COM S-342

Recitation 11/12/18 - 11/14/18

Today

- Logic programming examples and exercises
- Typelang homework Q&A

Logic Programming Examples

Food Example

```
%% food.pl
indian(curry).
indian(dahl).
indian(tandoori).
indian(kurma).
mild(dahl).
mild(tandoori).
mild(kurma).
chinese(chow_mein).
chinese(chop_suey).
chinese(sweet_and_sour).
italian(pizza).
italian(spaghetti).
likes(sam, Food) :-
    indian(Food),
    mild(Food).
likes(sam, Food) :-
    chinese(Food).
likes(sam, Food) :-
    italian(Food).
likes(sam, chips).
```

Loading Food Example

- Go to the directory where the file was stored or pass the complete path
- prolog food.pl
 - If you install SWI-Prolog you can use swip!
- Find out what food sam likes
 - ?- likes(sam, X).
 - Type semi-colon (;) to see more values for X or type point (.) to stop the query
 - ?- likes(dan, X). %% should return **false.**

Hello World

- prolog %% start prolog
 - [user]. %% start writing user rules and facts
 - hello :- format('Hello World~n').
 - Type Ctrl-d
 - hello. %% query hello.
 - Hello World
 - true.

Debugging

- Use the built-in structure trace to display instantiations of values at each step:
 - prolog distance.pl
 - ?- trace.
 - ?- distance(volvo, Volvo Distance).
- Tracing model describe prolog programs in four events:
 - 1) Call, attemps to satisfy a goal,
 - 2) Exit, when a goal has been satisfied
 - 3) Redo, when backtrack causes an attempt to resatisfy a goal
 - 4) Fail, when a goal fails

- Prolog supports integer variables and integer arithmetic
- Use the is operator
 - Takes an arithmetic expression as right operand
 - A variable as left operand
 - C is 17 + 10.

- Examples:
 - ?- X is 10 + 5.
 - -X = 15.
 - true.
 - ?- X is 10 * 5.
 - -X = 50.
 - true.

- Define a predicate pow/3 that takes numbers as its first two arguments X and Y and returns as the value of its third argument a number which is X to the power of Y (pow(X, Y, Z)):
 - ?- pow(2, 3, Z).
 - -Z = 8.
 - true.

- Base case:
 - pow(_,0,1).
- Inductive case:
 - pow(X, Y, Z) : Y1 is Y 1,
 pow(X, Y1, Z1),
 Z is Z1 * X.
- Another solution:
 - pow(X, Y, Z) :- Z is X ** Y.

- The semantics are not the same of assignment. Example:
 - Sum **is** Sum + 5. %% error in prolog
- Sum is not instantiated, reference in right side is undefined
- If Sum is instantiated, the clause fails because the left operand cannot have the current instantiation

```
%% distance.pl
speed(ford, 100).
speed(chevy, 105).
speed(dodge, 95).
speed(volvo, 80).
time(ford, 20).
time(chevy, 21).
time(dodge, 24).
time(volvo, 24).
distance(X, Y) :- speed(X, Speed),
                 time(X, Time),
                 Y is Speed * Time.
```

- prolog distance.pl
 - ?- distance(chevy, Chevy Distance).
 - Chevy_Distance = 2205.
 - ?- distance(volvo, Volvo Distance).
 - Volvo_Distance = 1920.

Debugging

```
distance(volvo, Volvo_Distance).
Call: (8) distance(volvo, _4870) ? creep
Call: (9) speed(volvo, _5094) ? creep
Exit: (9) speed(volvo, 80) ? creep
Call: (9) time(volvo, _5094) ? creep
Exit: (9) time(volvo, 24) ? creep
Call: (9) _4870 is 80*24 ? creep
Exit: (9) 1920 is 80*24 ? creep
Exit: (8) distance(volvo, 1920) ? creep
Volvo Distance = 1920.
```

List Structures

- Lists are sequences of any number of elements
- Lists can be composed by:
 - Atoms
 - Atomic prepositions
 - Any other terms, including lists
- Syntax:
 - [apple, prune, grape, kumquat]
 - [] %% empty list
 - [X | Y] %% denotes head X and tail Y (car and cdr in LISP)

List Structures

- Check if a term is a member of a list:
 - ?- member(a, [b, c, d]).
 - false.
 - ?- member(b, [a, b, c]).
 - True.
- member(X, L) :- ??

List Structures

- member(X, [X | _]).
- member(X, [_ | L]) :member(X, L).

Debugging

```
[trace] ?- member(a, [a, b, c]).
  Call: (8) member(a, [a, b, c])? creep
  Exit: (8) member(a, [a, b, c])? creep
true.
[trace] ?- member(d, [a, b, c]).
  Call: (8) member(d, [a, b, c])? creep
  Call: (9) member(d, [b, c])? creep
  Call: (10) member(d, [c]) ? creep
  Call: (11) member(d, []) ? creep
  Fail: (11) member(d, □) ? creep
  Fail: (10) member(d, [c])? creep
  Fail: (9) member(d, [b, c])? creep
  Fail: (8) member(d, [a, b, c])? creep
false.
```

Typelang homework Q&A

Questions?

Logic Programming Reference

Logic Programming

- Declarative languages
 - Consist of declarations rather than assignments
- Non-procedural programming languages
 - HOW instead of WHAT
- Programmer defines:
 - Sets of objects
 - Relationships between objects
 - Constraints that need to hold
- Interpreter or compiler
 - Solve equations (how to satisfy constraints)

Logic Programming

- Based on formal logic
- A proposition can be thought of as a logical statement that may or may not be true
 - consists of objects and the relationships among objects
- Formal logic developed to describe propositions check their validity
- Symbolic logic used to inferred other propositions from true propositions

Logic Programming

- Individuals or objects = constants or terms
- Relations over individuals = properties or predicates
 - They can have arity (number of individuals)
- Quantifiers
 - Use to describe all individuals, or
 - Some individuals

Fact Statements

- Used to construct the hypotheses, or database of information
 - father(bill, jake).
 - father(bill, shelley).
 - mother(mary, jake).
 - mother(mary, shelley).

Rules Statements

- A conclusion can be drawn if a set of given conditions is satisfied
- Right side is called antecedent and left side is the consequence
- Antecedent can be a single term or a conjuction
- Example:
 - parent(X, Y) :- mother(X, Y).
 - parent(X, Y) :- father(X, Y).
 - grandparent(X, Z) :- parent(X, Y) , parent(Y, Z).

Goals or Queries Statements

- Basis of theorem-proving model
- The theorem is a proposition that we want the system to prove
- Syntax is identical to facts statements
- Example:
 - man(fred). // answer is yes or no
 - father(X, mike). // search for result that satisfies the value of X and results true

Prolog Example

Facts

Rules

```
%% Rule: Horn Clause with antecedent
loves(mary, tom) :-
    isamother(mary), childof(tom, mary).
```

Query

```
%% Query: Horn Clause with no consequent
?- loves(mary, tom).
```

Horn Clauses

- Horn Clause with no Antecedent = Fact
- Horn Clause with Antecedent = Rule
- Horn Clause with no Consequence = Query

 Logic Programming is a collection of Horn Clauses

$$c \leftarrow h_1 \lor h_2 \longrightarrow c \leftarrow h_1 \\ c \leftarrow h_2$$

Horn Clauses

Facts %% Horn Clause with no Antecedent isamother(mary). %% Horn Clause with no Antecedent childof(tom, mary). %% Horn Clause with no Antecedent childof(jerry, mary). Rules %% Rule: Horn Clause with antecedent and with variables X and Y are universally quantified loves(X, Y) :=isamother(X), childof(Y, X). X is universally quantified %% Y, Z are existentially quantified hassibling(X) :childof(X, Y), childof(Z, Y). Query %% Query: Horn Clause with no consequent ?- loves(mary, X). %% X is exitentially quantified ?- hassibling(jerry).

(S)

Queries

```
Queries:

?- loves(mary, X).

means: does there exists an X such that loves(mary, X) is true.

loves(mary, X)

isamother(mary) childof(X, mary)

true X = \text{tom}
```

Executing Logic Programs

- Queries are called goals
- When a query is a rule, then each antecedent is a subgoal
- To prove a a goal is true, the inference must find a chain of inference rules or facts

Executing Logic Programs

- Unification → Variable Binding
- Backward Chaining → Reducing goals into simpler subgoals
- Backtracking → Search for answers

Unification

Given two atomic formula (predicates), they can be unified if and only if they can be made syntactically identical by replacing the variables in them by some terms.

- Unify childof(jane, X) and childof(jane, mary)? yes by replacing X by mary
- Unify childof(jane, X) and childof(jane, Y)? yes by replacing X and Y by the same individual
- Unify childof(jane, X) and childof(Y, mary)? yes by replacing X by mary, and Y by jane
- Unify childof(jane, X) and childof(tom, Y)? No.

Computing with Logic

- Given a query
 - Search for facts and rules and,
 - Verify whether the query unifies with any consequence
 - If search fails, return false
 - If search is successful, then
 - if the unification occurs with the consequent of a fact, return the substitution of the variables (if any)
 - if the unification occurs with the consequent of a rule, instantiate the variables (if any) and prove the subgoals

Backtracking

- Incrementally builds candidates to the solutions
- Abandons a candidate (backtrack) when does not unify in a subgoal
- It then reconsiders previous subgoal and tries to find another solution
- Multiples solutions results on different instantiations of a variable

Backtracking

male(X), parent(X, shelley).

This goal asks whether there is an instantiation of X such that X is a male and X is a parent of shelley. As its first step, Prolog finds the first fact in the database with male as its functor. It then instantiates X to the parameter of the found fact, say mike. Then, it attempts to prove that parent (mike, shelley) is true. If it fails, it backtracks to the first subgoal, male(X), and attempts to resatisfy it with some alternative instantiation of x. The resolution process may have to find every male in the database before it finds the one that is a parent of shelley. It definitely must find all males to prove that the goal cannot be satisfied. Note that our example goal might be processed more efficiently if the order of the two subgoals were reversed. Then, only after resolution had found a parent of shelley would it try to match that person with the male subgoal. This is more efficient if shelley has fewer parents than there are males in the database, which seems like a reasonable assumption. Section 16.7.1 discusses a method of limiting the backtracking done by a Prolog system.

31/37