

# Logic Programming

## Prolog

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## Prolog and logic programming

## Prolog unification

## Prolog search

## Cuts and negation

## Extra-logical predicates

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Prolog unification

Prolog search

Cuts and negation

Extra-logical predicates



## Differences to logic programming

- Prolog unification omits the occur check
- Prolog uses a deterministic search heuristic
  - clauses are tried from top to bottom and
  - goals in clause bodies are evaluated from left to right
- In Prolog alternative clauses are evaluated by backtracking
- Prolog provides extra-logical predicates, such as I/O or cut
- Prolog programs may be non-terminating

Prolog and logic programming

**Prolog unification**

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Extra-logical predicates

# Unification in Prolog

Algorithm for computing the unifier of two terms  $u$  and  $v$

Input: a pair of terms  $u \approx v$

Output: a substitution  $\theta$  such that  $s\theta = t\theta$  (in solved form) or **failure**

$\Theta := \{u \approx v\}$

**repeat**

select an arbitrary  $s \approx t$  from  $\Theta$ ;

**if**  $s = f(s_1, \dots, s_n)$  **then**

**if**  $t = X$  **then** replace  $s \approx t$  by  $t \approx s$

**elsif**  $t = f(t_1, \dots, t_n)$  **then** replace  $s \approx t$  by  $s_1 \approx t_1, \dots, s_n \approx t_n$

**else return failure**

**elsif**  $s = X$  **then**

**if**  $t = X$  **then** remove  $s \approx t$

**else** replace all other occurrences of  $X$  in  $\Theta$  by  $t$

**until**  $\Theta$  remains unchanged for any  $s \approx t$  from  $\Theta$ ;

$\theta := \{s = t \mid s \approx t \in \Theta\}$ ;

**return**  $\theta$

## Efficiency considerations

- The occur-check is worst-case exponential
- That is, potentially it is very inefficient
- Unfortunately, unification is used in each computation step
- Without the occur check  
most unifiers can be computed in constant time
- This is very efficient
- This is the only reason for the difference  
between unification in logic programming and Prolog
- When needed, “proper” unification can be implemented in Prolog

# Unification example

Unify  $f(X, g(X))$  and  $f(Z, Z)$

$$\{f(X, g(X)) \approx f(Z, Z)\}$$

$$\rightarrow \{X \approx Z, g(X) \approx Z\}$$

$$\rightarrow \{X \approx Z, g(Z) \approx Z\}$$

$$\rightarrow \{X \approx Z, Z \approx g(Z)\}$$

$$\rightarrow \{X \approx Z, Z \approx g(g(Z))\}$$

$$\rightarrow \{X \approx Z, Z \approx g(g(g(Z)))\}$$

$$\rightarrow \dots$$

Some Prolog implementations yield non-terminating computations.

Others may yield infinite types, e.g.,  $Z = g(g^*)$

However, without occur-check the result will always be different from the logic programming unification.



# Explicit unification in Prolog

- The goal  $s = t$  attempts unification of the terms  $s$  and  $t$
- If  $p(X, X) .$  is a fact,  
then  $p(s, t)$  attempts unification of the terms  $s$  and  $t$
- If  $p(X, Y) :- X = Y .$  is a rule,  
then  $p(s, t)$  attempts unification of the terms  $s$  and  $t$

Prolog and logic programming

Prolog unification

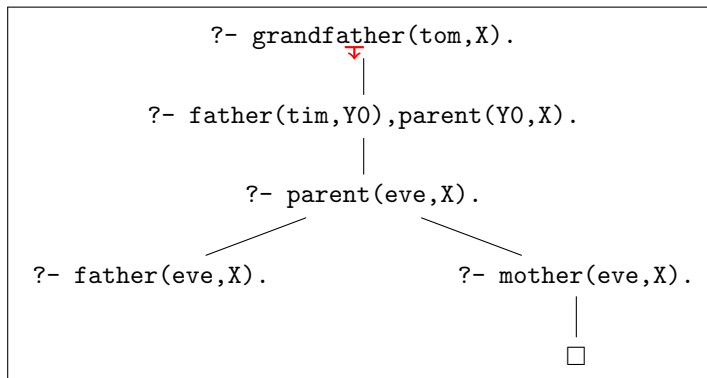
**Prolog search**

Cuts and negation

Extra-logical predicates

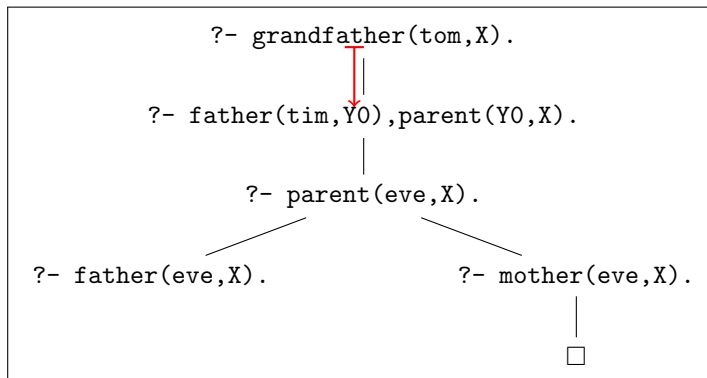
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```
grandfather(X,Z) :- father(X,Y),parent(Y,Z).  
parent(X,Y) :- father(X,Y).  
parent(X,Y) :- mother(X,Y).  
father(tom, eve).  
mother(eve, tim).
```



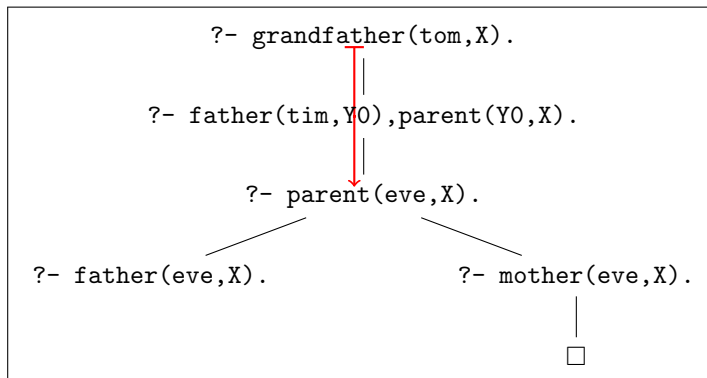
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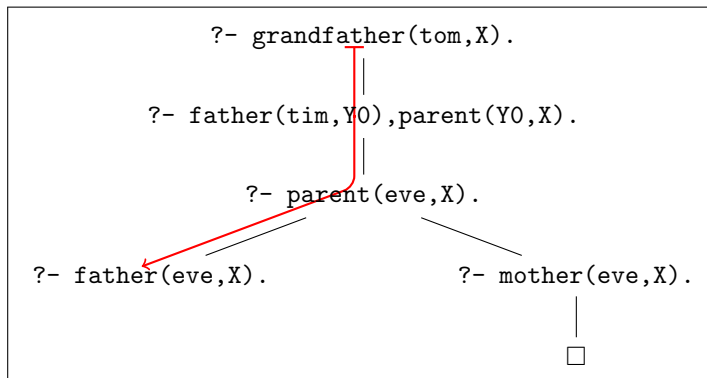
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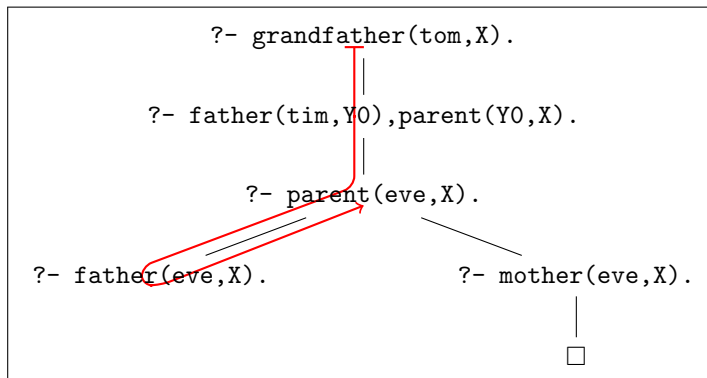
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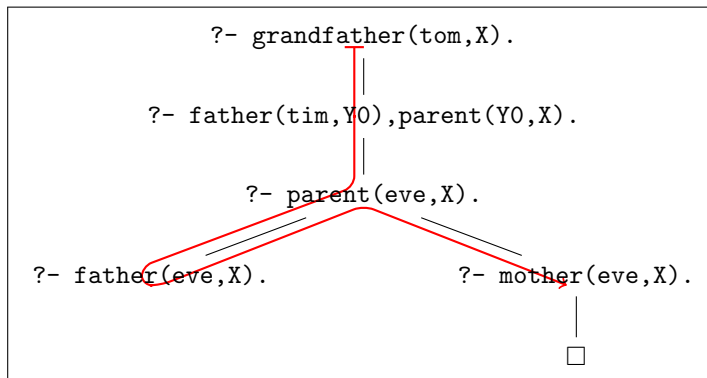
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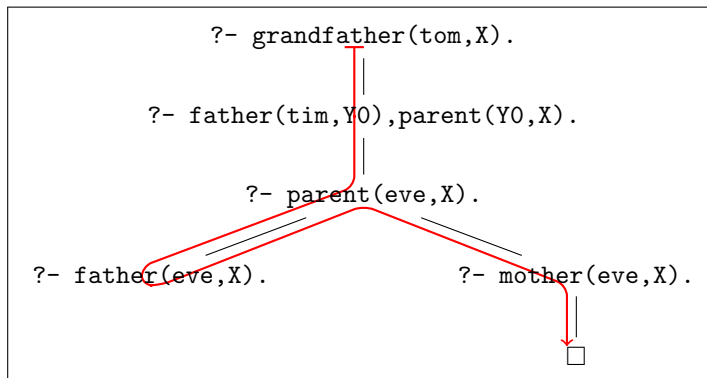
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# Backtracking

- Returning to an earlier node of the tree is called ***backtracking***
- Backtracking involves
  - remembering the current clause of each node and
  - unwinding unifications to nodes occurring earlier in the tree
- It is a major challenge to make backtracking efficient
- The ***Warren abstract machine*** provides an efficient approach

# Generate and test

- A common technique in algorithm design and programming
- Useful for problem solving
- Generate-and-test principle:
  - One routine generates candidate solutions
  - Another routine tests the candidates with respect to the solution of the problem

Example: “send more money”

- Solve the equation

$$\text{SEND} + \text{MORE} = \text{MONEY}$$

- ... where S, E, N, D, M, O, R, Y are different digits between 0 and 9
- ... such that  $M > 0$  and  $S > 0$

(Remark. More efficient technique: ***constraint solving***.)

## Example 2

```

send_more_money :-
    X = [S,E,N,D,M,O,R,Y],
    Digits = [0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9],
    assign_digits(X, Digits),
    M > 0,
    S > 0,
    1000*S + 100*E + 10*N + D +
    1000*M + 100*O + 10*R + E ==
    10000*M + 1000*O + 100*N + 10*E + Y,
    write(X).

select(X, [X|R], R).
select(X, [Y|Xs], [Y|Ys]):- select(X, Xs, Ys).

assign_digits([], _List).
assign_digits([D|Ds], List):-
    select(D, List, NewList),
    assign_digits(Ds, NewList).

```

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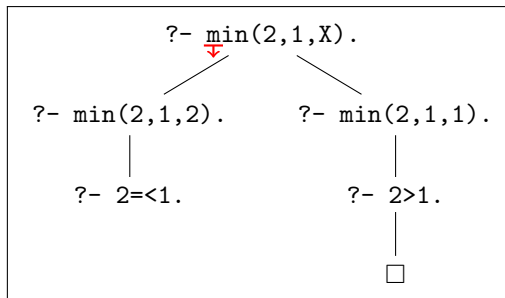
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A **cut** “!” prunes the search tree of a Prolog program.

Example:

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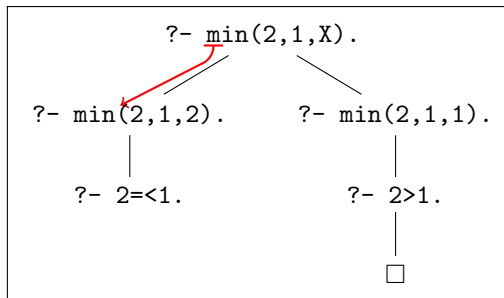
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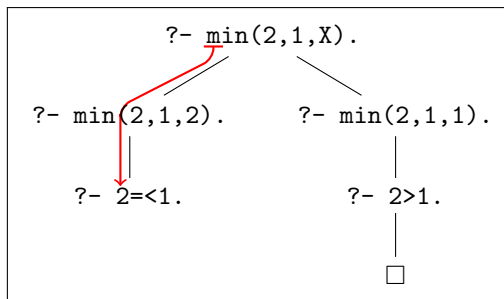
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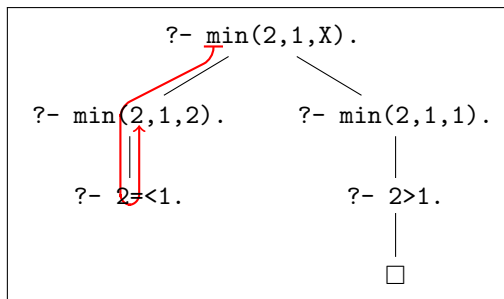
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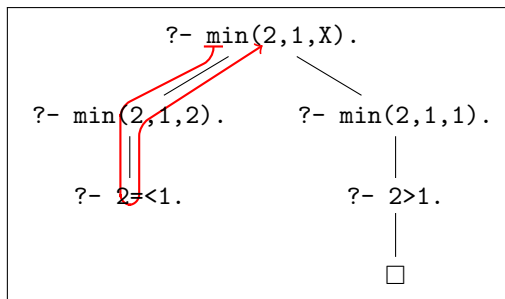
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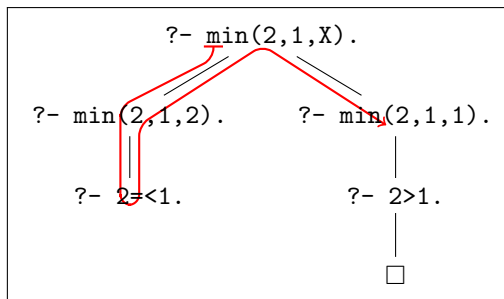
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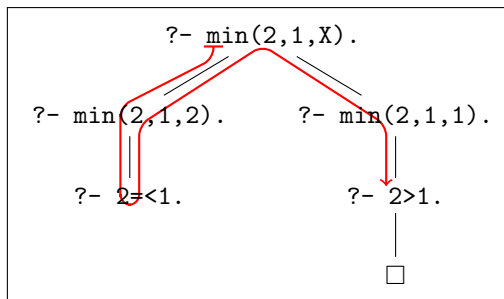
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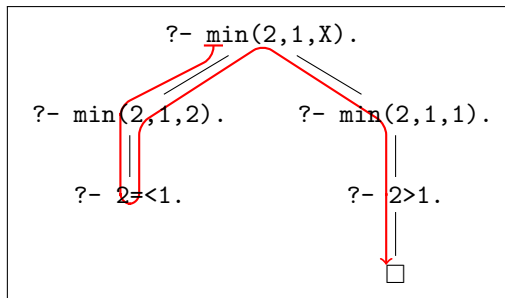
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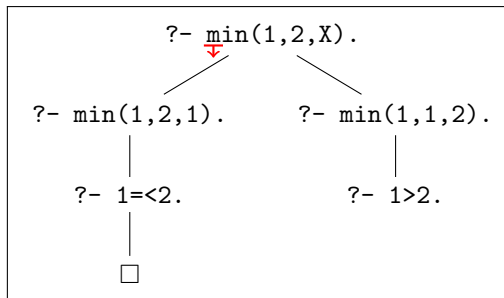
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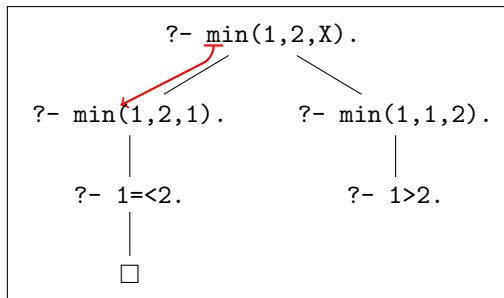
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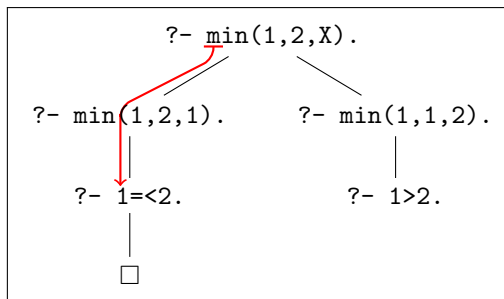
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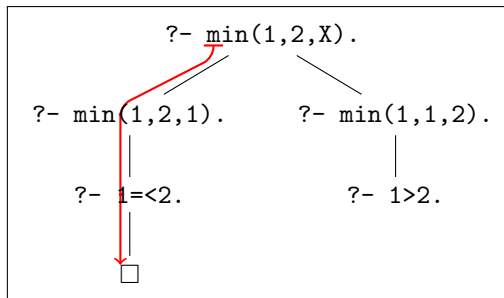
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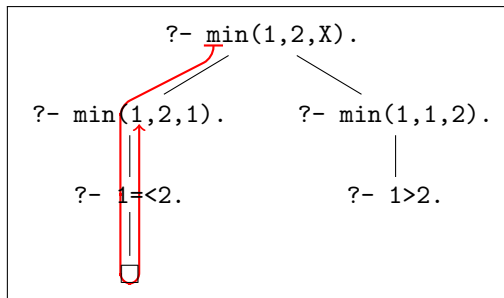
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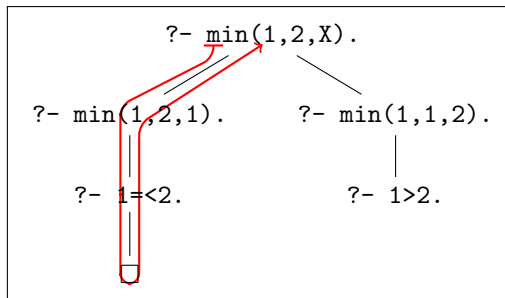
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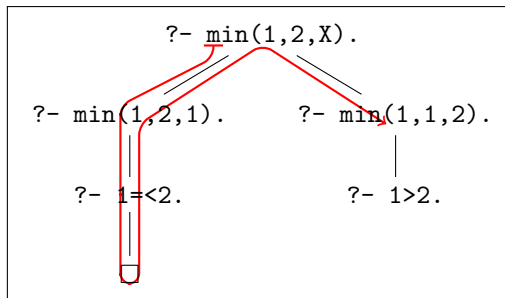
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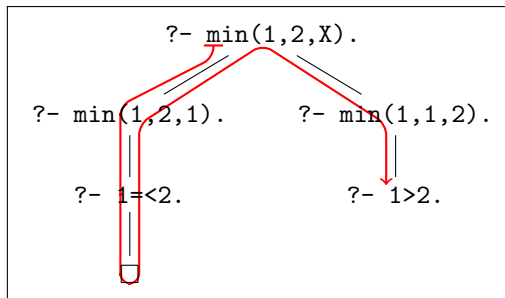
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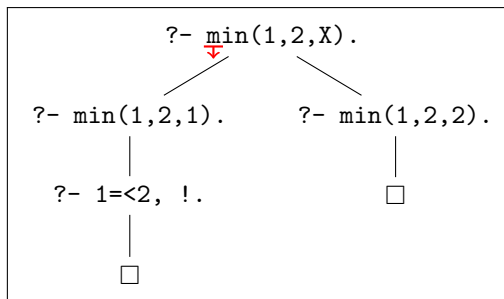
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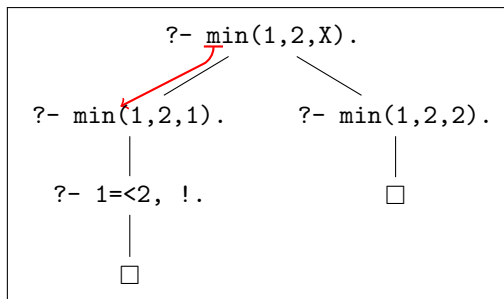
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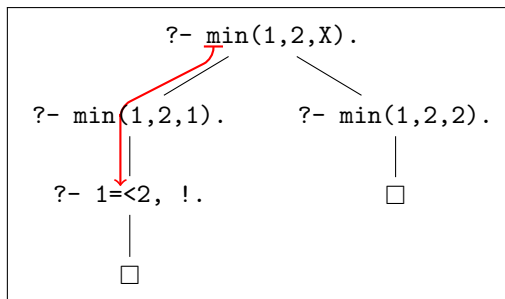
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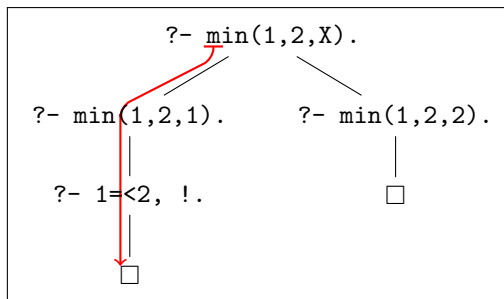
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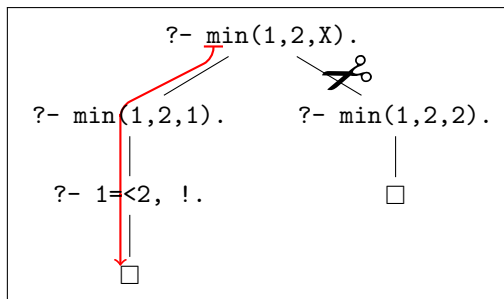


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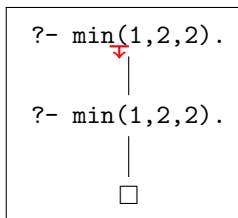


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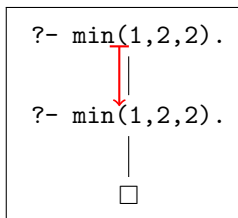


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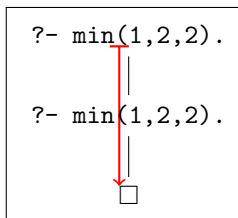


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min(X,Y,Y) :- X>Y.
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?- min(1,2,2).



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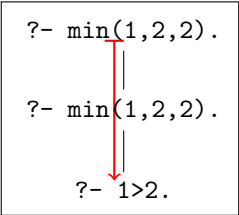
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## If-statement

A better way to improve the original version of the “min program” would have been to use Prolog’s if statement:

Example:

```
min(X,Y,Z) :- X=<Y -> Z = X ; Z = Y.
```

The if-statement  $P \rightarrow Q ; R$  chooses deterministically to evaluate Q or R

depending on the “value” of P :

If P succeeds, then Q is evaluated

If P fails, then R is evaluated

## Green and red cuts

- **Green cuts** are used to express determinism in Prolog programs
- They preserve the logical soundness of the program
- All other cuts are called **red cuts**
- Example:

```
min(X,Y,X) :- X=<Y, !.  
min(X,Y,Y).
```

does not preserve logical soundness  
because the second clause evaluated separately does not  
express a (logical) property of `min`

# What “cut” does

- Consider the two clauses of predicate  $H$  of the form:

$$H_1 :- B_1, \dots, B_i, !, B_j, \dots, B_k.$$

$$H_2 :- B_m, \dots, B_n.$$

- The goals in the sequence  $B_1, \dots, B_i$  may backtrack among themselves
- And if  $B_1$  fails the second clause will be attempted
- If  $B_i$  succeeds, the cut is “crossed”
- And the system is committed to the current choice of clause
- All other choices are discarded
- The goals  $B_j, \dots, B_k$  may backtrack among themselves
- But if  $B_j$  fails, then the original goal  $H$  fails.
- The subsequent clause will not be attempted

# Uses of “cut”

- Obtain and commit to the first solution:<sup>1</sup>

```
once(G) :- call(G), !.
```

- The goal `for(N,G)` executes `N` times goal `G`:

```
for(0,G) :- !.
```

```
for(N,G) :- N>0, call(G), M is N-1, for(M,G), !.
```

- `not(G)` fails if `G` succeeds

`not(G)` succeeds if `G` fails

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

```
not(_).
```

- The latter is called ***negation-as-failure***

- The Prolog operator for `not` is `\+`

- Example:

```
min(X,Y,Z) :- X<Y -> Z = X ; Z = Y.
```

The query `\+min(1,2,X)` yields no

---

<sup>1</sup>The predicate `call(G)` calls the goal `G` for Prolog to solve

# Pitfalls of negation-as-failure 1

- Consider the following program:

```
innocent(tom).
innocent(eve).
guilty(mike).
```

- and the query `:- innocent(peter).`
- The answer is `no`.

- An “improvement” would be to use negation-as-failure in the definition of `guilty`:

```
innocent(tom).
innocent(eve).
guilty(X) :- \+innocent(X).
```

- Consider the query `:- guilty(peter).`
- The answer is `yes`.
- The fact that `peter` is unknown to the system is unknown to the system

## Pitfalls of negation-as-failure 2

- Consider the following program:

```
good_hotel(goedels).
good_hotel(freges).
good_hotel(tarskis).
good_hotel(quines).
expensive_hotel(goedels).
expensive_hotel(quines).
```

- And the additional clause

```
reasonable(H) :- \+expensive_hotel(H).
```

- We ask: `?- good_hotel(X), reasonable(X).`
- Answer: `X = freges`
- We ask: `?- reasonable(X), good_hotel(X).`
- Answer: `no`
- In the first query `X` is instantiated in `reasonable(X)`, in the second it isn't
- Negation-as-failure is not logical negation

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# Output

- Predicates:
  - `write(X)`. writes (the value of) `X` to the output stream
  - `nl`. writes a “new line” to the output stream
- Using these, we can define the predicate `writeln/1` as follows:  

```
writeln([X|Xs]) :- write(X), writeln(Xs).  
writeln([]) :- nl.
```
- Output has no effect on the state of the logic program
- It could be replaced by `true` everywhere without changing the behaviour of the program



# Input

- Predicate:
  - `read(X)` . reads a value from the input stream and returns it in `X`
- Each time `read` is invoked it possibly yields a different value determined by the input stream
- It has no logical meaning and affects the behaviour of the program

# Program access and manipulation

- Predicates:
  - `asserta(X)` add clause `X` to the beginning of the current program
  - `assertz(X)` add clause `X` to the end of the current program
  - `retract(X)` removes the first clause from the current program that unifies with `X`
  - `clause(H,B)` retrieve clauses of the current program whose head unifies with `H`
    - `H` must be instantiated, i.e, select a specific predicate
    - `B` is unified with the body of a clause matching `H :- B.`
    - Backtracking retrieves all matching clauses

- Example:

```
is1(X) :-
    asserta((test(A) :- A = 1,!)),
    clause(test(Y), B),
    call(B),
    X = Y.
```

# Memo-functions

- `lemma(Goal)` attempts to prove `Goal` and if it succeeds stores it:  
`lemma(P) :- P, assert((P :- !)).`



Specification of the Fibonacci function in Prolog:

```
fib(0,0).
fib(1,1).
fib(X,Y) :-
    A is X-1,
    fib(A,P),
    B is X-2,
    fib(B,Q),
    Y is P + Q.
```

Specification of the Fibonacci function with memo-function:

```
:- dynamic fibm/2.

fibm(0,0).
fibm(1,1).
fibm(X,Y) :-
    B is X-2,
    lemma(fibm(B,Q)),
    A is X-1,
    fibm(A,P),
    Y is P + Q.
```

# More on input and output

- Input predicates:
  - `seeing(F)` unify `F` with the current input stream
  - `see(F)` open file `F` as current input stream
  - `read(D)` read `D` from current input stream
  - `seen` close current input stream
- Output predicates:
  - `telling(F)` unify `F` with the current output stream
  - `tell(F)` open file `F` as current output stream
  - `write(D)` write `D` to current output stream
  - `nl` write “new line” to current output stream
  - `writeln(D)` write `D` followed by “new line” to current output stream
  - `told` close current output stream
- More output predicates:
  - `listing` write current program to output stream
  - `listing(A)` write clauses named `A` to output stream
  - `listing(A/N)` write clauses named `A` with arity `N` to output stream