynamic) type checking
  - ?- atom(elephant)   ?- atom(Elephant)
- help

The == Operator

- For identity comparisons
- X == Y
  - Returns true if and only if X and Y are identical
- Examples

```
?- 9 == 9.          ?- 9 == 7+2.
true.               false.
?- X == 9.          ?- X == Y.
False.              false.
?- X == X.          ?- 7+2 == 7+2.
true.               true.
```


The =:= Operator

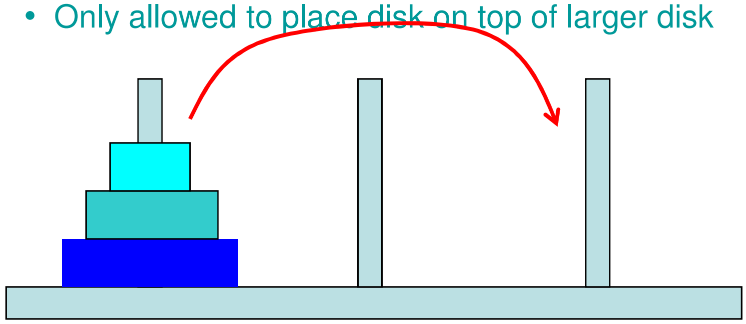
- For arithmetic operations
- “LHS =:= RHS”
  - Evaluate the LHS to value V1 (Error if not possible)
  - Evaluate the RHS to value V2 (Error if not possible)
  - Then match: V1 = V2
- Examples

```
?- 7+2 =:= 9.       ?- 7+2 =:= 3+6.
true.               true.

?- X =:= 9.         ?- X =:= 7+2
Error: =:=/2: Arguments are not sufficiently instantiated
```

Example – Towers of Hanoi

- Problem
  - Move stack of disks between pegs
  - Can only move top disk in stack
  - Only allowed to place disk on top of larger disk



Example – Towers of Hanoi

- To move a stack of n disks from peg X to Y
  - Base case
    - If n = 1, move disk from X to Y
  - Recursive step
    1. Move top n-1 disks from X to 3rd peg
    2. Move bottom disk from X to Y
    3. Move top n-1 disks from 3rd peg to Y

Iterative algorithm would take much longer to describe!

Towers of Hanoi

- Code

```
move(1,X,Y,_) :-
    write('Move top disk from '), write(X),
    write(' to '), write(Y), nl.
move(N,X,Y,Z) :-
    N>1,
    M is N-1,
    move(M,X,Z,Y),
    move(1,X,Y,_),
    move(M,Z,Y,X).
```


Prolog Terminology

- A query, goal, or term where variables do not occur is called ground; else it's nonground
  - foo(a,b) is ground; bar(X) is nonground
- A substitution θ is a partial map from variables to terms where domain(θ) ∩ range(θ) = ∅
  - Variables are terms, so a substitution can map variables to other variables, but not to themselves
- A is an instance of B if there is a substitution such that A = Bθ `The substitution θ applied to B`
- C is a common instance of A and B if it is an instance of A and an instance of B

Prolog's Algorithm Solve()

Starts as empty

Solve(goal G, program P, substitution θ) =

- Suppose G is $A_1,\ldots,A_n$. Choose goal A_1.
- For each clause A :- $B_1,B_2,\ldots,B_k$ in P,
  - if θ_1 is the mgu of A and $A_1\theta$ then
    - If Solve($\{B_1,\ldots,B_k,A_2,\ldots,A_n\}$, P, $\theta\cdot\theta_1$) = some θ' then **return** θ'
    - (else it has failed, so we continue the for loop)
  - (else unification has failed, so try another rule)
- If loop exits return fail
- Output: θ s.t. $G\theta$ can be deduced from P, or fail

Chooses goals in order

Most General Unifier

Implements backtracking

! : a.k.a. "cut"

- When a ! is reached, it succeeds and commits Prolog to all the choices made since the parent goal was unified with the head of the clause the cut occurs in
  - Suppose we have clause C which is A :- $B_1,\ldots,B_k,!,\ldots B_n$.
  - If the current goal unifies with A, and $B_1,\ldots,B_k$ further succeed, the program is committed to the choice of C for the goal.
    - If any B_i for $i > k$ fail, backtracking only goes as far as the cut.
    - If the cut is reached when backtracking, the goal fails

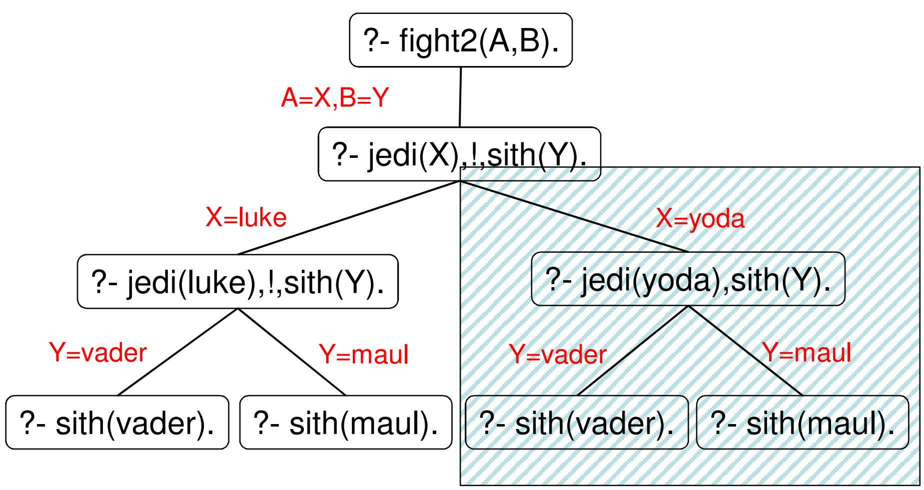
Cut

- Limits backtracking to predicates to right of cut
- Example

```
jedi(luke).
jedi(yoda).
sith(vader).
sith(maul).
fight2(X,Y) :- jedi(X), !, sith(Y).
fight3(X,Y) :- jedi(X), sith(Y), !.
```

```
?- fight2(A,B).
A=luke,
B=vader;
A=luke,
B=maul.
?- fight3(A,B).
A=luke,
B=vader.
```


Prolog Search Tree Limited By Cut



What Exactly Is Cut Doing?

merge([X|Xs], [Y|Ys], [X|Zs]) :-
~~X < Y~~, !, merge(Xs, [Y|Ys], Zs).

merge([X|Xs], [Y|Ys], [X,Y|Zs]) :-
X =:= Y, !, merge(Xs,Ys,Zs).

merge([X|Xs], [Y|Ys], [Y|Zs]) :-
X > Y, !, merge([X|Xs],Ys,Zs).

merge(Xs, [], Xs) :- !.

merge([], Ys, Ys) :- !.

Prunes all clauses below it

Prunes alternative solutions to its left

Does *not* affect the goals to its right

Note: Cut only affects this call to merge. Does not affect backtracking of functions calling merge, or later recursive call to merge past cut

Why Use Cuts?

- Save time and space, or eliminate redundancy
  - Prune useless branches in the search tree
  - If sure these branches will not lead to solutions
  - These are green cuts
- Guide to the search to a different solution
  - Change the meaning of the program
  - Intentionally returning only subset of possible solutions
  - These are red cuts

Negation As Failure

- Cut may be used implement negation (not)
- Example

```
not(X) :- call(X), !, fail.
not(X).
```

- If X succeeds, then the cut is reached, committing it; fail causes the whole thing to fail
- If X fails, then the second rule is reached, and the overall goal succeeds.
  - FYI, X here refers to an arbitrary goal
  - Effect of not depends crucially on rule order

Not

- Not is tricky to use
  - Does not mean "not true"
  - Just means "not provable at this time"
- Example

```
jedi(luke).
jedi(vader).
sith(vader).
```

```
?- not(sith(luke)).
true.
?- not(sith(vader)).
false.
?- not(jedi(leia)).
true.
?- not(sith(leia)).
true.
```

Cannot prove either jedi(leia) or sith(leia) are true, so not( ) returns true

Not (cont.)

- Not is tricky to use
  - Does not mean "not true"
  - Just means "not provable at this time"
- Example

jedi(luke).
jedi(vader).
sith(vader).

?- not(sith(X)).
false.

Huh? Why not return X=luke?

Because not(sith(X)) does not mean "Can prove sith(X) is false for some X"

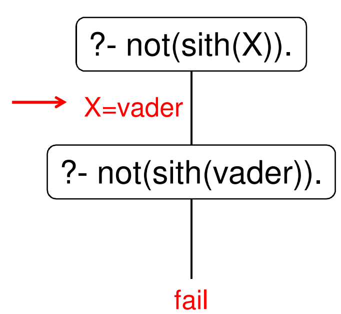
```
not(sith(X)) :- sith(X), !, fail.
not(sith(X)).
```

Instead, it means "Cannot prove sith(X) is true for some X". So X=vader causes not(sith(X)) to fail and return false

Not – Search Tree

```
jedi(luke).       not(sith(X)) :- sith(X), !, fail.
jedi(vader).      not(sith(X)).
sith(vader).
```

Will search for all X such that sith(X) is true.



Not (cont.)

- Ordering of clauses matters
- Example

```
jedi(luke).
jedi(vader).
sith(vader).
true_jedi1(X) :-
    jedi(X), not(sith(X)).
true_jedi2(X) :-
    not(sith(X)), jedi(X).
```

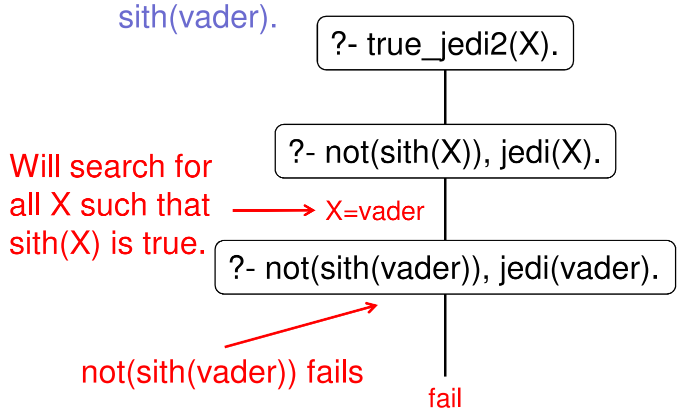
```
?- true_jedi1(luke).
true.
?- true_jedi1(X).
X=luke.
?- true_jedi2(luke).
true.
?- true_jedi2(X).
false.
```

X=vader causes not(sith(X)) to fail;
Will not backtrack to X=luke, since
sith(luke) is not a fact

True_jedi2 – Search Tree

```
jedi(luke).
jedi(luke).
sith(vader).
```

```
not(sith(X)) :- sith(X), !, fail.
not(sith(X)).
```



Not and \=

- Built-in operators
  - \+ is not
  - X \= Y is same as not(X=Y)
  - X \== Y is same as not(X==Y)
- So be careful using \=
  - Ordering of clauses matters
  - Try to ensure operands of \= are instantiated

Example Using \=

- Example

```
jedi(luke).
jedi(yoda).
help2(X,Y) :- jedi(X), jedi(Y), X \= Y.
help3(X,Y) :- jedi(X), X \= Y, jedi(Y).
help4(X,Y) :- X \= Y, jedi(X), jedi(Y).
```

```
?- help2(X,Y).
X=luke,
Y=yoda;
X=yoda,
Y=luke.
?- help3(X,luke).
X=yoda.
?- help3(X,Y).
false.
```

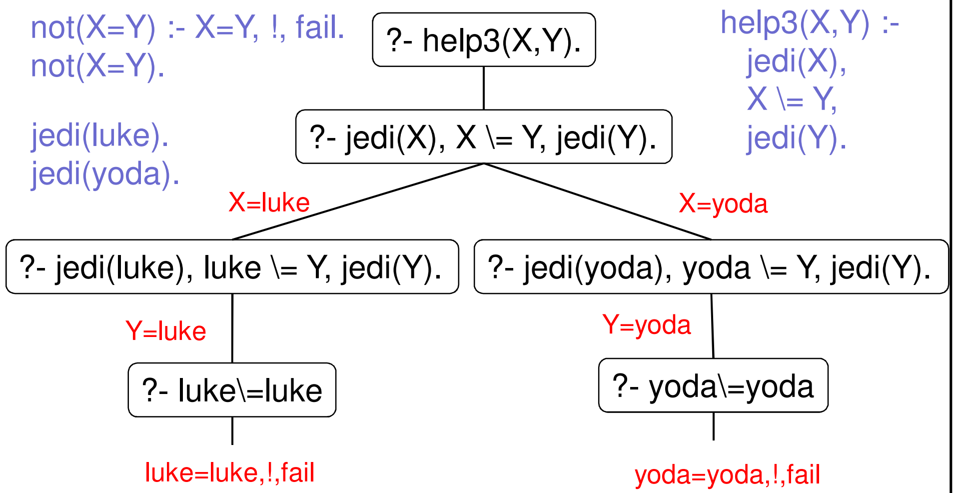
After selecting X, can choose Y=X and fail X \= Y.

Help3 – Search Tree

```
not(X=Y) :- X=Y, !, fail.
not(X=Y).

jedi(luke).
jedi(yoda).
```

```
help3(X,Y) :-
  jedi(X),
  X \= Y,
  jedi(Y).
```



Using \=

- In fact, given X \= Y
  - will always fail if X or Y are not both instantiated

```
X \= a    // fails for X=a
a \= Y    // fails for Y=a
X \= Y    // fails for X=Y
```

Example Using \=

- Example

```
jedi(luke).
jedi(yoda).
help2(X,Y) :- jedi(X), jedi(Y), X \= Y.
help3(X,Y) :- jedi(X), X \= Y, jedi(Y).
help4(X,Y) :- X \= Y, jedi(X), jedi(Y).
```

```
?- help4(X,luke).
false.
?- help4(yoda,luke).
true.
```


Built-in List Predicates

- length(List,Length)

```
?- length([a, b, [1,2,3] ], Length).
Length = 3.
```

- member(Elem,List)

```
?- member(duey, [huey, duey, luey]).
true.
?- member(X, [huey, duey, luey]).
X = huey; X = duey; X = luey.
```

- append(List1,List2,Result)

```
?- append([duey], [huey, duey, luey], X).
X = [duey, huey, duey, luey].
```

Built-in Predicates

- sort(List,SortedList)

  ?- sort([2,1,3], R).
  R= [1,2,3].

- findall(Elem,Predicate,ResultList)

  ?- findall(E,member(E,[huey, duey, luey]),R).
  R=[huey,duey,luey].

- setof(Elem,Predicate,ResultSortedList)

  ?- setof(E,member(E,[huey, duey, luey]),R).
  R=[duey,huey,luey].

- See documentation for more
  - http://www.swi-prolog.org/pldoc/man?section=builtin

Prolog Summary

- General purpose logic programming language
  - Associated with AI, computational linguistics
  - Also used for theorem proving, expert systems
- Declarative programming
  - Specify facts & relationships between facts (rules)
  - Run program as queries over these specifications
- Natural support for
  - Searching within set of constraints
  - Backtracking