

Logic Programming

Basic concepts

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Facts and queries

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Rules

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Facts

- A fact has the following shape: $p(t_1, \dots, t_n)$.

Example:

`parent(tom, peter).`

This fact states that

- `tom` is the parent of `peter`
- the relation `parent` holds between the individuals `tom` and `peter`
- From $p(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ we can deduce $p(t_1, \dots, t_n)$
- Another name for relation is ***predicate***
- Names of individuals are known as ***atoms***
- Atoms and numbers are called ***constants***
- The number of arguments of a predicate is called its ***arity***
Example: the arity of predicate `parent` is 2
- We refer to a predicate p with arity n by p/n
Example: `parent/2`

Functors

- A **functor** has one or more arguments: $f(t_1, \dots, t_n)$.

Example:

`s(0)`

- The name f of a functor is an atom
- The number of arguments of a functor is called its **arity**
- We can use functors in arguments of predicates

Example:

`parent(s(0), s(s(0)))`.

Operators

- Any atom may be designated as an **operator**

Example:

3+4

where + is declared as an infix operator

- An operator can be written in functor notation

Example: 3+4 is the same as +(3,4)

- Some common operators:

Operator	Class	Priority	Used for
:-	xfx	1200	Separating head and body of a clause
,	xfy	1000	Separating goals in a clause
is	xfx	700	Arithmetic evaluation

- Lower priorities bind stronger
- The class is used to encode position and associativity
 - The “f” represents the operator “y” and “x” the subterms
 - “y” is used to indicate associativity:
Example: , associates to the right: p,q,r equals p,(q,r)

Queries

- A query $?- p(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ asks whether a relation holds between objects

Example:

$?- \text{parent}(\text{tom}, \text{mary})$.

Given the fact $\text{parent}(\text{tom}, \text{peter})$, the answer is **no**

- We call the predicate $p(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ of a query a **goal**
- A query starts a computation
- At the moment we can only do very primitive computations
- In the next sections we introduce the concepts that are missing in order to arrive at **programs** that can perform more complicated computations

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Logical variables

- A **logical variable** stands for an unspecified individual
- Variables are valuable in queries:

To find out who is child of `tom` we could ask a series of queries

?- `parent(tom,mary)` .

?- `parent(tom,john)` .

?- `parent(tom,tim)`

A better way is to ask

?- `parent(tom,X)` .

to which the answer is `X=peter`

- Used in this way variables are a means to summarise many queries
- Convention:
Variables begin with an upper-case letter or an underscore “_”

Terms

- A term is the only data structure in logic programs
- We define terms inductively:
 - Constants and variables are terms
 - Structures are terms.
 - A structure comprises
 - a functor and
 - a sequence of one or more arguments, which are terms
- Structures are also called compound terms
- Example of a structure:
`tree(tree(nil,3,nil),5,R).`

Substitution

- A **substitution** is a (possibly empty) finite set of pairs of the form $X_i = t_i$, where
 - X_i is a variable and t_i is a term with $X_i \neq t_i$, and
 - $X_i \neq X_j$ for every $i \neq j$.
 - (It is called **solved** if X_i does not occur in t_j for any i and j .)
- $A\theta$ denotes the result of applying substitution θ to term A
- $A\theta$ is obtained by
 - replacing every occurrence of X by t in A
 - for every pair $X=t$ in θ
- Substitutions are applied to predicates by applying them to the contained terms: $p(t_1, \dots, t_n)\theta$ is $p(t_1\theta, \dots, t_n\theta)$
- Example:
Applying $\{X=peter\}$ to the predicate $parent(tom, X)$ yields the predicate $parent(tom, peter)$
- A is an **instance** of B if there is a substitution θ such that $A=B\theta$
Example: $parent(tom, peter)$ is an instance of $parent(tom, X)$

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Universal facts

- Variables are also useful in facts:

Instead of stating that `tom` likes each individual

```
likes(tom,mary).
```

```
likes(tom,john).
```

```
likes(tom,tim)...
```

we can state the fact

```
likes(tom,X).
```

saying that `tom` likes everyone

- Variables are means of summarising many facts
- A fact $p(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ reads that for all X_1, \dots, X_k , where the X_i are the variables occurring free in the fact, $p(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ is true
- From a universal fact one can deduce any instance of it

Example:

from `likes(tom,X)` we can deduce `likes(tom,mary)`.

Existential queries

- Variables in queries are existentially quantified
- A query $?- p(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ reads that there are X_1, \dots, X_k , where the X_i are the variables occurring free in the query, such that $p(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ is true
- Example:
 $?- \text{parent}(\text{tom}, X)$ reads:
 Does there exist an X such that tom is the parent of X ?
- From an instance $p(t_1, \dots, t_n)\theta$ we can deduce the existential query $?- p(t_1, \dots, t_n)$.

Repeated variables

- Variables can occur in several places in the same fact or query
- Because they can only be instantiated once
this means that the terms in this locations must be the same
- Example:
The fact `equals(X,X)` states that everything equals itself
- Example:
The query `?- add(X,X,4)` asks for a number `x` that added to itself yields 4

Operational interpretation

- C is a **common instance** of A and B if it is an instance of A and an instance of B
- Formally: C is a **common instance** of A and B if there are substitutions σ and θ such that $C=A\sigma$ and $C=B\theta$
- Operation interpretation of query:
 - To answer a query using a fact, **search** for a common instance of the query and the fact
 - The answer is **yes** and the substitution of the query if there is a common instance
 - Otherwise the answer is **no**
- Remark: answering an existential query with a universal fact using a common instance requires two deductions

Conjunctive queries and shared variables

- A **conjunctive query** has the form $?- Q_1, \dots, Q_n$ where the Q_i are the goals of the query
- Example:
 $?- \text{parent}(\text{tom}, X), \text{parent}(X, \text{michael})$ asks whether michael is a grandson of tom
- The “,” is logical conjunction
- The scope of a variables in a query is the entire query; they are called **shared variables**
- A query $?- p(X), q(X)$ reads
Is there an X such that both $p(X)$ and $q(X)$ are true?
- Example:
The query $?- \text{parent}(\text{tom}, X), \text{parent}(X, Y)$ has two effects:
 - It restricts the children of tom to those who are themselves parent
 - It restricts the children Y to those whose parents are children of tom
- To solve a conjunctive query $?- Q_1, \dots, Q_n$ find a substitution θ such that the goals $Q_i\theta$ are common instances with facts P_i

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Rules

- The query `?- parent(tom,X),parent(X,Y)` asks for the grandchildren of `tom`
- We can define this new relationship by means of a rule:
`grandchild_of_tom(X) :- parent(tom,X),parent(X,Y)`
- In general, **rules** have the shape $A \text{ :- } B1, \dots, Bn.$
- A is called the **head** of the rule
- $B1, \dots, Bn$ is called the **body** of the rule
- The B_i are called **goals**
- Rules, facts and queries are also called **Horn clauses**, or **clauses** for short
- A fact is just a special case of a rule with $n=0$
- A **logic program** is a finite set of rules

Stock keeping

Now we have facts, queries and rules:

Facts: $A.$

Queries: $?- B1, \dots, Bn.$

Rules: $A :- B1, \dots, Bn.$

- Facts are rules with an empty body
- Queries are rules without a head
- Rules encapsulate queries (similar to procedures)

Rule deduction

- From the rule

$A \text{ :- } B1, \dots, Bn.$

and the facts

$D1.$

\dots

$Dn.$

the fact C can be deduced if

$C \text{ :- } D1, \dots, Dn$

is an instance of $A \text{ :- } B1, \dots, Bn$

Previous forms of deduction:

- From a fact A . we can deduce A
- From a fact A . we can deduce any instance $A\theta$. of it
- From an instance of a goal $A\theta$ we can deduce the goal A

Logical consequence

A goal G is a **logical consequence** of a program P if

- there is a clause in P with an instance $A \text{ :- } B1, \dots, Bn.$ such that
 - $B1, \dots, Bn$ are logical consequences of P and
 - A is an instance of G .

This is a first approximation of what a logic program computes.
In practice, it does it quite differently, however!

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- We can define a predicate `grand_parent` by
`grand_parent(X,Z) :- parent(X,Y), parent(Y,Z).`
- The more general notion of `ancestor` requires recursion:

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

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

or

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

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

or

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

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

- The first version is special: it is ***tail-recursive***