Comp24412: Symbolic Al Lecture 2: Prolog II

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Outline

Arithmetic

Arithmetic

Functors and lists

Various goodies

Modifying the database

Conclusion

 Arithmetic is performed with the usual arithmetic operators and the predicate is.

?- X is 57+8.

X = 65

Yes

?- X is 57*8.

X = 456

Yes

?- X is cos(0.5).

X = 0.8775825618903727161

Yes

Arithmetic

- Arithmetic operators cannot be used backwards!
 - ?-6 is Y + 7.

ERROR: Arguments are not sufficiently instantiated

- In other words, is is not really a logic programming construct
- There are several such extra-logical constructs in Prolog

Arithmetic

Problem: write a program to compute

$$\sum_{i=1}^{i=n} i'$$

for positive integer n and arbitrary r.

Solution idea (not quite right):

```
power_sum(N,R,Ans):-
   N1 is N - 1, power_sum(N1,R,Ans1),
   Ans is Ans1 + N ^ R.
power_sum(1,_R,1).
```

Note the correspondence:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^{r} = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i^{r} + n^{r}$$

Ans is Ans1 + N ^ R.

The following program works

Arithmetic 00000000

```
% Computes sum of all R^i for i from
\% i=1 to i=N
power_sum(N,R,Ans):-
   N > 1, N1 is N - 1,
   power_sum(N1,R,Ans1),
   Ans is Ans1 + N ^ R.
power_sum(1, R, 1).
```

- Some Prologs use ** in place of ^. SWI Prolog allows both.
- The underscored variable _R means we don't care about its value.

• In action:

Arithmetic

$$L = 14$$

Yes

$$L = 1.25638e24$$
 Yes

What happens if you call power_sum with a non-integer first argument? Arithmetic

• Here is a more familiar program

```
factorial(N,F):-
    N > 0,
    N1 is N - 1,
    factorial(N1,F1),
    F is N * F1.
 factorial(0,1).
In action:
    factorial(9, L).
```

L = 362880

Yes

- We are not limited in Prolog to simple names, e.g. noel, sue, chris
- We can also have complex names, e.g. couple(sue,chris)
- And we could express a family database as: parents(couple(sue,chris),noel). parents(couple(cheryl,noel),catherine) parents(couple(ann,dave),chris).
- And then define mother as:
 mother(X,Y):- parents(couple(X,Z),Y).

Arithmetic

- Some operators are written in infix form.
- e.g. 6 + 7 as an alternative to +(6,7)
- Note, however, that 6 + 7 is a complex term, just like couple(mary,peter)
- What happens if you type the following queries?

$$X = 6 + 7.$$

$$X \text{ is } 6 + 7.$$

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- In a compound term such as couple(sue,chris), couple is the functor and sue and chris are its arguments
- Similarly, in 6 + 7, + is the functor and 6 and 7 are the arguments.
- Warning: do not confuse functors with predicates.
 - Predicates are used to make statements
 - Functors are used to refer to (complex) objects

- The most commonly used data-structure in Prolog is the list
- A list in Prolog is denoted by a sequence of its elements, separated by commas, and enclosed in brackets, [], e.g.

```
[a,b,c,d]
[[a,b], c, [d,e,f]]
[[[[[[a]]]]]]
```

The empty list is denoted [].

?-
$$[a, b, c]=[X, b, Y]$$
.

$$X = a$$
, $Y = c$

$$X = a, Y = [c, d]$$

?-
$$[a, b, [c, Z]] = [X, b, [Y, X]]$$

$$Z = a$$
, $X = a$, $Y = c$

• In addition, Prolog syntax allows the notation | to separate out the head and tail of a list:

?- [a, b, c, d, e]=[
$$X|Y$$
]

$$X = a$$
, $Y = [b, c, d, e]$

?-
$$[a, b, c, d, e] = [X, Y | Z]$$

$$X = a, Y = b, Z = [c, d, e]$$

?-
$$[X, b, c, d, e] = [a| Y]$$

$$X = a$$
, $Y = [b, c, d, e]$

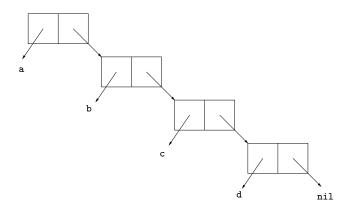
- Actually, lists are really quite ordinary Prolog data-structures with a special notation.
- the term [a,b,c,d] is really

as we can see:

$$X = [a,b,c,d]$$

(The quotes are so as not to confuse the parsing process.)

 As in other programming languages, lists can be pictured as special sorts of structures:



The following tests whether an element is in a list

```
member(X,[X|_L]).
member(X,[_Y|L]):-
member(X,L).
```

- Note the (optional) use of underscored variables
- Aside: like most list-predicates, member/2 is pre-defined in SWI-Prolog

• Again, there is an obvious correspondence between the facts $\forall x \forall z \text{member}(x,x\cdot z) \\ \forall x \forall y \forall z (\text{member}(x,z) \rightarrow \text{member}(x,y\cdot z) \\ \text{and the Prolog program} \\ \text{member}(X,[X|Z]). \\ \text{member}(X,[Y|Z]):= \text{member}(X,Z).$

Modifying the database

• This predicate works:

```
member(c, [a, b, c, d, e]).
```

yes

member(f, [a, b, c, d, e]).

no

Here is the program again:

```
member(X,[X|_L]).
member(X,[_Y|L]):-
member(X,L).
```

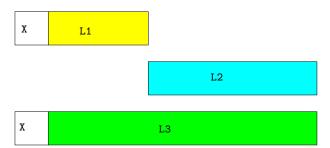
and here is a trace of the first query:

```
call member(c, [a, b, c, d, e])
UNIFY 2 []
call member(c, [b, c, d, e])
UNIFY 2 []
call member(c, [c, d, e])
UNIFY 1 []
exit member(c, [c, d, e])
exit member(c, [b, c, d, e])
exit member(c, [a, b, c, d, e])
```

• Another example:

append([],L,L).

• Pictorially:



• in operation:

:- append([a, b, c], [1, 2, 3], L).

L = [a, b, c, 1, 2, 3]

And another length([],0).

```
length([X|L],N):-
   length(L,N1), N is N1 + 1.
```

in operation:

```
:- length([a, b, c], N).
```

N = 3

:- length([[a, b, c]], N).

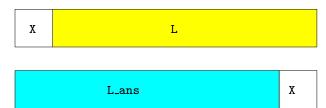
N = 1

And another

```
rev1([X|L], L_ans):-
    rev1(L,L_ans1),
    append(L_ans1,[X],L_ans).
```

rev1([],[]).

Pictorially:



• in operation:

$$L = [3, 2, 1]$$

$$L = [[1, 2, 3]]$$

 Often we need to do something to each member of a list my_operation(X,Y):-Y is X^3 - 5.

```
list_my_operation([X|L1],[Y|L2]):-
  my_operation(X,Y),
  list_my_operation(L1,L2).
```

list_my_operation([],[]).

In operation:

$$L = [-4, 3, 22]$$

- Want to make things easy on yourself?
- Then use the pre-defined predicate maplist

$$L = [-4, 3, 22]$$

Warning: SWI-specific

Now we can supply the third argument from a list
 - maplist(triple_op(1,2),[1,2,3],L).

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• The predicate = . . (pronounced univ for universal) converts complex terms into lists

```
?- parent(sue, noel) = .. List.
List = [parent, sue, noel] ?
yes
```

and back again:

```
?- Term =.. [parent, sue, noel].
Term = parent(sue, noel) ?
yes
```

• Strings in Prolog are lists of ASCIIs

$$?-$$
 "Ian" = L.

$$L = [73, 97, 110]$$

$$?- "Ian" = [H|T].$$

$$H = 73$$

 $T = [97, 110]$

name/2 - converts between atoms and their strings
 name(cat,String).

```
String = [99, 97, 116];
```

No

?- name(Atom,[99, 97, 116]).

Atom = cat ;

No

 Example: pluralizing and singularizing pluralizer(WS,WP):name(WS, WSChars), append(WSChars, "s", WPChars), name(WP, WPChars). singularizer(WP,WS):name (WP, WPChars), append(WSChars, "s", WPChars), name(WS.WSChars). Note: both are needed. Why can't we simply singularize by: ?- pluralizer(S,cats).

Here is an alternative way of pluralizing:

```
pluralizer(WS,WP):-
   name(WS,WSChars),
   reverse(WSChars,WSCharsRev),
   reverse([115|WSCharsRev],WPChars),
   name(WP,WPChars).
```

- Useful testing predicates
 - var/1: a variable?
 - atom/1: an atom?
 - atomic/1: an atom (including numbers)?
 - compound/1: a term that is neither a constant nor a variable
 - is_list/1: any list?
 - proper_list/1: a list whose tail is non-empty?

- Input is a bit grim in Prolog
- Output is even grimmer
- This is a good point to advertise the SWI Prolog manual: http//www.swi-prolog.org, and the online manual (under the help menu in the SWI window).
- The best way to see how output is done is to look at some examples—for example, the auxiliary files for the labs.

- It is often important to test for equality without doing unification.
- The predicate used to do this is ==

$$4 ?- A = b.$$

A = b

Yes

5 ?- A == b.

No

6 ?- A == B.

No

7 ?- A == A.

 $A = _G186$

Yes

- The pre-defined predicate setof is useful.
- Suppose we have:

```
?- parent(X,noel).
X = sue ;
X = chris ;
```

No

Then we will also have

```
?- setof(X,parent(X,noel),List).
X = _1
List = [chris, sue] ;
```

Suppose we have:

```
?- parent(X,Y).
X = sue
Y = noel;

X = chris
Y = noel;

X = noel
Y = ann;
```

• Then we will also have

Finally, compare

```
?- setof(X,parent(X,Y),List).
X = _1
Y = ann
List = [noel];

X = _1
Y = noel
List = [chris, sue];
```

No

 Note that separate solutions are given for the various possible values of Y.

- But suppose we wanted a list of all values of X such that there exists a Y such that parent(X,Y) succeeds.
- To do this, we use the syntax Y^:

```
?- setof(X,Y^parent(X,Y),List).
X = _1
Y = _2
List = [chris, noel, sue];
```

 Incidentally, you can make your own infix operators using a call to the predicate op/3, thus:

```
20 ?- op(300, xfy, :).

Yes
21 ?- X = ':'(sue,chris).

X = sue:chris

Yes
23 ?- A:B = a:b:c.

A = a
B = b:c;

No
```

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- Other Prolog "funnies":
 - asserta/1
 - assertz/1
 - retract/1
- For example, here is a program that writes the times tables up to 12.

```
timesTable:-
   L = [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12],
   member(X,L),
   member(Y,L),
   Z is X * Y,
   asserta(timesTable(X,Y,Z)),
   fail.
```

timesTable.

In action

```
1 ?- timesTable.
true.
2 ?- timesTable(2,Y,24).
Y = 12;
false.
3 ?- timesTable(11,11,Z).
Z = 121;
false.
```

- These predicates modify the program currently being written.
- They are not really in the spirit of logic programming, and should be used sparingly.
- You will, however, need them for your second lab.



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- We went through a lot of tedious Prolog stuff.
- What should I do next?
 - Read Learn Prolog Now! Chh 4 and 5, now!
 - Also read Chh. 6, 10 for next lecture.
 - Acquire a copy of Representation and Inference for Natural Language, and start reading Chh. 1 and 5.
 - Make sure you try out Prolog under Linux!