

Prolog

Dr. Mattox Beckman

Illinois Institute of Technology
Department of Computer Science

Outline

Objectives

You should be able to...

In this lecture we will introduce Prolog.

- Be able to explain the models of data and program for Prolog. (The Two Questions)
- Be able to write some simple programs in Prolog.
- Know how to use Prolog's arithmetic operations.
- Know how to use lists and patterns.

Logic

Question: How do you decide truth?

- Start with some *objects*
“socrates”, “john”, “mary”
- Write down some *facts* (true statements) about those objects.
 - Facts express either properies of the object, or
“socrates is human”
 - relationship to other objects.
“mary likes john”
- Write down some *rules* (facts that are true if other facts are true).
“if X is human then X is mortal”
- Facts and Rules can become *predicates*.
“is socrates mortal?”

First Order Predicate Logic

First Order Predicate Logic is one system for encoding these kinds of questions.

- Predicate means that we have functions that take objects and return “true” or “false”.
 $human(socrates).$
- Logic means that we have *connectives* like and, or, not, and implication.
- First Order means that we have variables (created by “for all” and “there exists”), but that they only work on objects.
 $\forall X. human(X) \rightarrow mortal(X).$

History

- Starting point: First Order Predicate Logic.
- Realization: Computers can reason with this kind of logic.
- Impetus was the study of *mechanical theorem proving*
- Developed in 1970 by Alain Colmerauer and Rober Kowalski and others.
- Uses: databases, expert systems, AI.

The Two Questions

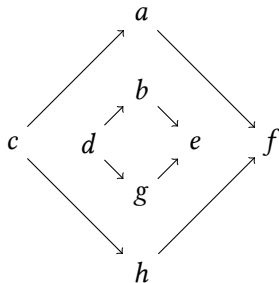
What is the nature of data?

Prolog data consists of *facts* about *objects* and logical *rules*.

What is the nature of a program?

A program in Prolog is a set of facts and rules, followed by a *query*.

The Database



```

1 human(socrates).
2 fatherof(socrates,
3         jane).
4 fatherof(zeus,apollo).

```

```

1 connected(c,a).
2 connected(c,h).
3 connected(d,b).
4 connected(d,g).
5 connected(a,f).
6 connected(h,f).
7 connected(b,e).
8 connected(g,e).

```


Rules

```
1 mortal(X) :- human(X).  
2 human(Y) :- fatherof(X,Y), human(X).  
3  
4 pathfrom(X,Y) :- connected(X,Y).  
5 pathfrom(X,Y) :- connected(X,Z),  
6                     pathfrom(Z,Y).
```

- Capital letters are variables.
 - Appearing left of :- means “for all”
 - Appearing right of :- means “there exists”

$$\forall x. human(x) \rightarrow mortal(x).$$

$$\forall y. (\exists x. fatherof(x, y) \wedge human(x)) \rightarrow human(y)$$

How it works

Programs are executed by searching the database and attempting to perform unification.

```
1 ?- human(socrates).    -- listed, therefore true
2 ?- mortal(socrates).   -- not listed
```

Relevant rules:

```
1 human(socrates).
2 human(Y) :- fatherof(X,Y), human(X).
3 mortal(X) :- human(X).
```

Socrates is not listed as being mortal, but `mortal(socrates)` unifies with `mortal(X)` if we replace `X` with `socrates`. This gives us a *subgoal*. Replace `X` with `socrates` and try it....

How it works, next step

Replace `X` with `socrates` in this rule:

```
1 mortal(X) :- human(X).
```

to get

```
1 mortal(socrates) :- human(socrates).
```

Since `human(socrates)` is in the database, we know that `mortal(socrates)` is also true.

Another example

```

1  ?- mortal(jane). not in database
2  but we have: mortal(X) :- human(X).
3  so we substitute: mortal(jane) :- human(jane).
4  subgoal: human(jane). -- not there either
5  but: human(Y) :- fatherof(X,Y), human(X).
6  so we substitute:
7      human(jane) :- fatherof(X,jane), human(X).
8  subsubgoal1: fatherof(X,jane).
9      we find: fatherof(socrates,jane)
10             -- so try the next subgoal
11  subsubgoal2: human(socrates). \emph{yes}
12  therefore: human(jane). -- is true
13  therefore: mortal(jane). -- is true

```

You try...

- Given the connected rules, try to come up with a predicate `exactlybetween(A,B,C)` that is true when B is connected to both A and C.
- Now make a predicate `between(A,B,C)` that is true if there's a path from A to B to C.

```
1 exactlybetween(A,B,C) :- connected(A,B), connected(B,C).  
2  
3 between(A,B,C) :- pathfrom(A,B), pathfrom(B,C).
```

More than just Yes or No....

- Prolog can also give you a list of elements that make a predicate true. Remember unification.

```
1 ?- fatherof(Who,apollo).  
2 Who = zeus ;  
3  
4 ?- pathfrom(c,X).  
5 X = a ;  
6 X = h ;  
7 X = f ;  
8 X = f ;  
9 No
```

The semicolon is entered by the user— it means to keep searching.

Tracing pathfrom

```

1 ?- pathfrom(c,X).
2 ----> pathfrom(c,Y) :- connected(c,Y).
3 X = a ;

```

When we hit semicolon, we tell it to keep searching. So we *backtrack* through our database to try again.

```

1 pathfrom(c,Y) :- connected(c,Y).
2 ----> X = h ;

```

We tell it to try again with this one, too. At this point, we no longer have any rules that say that c is connected to something.

Tracing pathfrom, II

```
1 pathfrom(c,Y) :- connected(c,Z), pathfrom(Z,Y).
```

We will first find something in the database that says that c is connected to some Z , and then check if there is a path between Z and Y .

We find a and h as last time. When we check a , we check for $\text{pathfrom}(a,Y)$, and find that $\text{connected}(a,f)$ is in the database. The same thing happens for h , which is why f is reported as an answer twice.

Arithmetic via the `is` keyword.

```

1 fact(0,1).
2 fact(N,X) :- M is N-1, fact(M,Y), X is Y * N.
3 ?- fact(5,X).

```

- Unify `fact(5,X)` with `fact(N,X)`.
`fact(5,X) :- M is 5-1, fact(M,Y), X is Y * 5.`
- Next compute `M`.
`fact(5,X) :- 4 is 5-1, fact(4,Y), X is Y * 5.`
- Recursive call sets `Y` to 24.
`fact(5,X) :- 4 is 5-1, fact(4,24), X is 24 * 5.`
- Compute `X`
`fact(5,120) :- 4 is 5-1, fact(4,24), 120 is 24 * 5.`

Subgoal ordering

Order of sub-goals is important! Why does this happen?

```

1 badfact(0,1).
2 badfact(N,X) :- badfact(M,Y), M is N-1,
3                 X is Y * N.
4 ?- badfact(5,X).
5 ERROR: Arguments are not sufficiently
6      instantiated
7 Exception: (8) 0 is _G278-1 ?

```

Lists

Prolog lists are very similar to OCaml lists.

- Empty list: `[]`
- Singleton list: `[x]`
- List with multiple elements: `[x,y,[a,b],c]`
- Head and tail representation `[H|T]`

Differences:

- Prolog lists are *not* monotonic!

List example: mylength

The length predicate is built in.

```
1 mylength([],0).  
2 mylength([H|T],X) :- mylength(T,Y),  
3                       X is Y + 1.  
4  
5 ?- mylength([2,3,4,5],X).  
6 X = 4 ;  
7 No
```

This example looks like badfact, in that the `is` clause happens after the recursion. Why is this safe?

List Example: Sum List

```
1 sumlist([],0).  
2 sumlist([H|T],X) :- sumlist(T,Y),  
3                     X is Y + H.  
4  
5 ?- sumlist([2,3,4,5],X).  
6 X = 14
```

Try writing list product now!

List Example: Append

```
1 myappend([],X,X).
2 myappend([H|T],X,[H|Z]) :- myappend(T,X,Z).
3 ?- myappend([2,3,4],[5,6,7],X).
4 X = [2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7] ;
5 No
6 ?- myappend(X,[2,3],[1,2,3,4]).
7 No
8 ?- myappend(X,[2,3],[1,2,3]).
9 X = [1] ;
10 No
```

List Example: Reverse

Accumulator recursion works in Prolog, too!

```

1 myreverse(X,Y) :- aux(X,Y,[]).
2 aux([],Y,Y).
3 aux([HX|TX],Y,Z) :- aux(TX,Y,[HX|Z]).
4 ?- myreverse([2,3,4],Y).
5 Y = [4, 3, 2]
```

$\text{myreverse}([2,3,4],Y) \rightarrow \text{aux}([2,3,4],Y,[]) \rightarrow \text{aux}([3,4],Y,[2]) \rightarrow$
 $\text{aux}([4],Y,[3,2]) \rightarrow \text{aux}([],Y,[4,3,2]) \rightarrow \text{aux}([], [4,3,2], [4,3,2]) \rightarrow$
 $\text{myreverse}([2,3,4], [4,3,2])$

Pairs

- The term `socrates` is a pattern. But patterns can have structure....

```

1 pair((X,Y)).
2 key((X,Y),X).
3 value((X,Y),Y).
4 assoc(X,Y,[H|T]) :- key(H,X), value(H,Y);
5                      assoc(X,Y,T).
6 ?- assoc(2,X,[(3,hi),(4,there),(2,guys)]).
7 X = guys
8 ?- assoc(X,there,[(3,hi),(4,there),
9                  (2,guys)]).
10 X = 4

```

Activity

- Write the Fibonacci predicate. Let $F_0 = 0$ and $F_1 = 1$.
- Make sure you can write it the exponential way.
- Can you write it the linear way?

Solution

- Fibonacci predicate: exponential complexity:

```

1 fib(0,0).
2 fib(1,1).
3 fib(N,X) :- N1 is N - 1,
4             fib(N1,X1), N2 is N - 2,
5             fib(N2,X2), X is X1 + X2.

```

- Fibonacci predicate: linear complexity:

```

1 lfibx(0,F1,F2,A) :- A is F2.
2 lfibx(N,F1,F2,A) :- N1 is N - 1,
3                     F3 is F1 + F2,
4                     lfibx(N1,F2,F3,A).
5 lfib(N,A) :- lfibx(N,1,0,A).

```