# That scripting language called Prolog

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Types, Theorems, and Programming Languages

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# The four programming paradigms

Paradigm	Example	Programs are	Difficulty is in	Best used in
Imperative	Fortran	lists of commands	order of updates	numerics
Functional	Lisp	expressions	level of abstraction	compilers
Logic	Prolog	sets of predicates	runtime behavior	symbolic AI
Constraint	T <sub>E</sub> X	data + constraints	conflicting modules	specific domain

• Objects, type systems, modules, concurrency, etc., are merely *features* added on top of a *chosen paradigm* 

#### A definition of "declarative"

Programming is "declarative" when *specifications are programs*. More formally:

A language L is declarative for an application domain D if:

- The domain D has a good specification formalism F
  - "good" = visual, pragmatically convenient, complete for the domain D
- There is an obvious syntactic transformation from F to L
- The resulting program implements the specification

#### Less formally:

A declarative language is a "perfect DSL" for the given domain

#### Example: declarative FORTRAN 77

- Application domain: numerical mathematical expressions
- Specification: a mathematical formula involving numbers and functions
- Example specification:

$$f(x, p, q) = \frac{\sin px}{x^2} - \frac{\sin^2 qx}{x^3}$$

- ► Implementation: F(X,P,Q)=SIN(P\*X)/X\*\*2-(SIN(Q\*X))\*\*2/X\*\*3
- For more complicated tasks, FORTRAN is not declarative

$$\tilde{X}_k = Y_k - \sum_{j=k+1}^n A_{kj} X_j, \quad \forall k \in [1..n]$$

(example code, 1987)

### Example: declarative Haskell 98

- Application domain: recursively defined, algebraic data structures
- Specifications: inductive definitions of functions on ADTs
- Example (from R. Sedgewick, Algorithms in C, 1998)

**Definition 5.1** A binary tree is either an external node or an internal node connected to a pair of binary trees, which are called the left subtree and the right subtree of that node.

This definition makes it plain that the hinary tree itself is an ab-

data BTree  $\alpha$  = BTNode  $\alpha$  | BTVertex  $\alpha$  (BTree  $\alpha$ ) (BTree  $\alpha$ )

### Example: declarative Haskell 98, continued

Definition 5.6 The level of a node in a tree is one higher than the level of its parent (with the root at level 0). The height of a tree is the maximum of the levels of the tree's nodes. The path length of a tree is the sum of the levels of all the tree's nodes. The internal path

```
height :: BTree \alpha \to \text{Int} height (BTNode _) = 0 height (BTVertex _ t1 t2) = 1 + max (height t1) (height t2)
```

#### Example: non-declarative Haskell

For a different application domain, Haskell is *not* declarative!

• Downloading data from server (from "Real World Haskell", 2008)

# Prolog as a DSL for logic puzzles

```
All jumping creatures are green. All small jumping creatures are martians.
All green martians are intelligent.
Ngtrks is small and green. Pgvdrk is a jumping martian.
Who is intelligent? (inpired by S. Lem, Invasion from Aldebaran)
    small(ngtrks). green(ngtrks).
    martian(pgvdrk). jumping(pgvdrk).
    green(X) :- jumping(X).
    martian(X) :- small(X), jumping(X).
    intelligent(X) :- green(X), martian(X).
    main :-
      intelligent(X), format('~w is intelligent.~n', X), halt.
    $ swipl -o martians -q -t main -c martians.pl
    $ ./martians
    pgvdrk is intelligent.
                                           ◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆三▶ ◆三 ◆○○○
```

### Prolog in a nutshell 1: symbols, predicates, rules

- Outer-level lower symbols are logical predicates
  - All other lowercase symbols are symbolic constants
- All capitalized symbols are quantified logical variables (LVs)
- ullet LVs on the left imply  $\forall$ ; free LVs on the right imply  $\exists$
- The symbol :- means implication ←, the comma means "and"
- Rules can be given in any order; no declarations
- Examples:

```
green(X) :- jumping(X) means \forall X : green(X) \leftarrow jumping(X) path(A,B) :- path(A,C), path(C,B) means \forall A, B : [\exists C : path(A,C) \land path(C,B) \rightarrow path(A,B)]
```

main :- intelligent(X) means: prove that ∃X:intelligent(X)

### Prolog in a nutshell 2: variables

"Martians" recap:

```
small(ngtrks). green(ngtrks).
martian(pgvdrk). jumping(pgvdrk).
green(X) :- jumping(X).
martian(X) :- small(X), jumping(X).
intelligent(X) :- green(X), martian(X).
```

- main :- intelligent(X) means: prove that ∃X:intelligent(X)
- The Prolog engine will prove existence of X by backtracking search!
   (we can say "trace" and follow the search)

# Prolog in a nutshell 2: backtracking search

#### "Martians" recap:

```
small(ngtrks). green(ngtrks).
martian(pgvdrk). jumping(pgvdrk).
green(X) :- jumping(X).
martian(X) :-
small(X), jumping(X).
intelligent(X) :-
green(X), martian(X).
?- intelligent(X).
```

```
[trace] ?- intelligent(X).
 Call: (6) intelligent( G2442)
 Call: (7) green( G2442)
 Exit: (7) green(ngtrks)
 Call: (7) martian(ngtrks)
 Call: (8) small(ngtrks)
 Exit: (8) small(ngtrks)
 Call: (8) jumping(ngtrks)
 Fail: (8) jumping(ngtrks)
 Fail: (7) martian(ngtrks)
 Redo: (7) green( G2442)
 Call: (8) jumping(G2442)
 Exit: (8) jumping(pgvdrk)
 Exit: (7) green(pgvdrk)
 Call: (7) martian(pgvdrk)
 Exit: (7) martian(pgvdrk)
 Exit: (6) intelligent(pgvdrk)
X = pgvdrk.
```

- The proof may fail, or may succeed in more than one way
- LVs are assigned by unification and unassigned on backtracking
- Once assigned, a logical variable is *immutable* 
  - ▶ This is called "resolution of Horn clauses" and "unification"

#### Horn clauses and "resolution"

- Consider a restricted fragment of predicate logic:
  - Expressions are conjunctions of "Horn clauses":

$$(a \land b \land ... \land c \rightarrow d) \land (p \land q \land ... \land r \rightarrow s) \land (\mathsf{True} \rightarrow w) \land ...$$

Disjunction is expressible through Horn clauses:

$$(a \lor b) \to c = (a \to c) \land (b \to c)$$

▶ Only  $\forall$  quantifiers are allowed, and only outside:

$$\forall X \forall Y : a(X,Y) \land b(Y) \rightarrow c(X)$$

- Prolog syntax: quantifiers are implicit; implication points leftward
- "Resolution":

$$(c \leftarrow a \land p \land q) \Leftarrow \begin{cases} b \leftarrow a \land p \\ c \leftarrow b \land q \end{cases}$$

#### Examples: recursive predicates

- Factorial predicate: fact(N,F) holds if F = N! fact(1,1).
   fact(N,F) :- M is N-1, fact(M,E), F is E\*N.
- Fibonacci predicate: fibo(N,F) holds if F is N-th Fibonacci number fibo(0,1). fibo(1,1).
   fibo(N,F):- M1 is N-1, fibo(M1,E1),
   M2 is N-2, fibo(M2,E2), F is E1+E2.
- Instead of computing F through calling a function, we prove existence
  of a value F such that some predicate holds.
- Prolog has only predicates no declarations, expressions, functions, variables, or static types
  - Note: M is N-1 resembles an expression but is actually a predicate!
  - ▶ it means is(M, '-'(N,1)), where '-' is an infix data constructor!

### Prolog in a nutshell 2: syntax extensions

- Syntax for data structures: "passive predicates" (a distinct namespace)
   left(pair(X,Y), X). right(pair(X,Y), Y).
  - since pair (X,Y) is inside a predicate, it must be data
  - ▶ however, pair(X,Y) can contain free logical variables
  - and so can contain any other structures (no typechecking!): pair(pair(X,Y),pair(Y,pair(Z,T)))
- Syntax sugar for lists: [] or [a,b,c] or [a,b,c|[]]
  - Similar to Haskell's a:b:c:[]
  - Examples:

```
head([X|Xs], X). tail([X|Xs], Xs). empty([]).
length([], 0).
length([X|Xs],N) = length(Xs,M), N is M+1.
```

User-defined syntax: infix, prefix, postfix
 op(400, xfy, \*). op(300, yfx, ^). op(200, xf, :!).

#### What is "unification"?

- Unification is Prolog's way of "assigning values to variables"
- Pattern-matching of recursive structures, fitting unassigned variables
- Assignment is propagated to other rules: like(1). like(2). like(you\_know(Y,X)) :- like(X), like(Y). really(A,B) :- like(A), like(you\_know(A,B).
- The predicate really(1,2) holds because like(you\_know(Y,X)) is unified with like(you\_know(1,2)) to yield Y = 1 and X = 2

#### "Pointers made safe": difference lists

• Appending ordinary lists takes O(n) operations:

```
1_append([], X, X).
1_append([X|Xs], Y, [X|Zs]) :- 1_append(Xs, Y, Zs).
```

- To optimize, we need a "pointer to the end of the list"!
  - "having a pointer" = a part of a data structure is not yet assigned
  - solution: a free LV is exposed, unified with some part of the data
- Difference lists: pair([a,b,c|X],X) or [a,b,c|X]-X
   op(500, xfy, -). empty(X-X).
   dl\_append(X-Y,Y-Z,X-Z). /\* O(1) operations! \*/
   [trace] ?- dl\_append([a,b,c|A]- A, [d,e|B]-B, C).
   dl\_append([a, b, c|\_G2447]-\_G2447, [d, e|\_G2456]-\_G2456, \_G2463)
   dl\_append([a, b, c, d, e|\_G2456]-[d, e|\_G2456], [d, e|\_G2456]-\_G2456,
   [a, b, c, d, e|\_G2456]-\_G2456)
   A = [d, e|B], C = [a, b, c, d, e|B]-B.

#### "Pointers made safe": difference lists

#### How this works in more detail:

- We have the program dl\_append(X-Y,Y-Z,X-Z).
- We have the query ?- dl\_append([a,b,c|A]-A, [d,e|B]-B, C).
- The value of Y can be unified with the query structure only
  if we assign Y=A and also Y=[d,e|B] and Z=B.
- Thus we must have A=[d,e|B]
- Therefore X must be assigned [a,b,c|A]=[a,b,c,d,e|B]
- Finally C=X-Z=[a,b,c,d,e|B]-B



### "Pointers made safe": queues

• Implement insertion at end of queue:

```
list_to_queue(L,Q-Y) :- l_append(L,Y,Q). /* O(n) */
q_insert_at_end(E, Q-[E|Y], Q-Y). /* O(1) */
q_head(E, [E|Q]-Y, Q-Y).

[trace]
?- q_insert_at_end(n, [a,b,c|X]-X, Q).
X = [n|_G1726], Q = [a, b, c, n|_G1726]-_G1726.
?- q_head(X, [a,b,c,n|Y]-Y, Z).
X = a, Z = [b, c, n|Y]-Y.
```

#### "Pointers made safe": iterators

- A list iterator: set at begin, increment, check if at end
- Split the list into a pair of queues
- Effectively, we have a pointer to the middle of a list:

### Parsing with Definite Clause Grammars

Top-down parsing with unlimited backtracking...

```
expr ::== term | term oper expr | '(' expr ')'
oper ::== 'and' | 'or' | ...
term ::== 'true' | 'false' | ...
```

...is similar to Prolog's evaluation strategy on token queues:

```
expr(Ts) :- term(Ts).
expr(Ts-X) :- term(Ts-T1), op(T1-T2), expr(T2-X).
oper([T|X]-X) :- T='and'. oper([T|X]-X) :- T='or'. /* etc. */
term([T|X]-X) :- T='true'. term([T|X]-X) :- T='false'. /* etc. */
```

• Syntactic sugar (-->) is provided to avoid writing out the queues

```
expr --> term. expr --> term, oper, expr. expr --> ['('], expr, [')'].
oper --> ['and']. oper --> ['or']. term --> ['true']. term --> ['false'].
/* test: */ ?- expr(['true', 'and', 'false', 'or', 'true'], []).
```

- Nonterminals can have extra arguments and call Prolog code
  - No need for Lex/Yacc (but they do other grammars...)
  - Can parse some non-CFG grammars ("attributed" grammars)

#### Interpreters

A lambda-calculus interpreter in 3 lines of Prolog?...

```
:- op(1190, xfy, ~>). :- op(1180, yfx, @).
comp(A^{\sim}>B, A^{\sim}>B). comp((A^{\sim}>B) @ A, B).
comp(A@B@C, R) :- comp(A@B,S), comp(S@C,R). comp(A@B, A@B).
```

• ...um, not really (lacking  $\alpha$ -conversion and multiple steps)

```
?- comp( (X~>Y~>X) @ 1, Result).
Result = (Y^>1) . /* okay! */
?- comp((X^* \times X@X) @ (Y^* \times Y), R1), comp(R1 @ 1,Res).
X = Y, Y = (Y^{\sim}Y), R1 = ((Y^{\sim}Y)@(Y^{\sim}Y)), Res = ((Y^{\sim}Y)@1). /* ??? */
```

A Prolog module with about 15 clauses achieves this (hacky!):

```
:- use_module(lambda).
id - (X \sim X). const - (C \sim X \sim X).
ycomb - (F ~> (X ~> F @ (X @ X)) @ (X ~> F @ (X @ X))).
fac - ( F \sim N \sim iff @ (N F = const; F = (const @ id) ).
?- lambda((y @ fac @ 4), Result).
Result = 24
```

↓□▶ ←□▶ ←□▶ ←□▶ □ ♥Q@

#### Prolog and relational databases

Alice lost her umbrella on Monday. Brian lost his glasses on Tuesday. Chris lost his pen on Monday. Dennis lost his watch on Monday and his pen on Tuesday.

Whoever loses something on Monday will be unlucky for the whole week.

Who is unlucky for the whole week and also lost something on Tuesday?

```
lost(alice, umbrella, monday). lost(brian, glasses, tuesday).
lost(chris, pen, monday).
lost(dennis, watch, monday). lost(dennis, pen, tuesday).
unlucky(X) :- lost(X, _, monday).
?- unlucky(Who), lost(Who, _, tuesday).
```

- Our predicates are either facts or non-recursive inferences
- We will need *no backtracking* (unlike the "Martians" example)
- A query such as ?- unlucky(X) will usually return many results

#### Prolog and relational databases

• We have seen this before...

lost:	person	object	day	
	alice	umbrella	monday	
	brian	glasses	tuesday	
	chris	pen	monday	
	dennis	watch	monday	
	dennis	pen	tuesday	

unlucky:	person	
	alice	
	chris	
	dennis	

Our Prolog code...

```
unlucky(X) :- lost(X, _, monday).
?- unlucky(Who), lost(Who, _, tuesday).
```

...is translated into SQL as:

CREATE VIEW unlucky AS SELECT person FROM lost WHERE lost.day='monday'; SELECT person FROM unlucky NATURAL JOIN lost WHERE lost.day='tuesday';

# Prolog, Datalog, and SQL

	SQL	Datalog	Prolog
recursive data	?		+
recursive queries		+	+
Horn clauses	+	+	+
control flow			+
functions	+		
typed values	+		
named values	+		

 ${\sf Prolog} + {\sf functions} + {\sf types} = {\sf functional\text{-}logic} \ {\sf programming}$ 

### Functional-logic programming in Mercury

- Mercury is Prolog + some features of ML
  - ▶ Immutable values, static type inference, algebraic polymorphism
  - all predicates and all arguments are labeled with "modes"
  - static detection of errors in predicate use
  - functions are deterministic predicates with strict modes
  - products, sums, labeled records, higher-order functions
  - I/O by unique types
  - modules and signatures à la Standard ML
  - type classes à la Haskell
  - standard library: arrays, multithreading, etc.
  - can compile to high-performance machine code, C, Java, Erlang

#### A taste of Mercury

Read an integer and print its factorial

```
:- module f.
:- interface.
:- import_module io.
:- pred main(io::di, io::uo) is det.
:- implementation.
:- import_module int.
:- pred fact(int::in, int::out) is det.
:- import_module list, string.
fact(N,F) := ( if N = < 1 then F = 1 else fact(N-1, A), F = A*N ).
main(!IO) :- io.read_line_as_string(Result, !IO),
  ( if Result = ok(String),
       string.to_int(string.strip(String), N)
    then
       io.format("fact(%d) = %d\n", [i(N), i(fact(N))], !I0)
    else
       io.format("That isn't a number...\n", [], !IO)
  ).
```

## Prolog: A perfect scripting language

- No declarations, runtime ("dynamic") typing, immutable values
- Data constructors and predicates have user-defined infix syntax
- Pattern-matching on recursive data structures, with backtracking
- Metaprogramming, reflection, self-modifying code
- Easy to do embedded or external DSLs (monadic top-down parsing)
- ISO standard since 1995, many free implementations
  - typically with a REPL and a compiler to high-performance VM
- Interface to databases, networking, multithreading, GUI, ...
- Core language is "small"; full language is hard to use?

### Compiling Prolog to a virtual machine

- Warren's Abstract Machine (WAM) is still the most influential
- Instructions depend on stack and heap management
- Compilation of core Prolog to WAM is relatively straightforward

```
concatenate([],L,L).
concatenate([X|L1],L2,[X|L3]) :- concatenate(L1,L2,L3).
concatenate/3: switch on term C1a,C1,C2,fail
Cla:
        try me else C2a
                                          concatenate(
C1:
        get nil A1
                                              [].
        get value A2.A3
                                              L.L
        proceed
C2a:
        trust me else fail
                                         % concatenate(
C2:
        get list A1
        unify variable X4
        unify variable A1
                                                 L1], L2,
        get list A3
        unify value X4
                                                 ΧI
        unify variable A3
                                                 L3]) :-
        execute concatenate/3
                                         % concatenate(L1.L2.L3).
```

#### Conclusions and outlook

- Declarative programming = creating a good DSL for your domain
- It is easy to pick up Prolog, after seeing SQL and Haskell
- Prolog makes building DSLs easy (both internal and external DSLs)
- Mercury = Prolog + types + functions
- Prolog is almost forgotten, but its legacy lives on

#### Suggested reading

#### Free implementations I used:

- SWI-Prolog
- The Mercury programming language

#### A great pedagogical introduction to Prolog and Datalog:

• D. Maier, D. S. Warren. *Computing with logic: Logic programming with Prolog.* Addison-Wesley, 1988

#### Advanced Prolog programming:

- E. Shapiro, L. Sterling. The art of Prolog. MIT, 1999
- T. Van Le. Techniques of Prolog programming. Wiley, 1993
- R. O'Keefe. The craft of Prolog. MIT, 1990
- Implementation (the WAM is still an important source of inspiration):
  - H. Aït-Kaci. Warren's Abstract Machine (WAM). MIT, 1991
  - W. F. Clocksin. *Design and simulation of a sequential Prolog machine*. New Gen. Comp., 3 (1985), p. 101 (describes the ZIP machine)

## Summary

- What is "logic programming" and "constraint programming"
- Prolog in a nutshell
- How Prolog "makes pointers safe"
- Why Prolog was the ultimate scripting language for AI (backtracking search, interpreters, and DSLs for free)
- What is "functional-logic programming" (a taste of the programming language Mercury)