

Programming Paradigms CSI2120 – Winter 2018

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Logic Programming in Prolog

- **History**
- **Logic Programming**
- **Prolog**
 - facts and rules
 - atoms and variables
- **Queries**
 - Search
 - Variable instantiation
 - Unification
- **First Examples**

Prolog History

- **Paradigm: declarative, logic programming**
- **1972: A. Colmerauer and P. Roussel, Marseille, created the language**
 - Envisioned application was natural language processing
- **1977: First compiler by D.H. Warren, Edinburgh**
- **1980: Borland Turbo Prolog**
- **1995: ISO Prolog**

The Birth of Prolog

- **User:** Cats kill mice. Tom is a cat who does not like mice who eat cheese. Jerry is a mouse who eats cheese. Max is not a mouse. What does Tom do?
- **Computer:** Tom does not like mice who eat cheese. Tom kills mice.
- **User:** Who is a cat?
- **Computer:** Tom.
- **User:** What does Jerry eat?
- **Computer:** Cheese.
- **User:** Who does not like mice who eat cheese?
- **Computer:** Tom.
- **User:** What does Tom eat?
- **Computer:** What cats who do not like mice who eat cheese eat.

Alain Colmerauer and Philippe Roussel. The birth of Prolog. In History of programming languages---II, ACM, New York, NY, USA 331-367, 1996.

Basis of Conversation

- **The logical formulas created made use of:**
- **constants representing elements**
 - Tom, Jerry, Max, Cheese
- **constants representing sets,**
 - Cats, Mice, MiceWhoEatCheese,
CatsWhoDoNotLikeMiceWhoEatCheese;
- **constants representing binary relations between sets,**
 - Kill, DoesNotLike, Eat;
- **a functional symbol of arity 1 and two relational symbols of arity 2 and 3,**
 - The, Subset, True.

Alain Colmerauer and Philippe Roussel. The birth of Prolog. In History of programming languages---II, ACM, New York, NY, USA 331-367, 1996.

Logical Clauses relating the Symbols

$$\begin{aligned} &(\forall x)[\text{Subset}(x, x)], \\ &(\forall x)(\forall y)(\forall z)[\text{Subset}(x, y) \wedge \text{Subset}(y, z) \rightarrow \text{Subset}(x, z)], \\ &(\forall a)(\forall b)[\text{Subset}(\text{The}(a), \text{The}(b)) \rightarrow \text{Subset}(\text{The}(b), \text{The}(a))], \\ &(\forall x)(\forall y)(\forall r)(\forall x')(\forall y') \\ &[\text{True}(r, x, y) \wedge \text{Subset}(x, x') \wedge \text{Subset}(y, y') \rightarrow \text{True}(r, x', y')]. \end{aligned}$$

The() is a set with a single element.

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Applications

- **Applications of declarative, logic programming:**
 - symbolic computation (i.e. non-numeric)
- **Symbolic computation applications include:**
 - Many areas of artificial intelligence (property of declarative)
 - Understanding natural language (specific to logic programming)
 - Relational databases
 - Mathematical logic
 - Abstract problem solving
 - Design automation
 - Symbolic equation solving
 - Biochemical structure analysis

Programming in Prolog

Prolog is *descriptive* (as opposed to *prescriptive*)

- **descriptive: describing known *facts* and *relationships* (or rules) about a**
 - specific problem
- **as opposed to**
 - prescriptive: prescribing the sequence of steps taken by a computer to solve a specific problem

Programming Steps in Prolog

- **Specify Facts**
 - which are true in a problem domain. Will remain true forever.
- **Define rules**
 - which when applied establish new facts.
- **Start queries**
 - and the prolog interpreter answers
- **Prolog uses first order logic to prove answers**
 - It answers Yes following a successfully proven answer
 - It answers No otherwise
 - A no answer means it could not prove a positive answer

First Order Logic

- **Consists of**
 - predicate symbols
 - equality
 - negation
 - logic binary connections
 - quantifiers ‘for all ...’ and ‘there exists ... such that’
- **More on this later ...**

Computation in Prolog

Specified by

- partly by the logical declarative semantics of Prolog (more on this later),
- partly by what new facts Prolog can infer from the given ones, and
- partly by explicit control information supplied by the programmer.
 - In other words Prolog has/requires some imperative, or prescriptive features.

Facts

Example: “Dogs like cats” with individuals “dogs”, “cats” and relationship “like”

In Prolog: `like(dogs, cats)` .

- **lower case for both individuals and relationships**
- **relationship (or predicate) is written first**
- **individuals (or arguments) are written in parenthesis, separated by commas**
- **ends with a dot “.”**
- **order of arguments is important, in this case “liker” is first, “liked” is second, i.e., `like(cats, dogs)` . is a different fact.**

More facts

Other examples:

<code>domestic(cows) .</code>	<code>% cows are domestic animals.</code>
<code>faster(horses,cows) .</code>	<code>% horses run faster than cows</code>
<code>take(cats,milk,cows) .</code>	<code>% cats take milk from cows</code>
<code>isYellow(hay) .</code>	<code>% hay is yellow.</code>
<code>eat(cows,hay) .</code>	<code>% Cows eat hay.</code>

- **Constants or Atoms**

- Example: `cows, horses, hay, cats, milk`
- Symbolic: small caps letter followed by letters and numbers
- Numbers : integer and float

Interpretation of Facts

Is “cats” an individual?

Yes, but there is more than one way to interpret it.

- a particular type of cat, e.g., house cats
- a family of animals encompassing tigers, leopards, etc.

Either interpretation is fine. The program context will need to define which one is meant.

- If a program needs more than one interpretation then the names of the individuals have to be different, e.g.,
 - houseCats and catsFamily

More on Facts

Arity of Predicates

Predicates can have an arbitrary number of arguments

`domestic/1 isYellow/1 % 1 argument`

`faster/2 like/2 eat/2 % 2 arguments`

`takes/3 % 3 arguments`

Facts that are false in the real world can be used.

- `faster(snails,cheetahs).`

Database

- a collection of facts (part of a program)

Queries or Questions

Questions are about individuals and their relationships

Example: `?- eat(cats,mice) .`

- Means "Do cats eat mice?" or "Is it a fact that cats eat mice?"
- Note as before, cats are interpreted as a specific species (house cats) and mice are all type of mice.
- Note that the syntax is the same as for facts, except for the special symbol `?-` (printed by the interpreter) to distinguish from a fact.

A Database

```
like(horses, fish) .  
like(dogs, cats) .  
like(cats, mice) .  
like(dogs, mice) .  
like(horses, racing) .  
like(cats, horses) .  
like(tigers, cats) .  
like(cats, hay) .  
like(cows, grass) .  
like(cows, hay) .  
like(horses, hay) .
```

Simple Queries

```
?- like(dogs, bones) .  
?- like(cats, dogs) .  
?- like(cats, hay) .  
?- enjoy(horses, racing) .
```

Variables

More interesting questions of the type: “Do cats like X?”

- We want Prolog to tell us what X could stand for.
- Prolog searches through all the facts to find things cats like.
- **In Prolog** `?- like(cats,X) .`
 - Variables start with uppercase letters.

How Prolog Answers

- When Prolog is first asked this question, variable X is initially not instantiated.
- Prolog searches through the database, looking for a fact that *unifies* with the question (or *query* or *goal*).
- If there is an *uninstantiated* variable as argument, Prolog searches for any fact where the predicate is “like” and the first argument is “cats”.
- When such a fact is found, X becomes *instantiated* with the second argument of the fact.
- Prolog searches the facts *in order* (top to bottom).
- X is first *instantiated* to “mice”.
- Prolog marks the place in the database where the *unifier* is found.

Multiple Answers

- **When entering ; we ask Prolog to re-satisfy the goal**
 - or to search for another solution
- **Prolog resumes its search, starting from where it left the place-marker.**
- **We are asking Prolog to re-satisfy the question, and resume search with *X uninstantiated* again.**
- **After a ; false means “no more answers”**

Conjunctions

“Do cats and dogs like each other?”

?– like (cats, dogs) , like (dogs, cats) .

Note

- **, represents “and”**
- **can have any number of questions separated by , (comma) and ending with . (dot)**

Example with Variables

“Is there anything that horses and cows both like?”

2 steps:

1. Find out if there is some X that cows like.
2. Then find out if horses like whatever X is.

?– like(cows,X) , like(horses,X) .

Note:

- **After finding the first answer for X (hay), Prolog marks the place in the database.**
- **Prolog attempts to satisfy the second goal (with X instantiated).**
- **If it succeeds, Prolog marks (separately) that goal's place in the database.**
- **Each goal keeps its own place-marker.**

Rules

- A *rule* is a general statement about objects and their relationships.
 - “Horses like any type of animal who likes hay.” or, in other words
 - “Horses like X if X like hay.”

`likes(horses,X) :- like(X,hay) .`

Note:

- A Prolog rule has a head and body, separated by ":-" pronounced “if”.
- The head is on the left; the body is on the right.
- A rule ends in "."

Rules

- The head of the rule describes what fact the rule is intended to define.
- The body can be a conjunction of goals.
 - “Horses like X if X like hay and mice.”
`like(horses,X) :- like(X,hay), like(X,mice) .`
- There are 3 occurrences of X. Whenever X becomes instantiated, all X's are instantiated to the same thing.

Summary

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