UCS1524 – Logic Programming

Introduction to Prolog



Session Meta Data

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Session Objectives

- Understanding Prolog language with simple hands-on.
- Learn about the usage of Prolog language by specifying relations by facts and rules.



Session Outcomes

- At the end of this session, participants will be able to
 - Develop Prolog programs using facts rules and relations.



Agenda

- Prolog Interpreter
- Simple commands in Prolog
- Defining relations by facts
- Defining relation by rules
- Querying



GNU Prolog -GProlog

- This Prolog compiler complies with the ISO standard for Prolog (with useful extensions like global variables, ability to interface with the operating system, etc) and produces a native binary that can be run standalone.
- It is smart enough to avoid linking unused built-in predicates.
- It also has an interactive interpreter and a Prolog debugger as well as a low-level WAM debugger.
- You can interface with C code (both ways). Platforms supported include Linux (i86), SunOS (sparc) and Solaris (sparc).
 - http://www.thefreecountry.com/compilers/prolog.shtml (Free Prolog Compilers and Interpreters)
 - http://www.gprolog.org/ (The GNU Prolog web site)
 - http://www.thefreecountry.com/documentation/onlineprolog.shtml
 (Online Prolog Tutorials)

GProlog

- Download Gprolog from http://www.gprolog.org/
- After installation

```
GNU Prolog 1.4.0

By Daniel Diaz

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| ?-
```

- This is known as top-level interpreter.
- It allows the user to execute queries, to consult Prolog programs, to list them, to execute them and to debug them.



Simple commands

- | ?- append([a,b],[c,d],X).
- | ?- append(X,Y,[a,b,c]). (to get next solution press;)
- | ?- (X=1; X=2).
- | ?- L= [1,2,3,4], member(X, L).
- | ?- L= [a, b, c], length(L, X).
- | ?- X is 3 + 4.
- |?-X=3+4.



Consult Prolog source files.

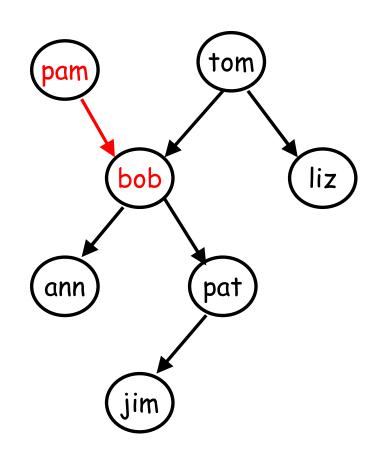
- The top-level allows the user to consult Prolog source files.
- To directly input the predicates from the terminal by the user, use "[user]"

```
    | ?- [user].
    {compiling user for byte code...}
    even(0).
    even(s(s(X))):-
    even(X).
    Ctrl D
```

| ?- even(X).



Given a whole family tree



 The tree defined by the Prolog program:

```
parent( pam, bob).

Pam is a parent of Bob

parent( tom, bob).

parent( tom, liz).

parent( bob, ann).

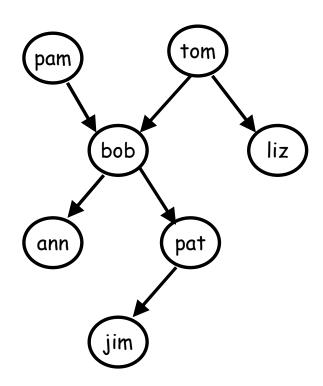
parent( bob, pat).

parent( pat, jim).
```



Questions:

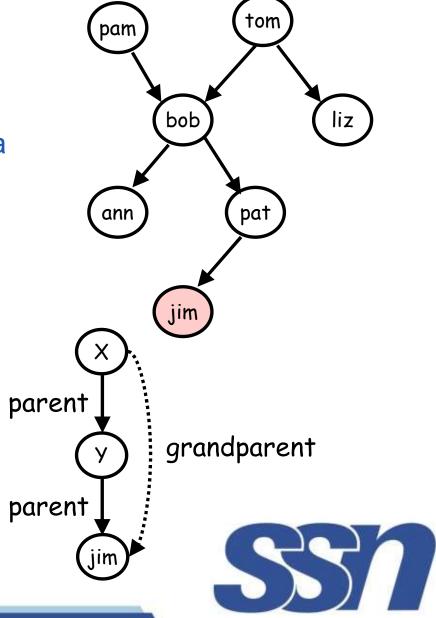
- Is Bob a parent of Pat?
 - ?- parent(bob, pat).
 - ?- parent(liz, pat).
 - ?- parent(tom, ben).
- Who is Liz's parent?
 - ?- parent(X, liz).
- Who are Bob's children?
 - ?- parent(bob, X).





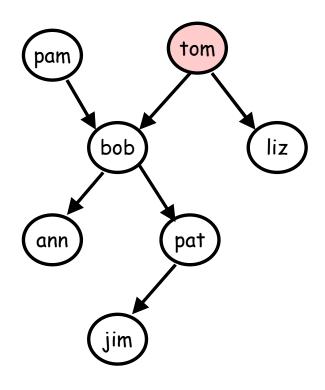
Questions:

- Who is a parent of whom?
 - Find X and Y such that X is a parent of Y.
 - ?- parent(X, Y).
- Who is a grandparent of Jim?
 - ?- parent(Y, jim), parent(X, Y).



Questions:

- Who are Tom's grandchildren?
 - ?- parent(tom, X), parent(X, Y).
- Do Ann and Pat have a common parent?
 - ?- parent(X, ann), parent(X, pat).





- It is easy in Prolog to define a relation.
- The user can easily query the Prolog system about relations defined in the program.
- A Prolog program consists of clauses. Each clause terminates with a full stop.
- The arguments of relations can be
 - Atoms: concrete objects or constants (tom, ann)
 - Variables: general objects such as X and Y
- Questions to the system consist of one or more goals.
- An answer to a question can be either positive (succeeded) or negative (failed).
- If several answers satisfy the question then Prolog will find as many of them as desired by the user.

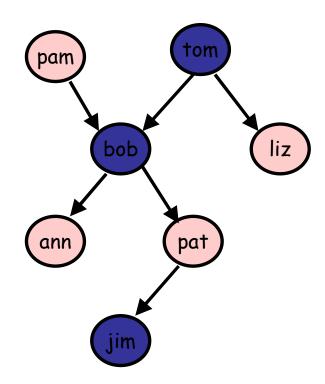


Facts:

- female(pam). % Pam is female
- female(liz).
- female(ann).
- female(pat).
- male(tom).% Tom is male
- male(bob).
- male(jim).

Inverse of parent

- Define the "offspring()" relation:
 - Fact: offspring(liz, tom).
 - Rule: offspring(Y, X):- parent(X, Y).
 - For all X and Y,
 Y is an offspring of X if
 X is a parent of Y.



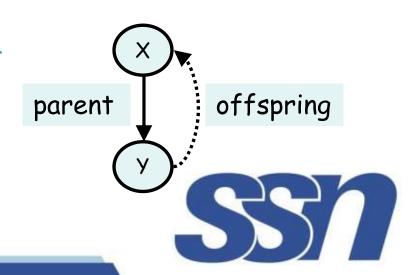


Rules have:

- A condition part (body)
 - the right-hand side of the rule
- A conclusion part (head)
 - the left-hand side of the rule

– Example:

- offspring(Y, X):- parent(X, Y).
- The rule is general in the sense that it is applicable to any objects X and Y.
- A special case of the general rule:
 - offspring(liz, tom):-parent(tom, liz).
- ?- offspring(liz, tom).
- ?- offspring(X, Y).

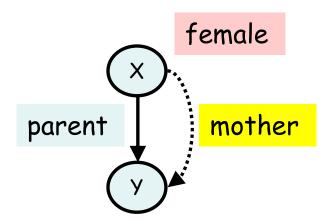


- Define the "mother" relation:
 - mother(X, Y) :- parent(X, Y), female(X).
 - For all X and Y,

X is the mother of Y if

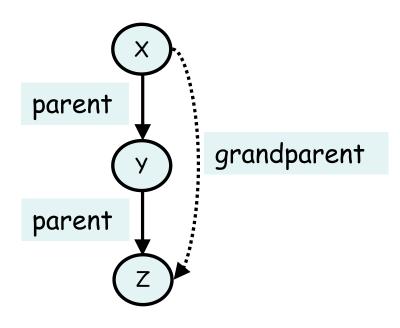
X is a parent of Y and

X is a female.





- Define the "grandparent" relation:
 - grandparent(X, Z) : parent(X, Y), parent(Y, Z).

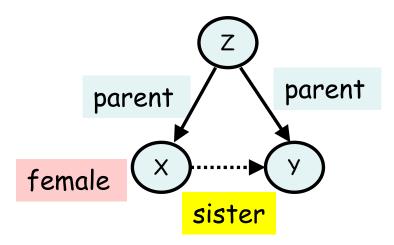




- Define the "sister" relation:
 - sister(X, Y) : parent(Z, X), parent(Z, Y), female(X).
 - For any X and Y,

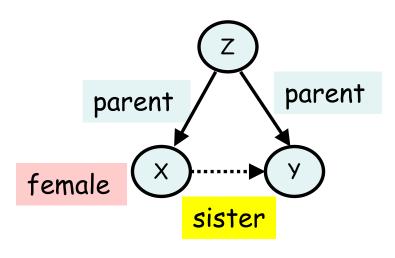
X is a sister of Y if

- (1) both X and Y have the same parent, and
- (2) X is female.
- ?- sister(ann, pat).
- ?- sister(X, pat).
- ?- sister(pat, pat).
 - Pat is a sister to herself?!





- To correct the "sister" relation:
 - sister(X, Y) : parent(Z, X), parent(Z, Y), female(X),
 different(X, Y).
 - different (X, Y) is satisfied if and only if X and Y are not equal. (Please try to define this function)





- Prolog clauses consist of
 - Head
 - Body: a list of goal separated by commas (,)
- Prolog clauses are of three types:
 - Facts:
 - declare things that are always true
 - facts are clauses that have a head and the empty body
 - Rules:
 - declare things that are true depending on a given condition
 - rules have the head and the (non-empty) body
 - Questions:
 - the user can ask the program what things are true
 - questions only have the body



- A variable can be substituted by another object.
- Variables are assumed to be universally quantified and are read as "for all".
 - For example:

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

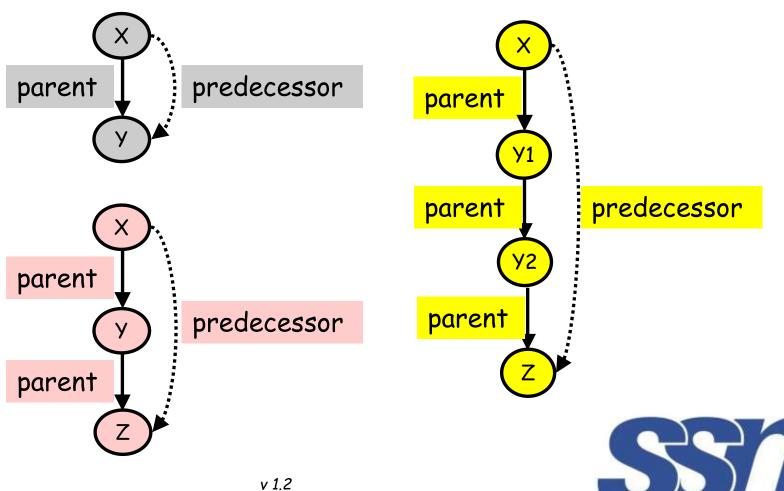
can be read in two way

- (a) For all X and Y,if X is a parent of Y then X has a child.
- (b) For all X,

X has a child if there is some Y such that X is a parent of Y.



• Define the "predecessor()" relation

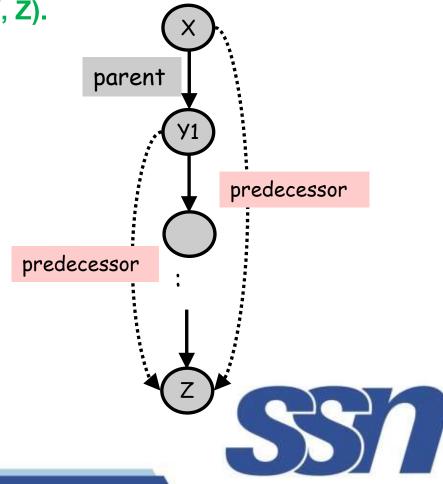


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Define the "predecessor" relation

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

- For all X and Z,
 X is a predecessor of Z if
 there is a Y such that
 - (1) X is a parent of Y and
 - (2) Y is a predecessor of Z.
- ?- predecessor(pam, X).



```
% The family program.
                                        mother(X, Y) :-
                                          parent(X, Y),
                                          female(X).
parent( pam, bob).
parent(tom, bob).
parent(tom, liz).
                                        grandparent(X, Z) :-
                                          parent(X, Y),
parent(bob, ann).
parent(bob, pat).
                                          parent(Y, Z).
parent( pat, jim).
                                        sister(X, Y) :-
female(pam).
                                          parent(Z, X),
female(liz).
                                          parent(Z, Y),
female(ann).
                                          female(X),
female(pat).
                                          X \= Y.
male(tom).
                                         predecessor(X, Z) :- % Rule pr1
male(bob).
male(jim).
                                          parent(X, Z).
offspring(Y, X) :-
                                         predecessor( X, Z) :- % Rule pr2
 parent(X, Y).
                                          parent(X, Y),
                                          predecessor(Y, Z).
```

Procedure:

There are two "predecessor relation" clauses.

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

Such a set of clauses is called a procedure.

Comments:

/* This is a comment */

% This is also a comment



Trace and Notrace

```
| ?- trace.
The debugger will first creep -- showing everything
    (trace)
                                                    X = bob
(15 ms) yes
{trace}
                                                    Z = jim
                                                           1 Redo: predecessor(bob,jim)?
                                                           2 Redo: predecessor(pat,jim)?
| ?- predecessor( X, Z).
       1 Call: predecessor(_16,_17)?
                                                           3 Call: parent(pat,_144)?
   2 2 Call: parent(_16,_17)?
                                                           3 Exit: parent(pat,jim)?
   2 2 Exit: parent(pam,bob)?
      1 Exit: predecessor(pam,bob)?
                                                          3 Fail: parent(jim, 17)?
                                                          3 Call: parent(jim,_144)?
                                                        4 3 Fail: parent(jim,_132)?
X = pam
                                                        3 2 Fail: predecessor(jim, 17)?
Z = bob ?;
                                                            1 Fail: predecessor(16, 17)?
       1 Redo: predecessor(pam,bob)?
   2 2 Redo: parent(pam,bob)?
   2 2 Exit: parent(tom,bob)?
                                                    (266 ms) no
       1 Exit: predecessor(tom,bob)?
                                                    {trace}
X = tom
                                                    | ?- notrace.
                                                    The debugger is switched off
Z = bob ?;
                                                    yes
```



How Prolog answers questions

- To answer a question, Prolog tries to satisfy all the goals.
- To satisfy a goal means to demonstrate that the goal is true, assuming that the relations in the program is true.
- Prolog accepts facts and rules as a set of axioms, and the user's question as a conjectured theorem.
- Example:
 - Axioms: All men are fallible.

Socrates is a man.

- Theorem: Socrates is fallible.
- For all X, if X is a man then X is fallible.

```
fallible( X) :- man( X).
man( socrates).
```

?- fallible(socrates).

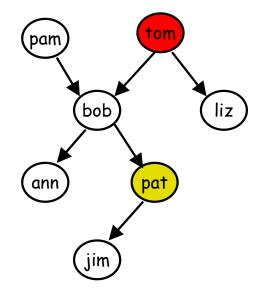


How Prolog answers questions

```
predecessor( X, Z) :- parent( X, Z).  % Rule pr1
predecessor( X, Z) :- parent( X, Y),  % Rule pr2
predecessor( Y, Z).
```

- ?- predecessor(tom, pat).
 - How does the Prolog system actually find a proof sequence?

- parent(pam, bob).
 parent(tom, bob).
 parent(tom, liz).
 parent(bob, ann).
 parent(bob, pat).
 parent(pat, jim).
- Prolog first tries that clause which appears first in the program.
 (rule pr1)
- Now, X= tom, Z = pat.
- The goal predecessor(tom, pat) is then replace by parent(tom, pat).
- There is no clause in the program whose head matches the goal parent(tom, pat).
- Prolog backtracks to the original goal in order to try an alternative way (rule pr2).



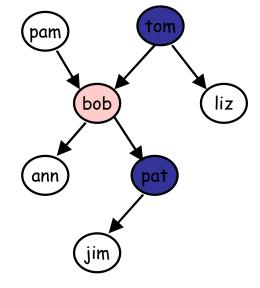


How Prolog answers questions

```
predecessor( X, Z) :- parent( X, Z).  % Rule pr1
predecessor( X, Z) :- parent( X, Y),  % Rule pr2
predecessor( Y, Z).
```

- ?- predecessor(tom, pat).
 - Apply rule pr2, X = tom, Z = pat, but Y is not instantiated yet.

- parent(pam, bob), parent(tom, bob), parent(tom, liz), parent(bob, ann), parent(bob, pat), parent(pat, jim).
- The top goal predecessor(tom, pat) is replaces by two goals:
 - parent(tom, Y)
 - predecessor(Y, pat)
- The first goal matches one of the facts. (Y = bob)
- The remaining goal has become predecessor(bob, pat)
- Using rule pr1, this goal can be satisfied.
 - predecessor(bob, pat) :- parent(bob, pat)





1.4 How Prolog answers questions

predecessor(tom, pat)

By rule pr1



parent(tom, pat)

no

- The top goal is satisfied when a path is found from the root node to a leaf node labeled 'yes'.
- The execution of Prolog is the searching for such path.

```
parent( tom, Y)
predecessor( Y, pat)

Y = bob

By fact
parent( tom, bob)
```

By rule pr2

predecessor(bob, pat)

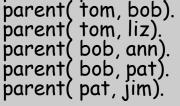


By rule pr1

parent(bob, pat)

yes

derivation diagrams



parent(pam, bob).





Trace

```
predecessor(X, Z) :- parent(X, Z). % Rule pr1
predecessor(X, Z) :- parent(X, Y), % Rule pr2
predecessor(Y, Z).
```

```
parent( pam, bob).
parent( tom, bob).
parent( tom, liz).
parent( bob, ann).
parent( bob, pat).
parent( pat, jim).
```

predecessor(tom, pat)

By rule pr1

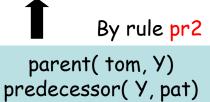
parent(tom, pat)

no

```
| ?- predecessor( tom, pat).
```

- 1 1 Call: predecessor(tom,pat)?
- 2 2 Call: parent(tom,pat)?
- 2 2 Fail: parent(tom,pat)?
- 2 2 Call: parent(tom,_79)?
- 2 2 Exit: parent(tom,bob)?
- 3 2 Call: predecessor(bob,pat)?
- 4 3 Call: parent(bob,pat)?
- 4 3 Exit: parent(bob,pat)?
- 3 2 Exit: predecessor(bob,pat)?
- 1 1 Exit: predecessor(tom,pat)?

true?



y = bob By fact parent(tom, bob)

predecessor(bob, pat)

By rule pr1

parent(bob, pat)

yes

derivation diagrams

Declarative and procedural meaning of programs

- Two levels of meaning of Prolog programs:
 - The declarative meaning
 - concerned only with the relations defined by the program
 - determines what will be the output of the program
 - The programmer should concentrate mainly on the declarative meaning and avoid being distracted by the executional details.
 - The procedural meaning
 - determines how this output is obtained
 - determines how the relations are actually evaluated by the Prolog system
 - The procedural aspects cannot be completely ignored by the programmer for practical reasons of executional efficiency.



Summary

- Prolog Interpreter
 - GNU interpreter
- Simple commands in Prolog
 - Based on GNU Prolog tutorial
- Defining relations by facts
- Defining relation by rules
 - Recursive rules
- Querying
 - How Prolog answers for the questions
 - Trace and notrace



Check your understanding

Let set of facts be

- Henry is a male
- Tom is a male
- Jack is a male
- Anna is a female
- Janis is a female
- Tom is married
- Anna is married
- Use Gprolog, find the answers for the queries
 - List the males
 - List the females
 - Check whether Tom is male
 - Check whether Tom is female



Check your understanding

Let set of facts be

- Henry is a male
- Tom is a male
- Jack is a male
- Anna is a female
- Janis is a female
- Tom is married
- Anna is married
- Rule to define a bachelor is
 - If a person is male and not married then he is a bachelor.
- Use Gprolog, find the answers for the queries
 - Whether henry is a bachelor
 - Whether tom is a bachelor
 - List the set of bachlors



Check your understanding

Consider the family tree and given male and female

```
clauses
                                                     James I
  male(james1).
  male(charles1).
  male(charles2).
  male(james2).
                                    Charles I
                                                                       Elizabeth
  male(george1).
  female(catherine).
  female(elizabeth).
                        Catherine
                                    Charles II
                                                                        Sophia
                                                 James II
  female(sophia).
```

Define parent clauses and formulate the queries George I

```
Was George I the parent of Charles I?
Who was Charles I's parent?
Who were the children of Charles I?
```

Define father and uncle relations

