

# Chapter 12 - Logic Programming

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Kenneth C. Louden

# Logic Programming

- Uses a set of logical assertions (i.e. statements that are either true or false), as a program (the facts).
- Execution is initiated by a *query* or *goal*, which the system attempts to prove true or false, based on the existing set of assertions.
- For this reason, logic programming systems are sometimes called *deductive databases*.
- Two main "weirdnesses": no explicit functions, no explicit execution control.

# Examples

- **Computing ancestors:**

A parent is an ancestor.

If A is an ancestor of B, and B is an ancestor of C, then A is an ancestor of C. (a typical relation: called ??)

A mother is a parent.

A father is a parent.

Bill is the father of Jill.

Jill is the mother of Sam.

Bob is the father of Sam.

**Note**  
**incompleteness!**

- **Computing the factorial function:**

The factorial of 0 is 1.

If m is the factorial of  $n - 1$ , then  $n * m$  is the factorial of  $n$ .

# (First order) Predicate Calculus

**Starts with a set of axioms ( true assertions),  
stated using the following elements:**

- ***Constants.*** Usually numbers or names. In the examples, Bill and 0 are constants.
- ***Predicates.*** Names for functions that are true or false, like Boolean functions in a program. Predicates can take a number of arguments. In the examples, ancestor and factorial are predicates.
- ***Functions.*** First-order predicate calculus distinguishes between functions that are true or false—these are the predicates—and all other functions, which represent non-Boolean values. \* is a function in the examples. (Factorial - a function - is indirectly expressed as a predicate.)

# Predicate Calculus (continued)

- **Variables** that stand for as yet unspecified quantities. In the examples, A and m are variables.
- **Connectives.** Operations and, or, and not; implication " $\rightarrow$ " and equivalence " $\leftrightarrow$ " (derivable from the previous three).
- **Quantifiers.** These are operations that introduce variables: "for all" - the *universal quantifier*, and "there exists" - the *existential quantifier*.
- **Punctuation symbols:** left and right parentheses, the comma, and the period.

**Note:** Arguments to predicates and functions can only be terms: combinations of variables, constants, and functions.

# Examples written in Pred. Calc.:

- **Ancestors:**

**For all X and Y,  $\text{parent}(X,Y) \rightarrow \text{ancestor}(X,Y)$ .**

**For all A, B, and C,  $\text{ancestor}(A,B)$  and  $\text{ancestor}(B,C) \rightarrow \text{ancestor}(A,C)$ .**

**For all X and Y,  $\text{mother}(X,Y) \rightarrow \text{parent}(X,Y)$ .**

**For all X and Y,  $\text{father}(X,Y) \rightarrow \text{parent}(X,Y)$ .**

**Father(Bill,Jill).**

**Mother(Jill,Sam).**

**Father(Bob,Sam).**

- **Factorials:**

**Factorial(0,1).**

**For all n and m,  $\text{factorial}(n-1,m) \rightarrow \text{factorial}(n,n*m)$ .**

# Horn Clauses

**Drop the quantifiers (i.e., assume them implicitly). Distinguish variables from constants, predicates, and functions by upper/lower case:**

- **parent(X,Y)  $\rightarrow$  ancestor(X,Y).**  
**ancestor(A,B) and ancestor(B,C)  $\rightarrow$  ancestor(A,C).**  
**mother(X,Y)  $\rightarrow$  parent(X,Y).**  
**father(X,Y)  $\rightarrow$  parent(X,Y).**  
**father(bill,jill).**  
**mother(jill,sam).**  
**father(bob,sam).**
- **factorial(0,1).**  
**factorial(N-1,M)  $\rightarrow$  factorial(N,N\*M).**

# Prolog

**Modified Horn clause syntax: write the clauses backward, with :- as the (backward) arrow, comma as "and" and semicolon as "or":**

```
ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y).
```

```
ancestor(X,Y) :-  
    ancestor(X,Z), ancestor(Z,Y).
```

```
parent(X,Y) :- mother(X,Y).
```

```
parent(X,Y) :- father(X,Y).
```

```
father(bill,jill).
```

```
mother(jill,sam).
```

```
father(bob,sam).
```

```
factorial(0,1).
```

```
factorial(N,N*M) :- factorial(N-1,M).
```



# Unfortunate Errors:

```
?- ancestor(bill,sam).
```

Yes.

```
?- ancestor(bill,X).
```

```
X = jill ;
```

```
X = sam ;
```

ERROR: Out of local stack

```
?- ancestor(X,bob).
```

ERROR: Out of local stack

```
?- factorial(2,2).
```

No

```
?- factorial(0,X).
```

```
X = 1 ;
```

ERROR: Out of global stack

# What's Wrong????

```
ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y).
ancestor(X,Y) :-
    ancestor(X,Z), ancestor(Z,Y).
parent(X,Y) :- mother(X,Y).
parent(X,Y) :- father(X,Y).
father(bill,jill).
mother(jill,sam).
father(bob,sam).
factorial(0,1).
factorial(N,N*M) :- factorial(N-1,M).
```

Immediate  
recursion

No arithmetic is  
actually computed

# Arithmetic

- Easy to fix - arithmetic expressions must be explicitly forced:

?- 2\*3 = 6.

No

?- 2\*3 = 2\*3.

Yes

?- 6 is 2\*3.

Yes

?- 2\*3 is 6.

No

"is" forces its right-hand argument

But not its left-hand argument

- Rewrite factorial like this:

factorial(0,1).

factorial(N,P) :- N1 is N-1,  
factorial(N1,M), P is M\*N.

# Stack Problems a bit harder:

- **Stack problems still exist for factorial:**

```
?- factorial(7,x).
```

```
x = 5040 ;
```

```
ERROR: Out of local stack
```

- **To figure this out, we must understand the procedural interpretation of Horn clauses:**

```
a :- b, c, d.
```

represents the definition of a (boolean) function named a. The body of a is given by the clauses on the right hand side: b, then c, then d.

- **Note similarity to recursive-descent parsing! Also note sequencing!**

# Prolog's Execution Strategy

- **Given a query or goal, Prolog tries to pattern match the goal with the left-hand sides of all clauses, in a sequential top-down fashion.**
- **Any lhs that matches causes the rhs terms to be set up sequentially as *subgoals*, which Prolog immediately tries to match in turn with lhs terms.**
- **Thus, Prolog's execution path is top-down, left-to-right, depth-first. All intermediate results are kept for backtracking purposes.**

# Solving the stack problems

- For the ancestor problem, just remove the left recursion:

```
ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y).  
ancestor(X,Y) :-  
    ancestor(X,Z), ancestor(Z,Y).  
    parent(X,Z)
```

- For the factorial problem, it involves *preventing* reuse of the recursive rule:

```
factorial(0,1).  
factorial(N,P) :- not(N=0), N1 is N-1,  
    factorial(N1,M), P is M*N.
```

# Lists

- Prolog uses almost the same list syntax as Haskell or ML: `[1,2,3]`
- Head and tail pattern syntax is different: `[H|T]` versus `(h:t)` in Haskell or `(h::t)` in ML
- Also, as many elements as desired can be written using commas before the bar: `[1,2,3|[4]]` is the list `[1,2,3,4]`.
- Example:  
    `?- [1,2,3] = [X,Y|_].`  
    `X = 1`  
    `Y = 2`

# Pattern Matching

- **Pattern matching is more general in Prolog than it is in Haskell:**

- **variables can be repeated in patterns, implying that they must be the same value:**

```
?- [1,1] = [X,X].
```

```
X = 1
```

```
?- [1,2] = [X,X].
```

```
No
```

- **Other operations can be more general too.**



# Final Examples

- **The append list operation:**

```
append([ ],X,X).
```

```
append([H|T],L,[H|M]) :-  
    append(T,L,M).
```

- **Quicksort:**

```
quicksort([ ],[ ]).
```

```
quicksort([H|T],Result) :-  
    split(H,T,A,B),/* exercise */  
    quicksort(A,X),  
    quicksort(B,Y),  
    append(X,[H|Y],Result).
```