

CONCEPTS OF PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES

Chapter 16

Logic Programming Languages



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Chapter 16 Topics

- Introduction
- A Brief Introduction to Predicate Calculus
- Predicate Calculus and Proving Theorems
- An Overview of Logic Programming
- The Origins of Prolog
- The Basic Elements of Prolog
- Deficiencies of Prolog
- Applications of Logic Programming

Introduction

Logic (declarative) Programming Language

- Express **programs** in a form of **symbolic logic**
- Use a **logical inferencing process** to **produce results**
- *Declarative* rather than *procedural*:
 - Only **specification of *results*** are stated
 - **Not detailed *procedures*** for producing them.

Proposition

- Proposition: a logical statement that may or may not be true:
 - e.g., `man(jake) likes(bob, steak)`
 - Consists of objects and relationships of objects to each other
 - Operands (Truth or Falsity)
 - Operations (and, or)
 - Parentheses (aid determining order evaluation).
 - e.g.,
 - T and F
 - Identifier (a sequence of one or more digits and letters, with the first of which is a letter), e.g., `abc`
 - If “`abc`” is a proposition, then so is “ \neg `abc`”.

Symbolic Logic

- Symbolic Logic used for the basic needs of formal logic:
 - Express propositions
 - Express relationships between *propositions*
 - Describe how new propositions can be inferred from *other* propositions
- Particular form of symbolic logic used for logic programming called (*first-order predicate calculus*)
 - use quantified variables over non-logical objects
 - allow the use of sentences that contain variables
 - E.g., *For all x , if x is a man then x is mortal.*

Object Representation

- Objects in propositions are represented by **simple terms**: either **constants** or **quantified variables**
 - *Constant*: a **symbol** that represents an **object**
 - e.g., likes(bob, steak); *likes, bob, steak* are **constants**
 - *Quantified Variable*: a symbol that can represent **different objects at different times**
 - e.g., $\forall X. P$ (For all X, P is true), where X is a quantified variable; \forall is a **universal quantifier**
 - Different from variables in **imperative** languages
 - e.g., $\forall x. Px \rightarrow Qx$ [Px : x is a man; Qx : x is mortal].

Compound Terms

- *Atomic propositions*
 - simplest proposition; e.g., likes(bob, trout)
 - consist of compound terms
 - Compound term composed of two parts
 - Functor: function symbol that names the relationship: e.g., student, like
 - Ordered list of parameters (tuple)

e.g., student(jon)
 like(seth, OSX)
 like(nick, windows)
 like(jim, linux) .

Forms of a Proposition

- Propositions can be stated in two forms:
 - *Fact*: proposition is assumed to be true
 - *Query*: truth of proposition is to be determined
- Compound proposition:
 - Have two or more atomic propositions
 - Propositions are connected by logical operators.

Logical Operators

Name	Symbol	Example	Meaning
negation	\neg	$\neg a$	not a
conjunction	\cap	$a \cap b$	a and b
disjunction	\cup	$a \cup b$	a or b
equivalence	\equiv	$a \equiv b$	a is equivalent to b
implication	\supset	$a \supset b$	a implies b
	\subset	$a \subset b$	b implies a

Quantifiers

Name	Example	Meaning
universal	$\forall X.P$	For all X, P is true
existential	$\exists X.P$	There exists a value of X such that P is true

Clausal Form

- Too many ways to state the same thing
- *Clausal form*:
 - standard form for propositions
 - $B_1 \cup B_2 \cup \dots \cup B_n \subset A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_m$
 - means if all the As are true, then at least one B is true
- *Antecedent*: right side (i.e., $A_1 \dots A_m$)
- *Consequent*: left side (i.e., $B_1 \dots B_n$).

Resolution

- *Resolution*:
 - process of inferring an proposition from given propositions
 - allows inferred propositions to be *computed* from given propositions.
 - e.g.,
 - $\text{older}(\text{joanne}, \text{jake}) \subset \text{mother}(\text{joanne}, \text{jake})$
 - $\text{wiser}(\text{joanne}, \text{jake}) \subset \text{older}(\text{joanne}, \text{jake})$
 - $\text{wiser}(\text{joanne}, \text{jake}) \subset \text{mother}(\text{joanne}, \text{jake})$.

Unification & Instantiation

- *Unification*: finding values for variables in propositions that allows matching process to succeed
- *Instantiation*: assigning *temporary* values to variables to allow unification to succeed
 - After instantiating a variable with a value, if matching fails, may need to *backtrack* and instantiate with a different value.

Theorem Proving

- Basis for logic programming
- When propositions are used for **resolution**, *only restricted* form can be used
- *Horn clause* – can have only **two** forms
 - *Headed*: single atomic proposition on **left side**
 - e.g., $\text{likes}(\text{bob}, \text{trout}) \subset \text{likes}(\text{bob}, \text{fish}) \cap \text{fish}(\text{trout})$
 - *Headless*: *empty left side* (used to state **facts**)
 - e.g., $\text{father}(\text{bob}, \text{jake})$
- Most propositions can be *stated* as **Horn clauses**.

Overview of Logic Programming

- Declarative semantics
 - There is a **simple way** to determine the **meaning of each statement**
 - **Simpler than** the semantics of imperative languages
- Programming is **nonprocedural**
 - Programs do **not** state *how* a result is to be computed, but rather the **form of the result**.

Example: Sorting a List

- Describe the **characteristics** of a sorted list, not the **process** of rearranging a list

- ❖ **sorted** (list) \subset
 \forall_j such that $1 \leq j < n$, $\text{list}(j) \leq \text{list}(j+1)$
- ❖ **sort**(old_list, new_list) \subset
permute (old_list, new_list) \cap **sorted** (new_list)

Notes:

1. **permute** is a **predicate** returned **true** if its 2nd parameter—new_list, is a permutation of its 1st parameter—old_list
2. **sort** the items in **old_list** and put them into **new_list**.

The Origins of Prolog

- University of Aix–Marseille, France
(Alain Calmerauer & Phillippe Roussel)
 - Natural language processing
- University of Edinburgh, Scotland
(Robert Kowalski)
 - Automated theorem proving.

Prolog: Terms

- uses the *Edinburgh* syntax of Prolog
- *Term*: a constant, variable, or structure
- *Constant*: an atom or an integer
 - *Atom*: symbolic value of Prolog, consists of either:
 - a string of letters, digits, and underscores beginning with a lowercase letter
 - a string of printable ASCII characters delimited by apostrophes.

Prolog: Terms

- *Variable*: any string of letters, digits, and underscores beginning with an uppercase letter
 - *Instantiation*:
 - binding of a variable to a value
 - Lasts as long as it takes to satisfy one complete goal
- *Structure*: represents atomic proposition
e.g., functor (*parameter list*) .

Prolog: Fact Statements

- Used for the hypotheses
- **Headless** Horn clauses

```
female(shelley) .
```

```
male(bill) .
```

```
father(bill, jake) .
```

- Prolog statement is **terminated** by a period
“ ”
▪

Prolog: Rule Statements

- Used for the hypotheses
- Headed Horn clause
- Right side: *antecedent* (*if* part)
 - May be single term OR conjunction
- Left side: *consequent* (*then* part)
 - Must be **single** term

e.g., `ancestor(mary, shelley) :- mother(mary, shelley) .`

- *Conjunction*: multiple terms separated by logical AND operations (implied).

Prolog: Example Rules

- Can use variables (*universal objects*) to generalize meaning:

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

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

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

```
sibling(X,Y) :- mother(M,X) , mother(M,Y) ,  
                  father(F,X) , father(F,Y) .
```

Prolog: Goal Statements

- For theorem proving, theorem is in form of proposition that we want system to prove or disprove.
- In Prolog, these propositions are called *goals (statements) or queries*; same format as headless Horn clause: e.g., `man(fred)`
- Conjunctive propositions and propositions with variables also legal goals

`father(X, mike)`

- System will then attempt, through unification, to find an instantiation of X that results in a true value.

Prolog: Inferencing Process

- If a goal is a compound proposition, each of the facts is a subgoal.
- To prove a goal is true, must find a chain of inference rules and/or facts. For goal Q:

$P_2 :- P_1$

$P_3 :- P_2$

...

$Q :- P_n$

- Process of proving a subgoal called matching, satisfying, or resolution.

Prolog: Approaches

- *Bottom-up resolution, forward chaining*
 - Begin with **facts** and **rules** of database and attempt to find sequence that leads to **goal**
 - Works well with a **large** set of possibly correct answers
- *Top-down resolution, **backward** chaining*
 - Begin with **goal** and attempt to find sequence that leads to set of **facts** in database
 - Works well with a **small** set of possibly correct answers
- Prolog implementations use **backward** chaining.

Prolog: Subgoal Strategies

- When goal has more than one subgoal, can use either
 - Depth-first search: find a complete proof for the first subgoal before working on others
 - Breadth-first search: work on all subgoals in parallel
- Prolog uses depth-first search
 - Can be done with fewer computer resources.

Prolog: Backtracking

- *Backtracking:*
 - with a goal with multiple subgoals, if fail to show truth of one of subgoals, reconsider previous subgoal to find an alternative solution
- Begin search where previous search left off
- Can take lots of time and space because may find all possible proofs to every subgoal.

Prolog: Trace

- Built-in structure that displays instantiations at each step
- *Tracing model* of execution – four events:
 - *Call* --beginning of attempt to satisfy goal
 - *Exit* --when a goal has been satisfied
 - *Redo* --when backtrack occurs
 - *Fail* --when goal fails.

Prolog: Example of Trace

```
likes(jake, chocolate).  
likes(jake, apricots).  
likes(darcie, licorice).  
likes(darcie, apricots).
```

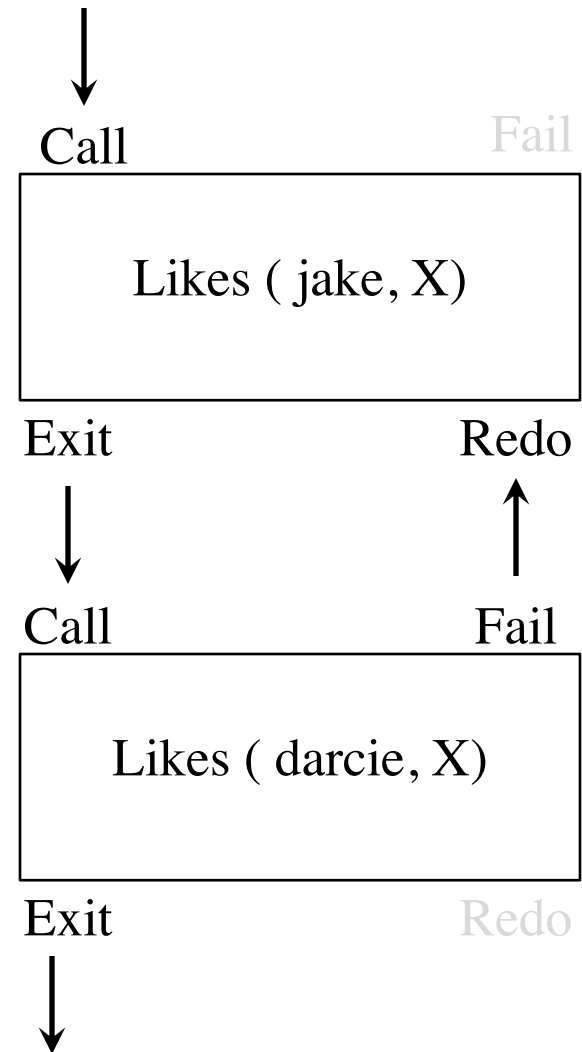
trace.

```
likes(jake, X), likes(darcie, X).
```

```
(1) 1 Call: likes(jake, _0)?  
(1) 1 Exit: likes(jake, chocolate)  
(2) 1 Call: likes(darcie, chocolate)?  
(2) 1 Fail: likes(darcie, chocolate)  
(1) 1 Redo: likes(jake, _0)?  
(1) 1 Exit: likes(jake, apricots)  
(3) 1 Call: likes(darcie, apricots)?  
(3) 1 Exit: likes(darcie, apricots)
```

X = apricots

Note: `_0` : internal variable used to store instantiated values.



Prolog: Simple Arithmetic

- Prolog supports integer variables and integer arithmetic
 - e.g., `+(7, x)`
- `is` operator: takes an arithmetic expression as right operand and variable as left operand
 - e.g., `A is B / 17 + C.`
/* B and C are instantiated, but A is not */
 - e.g., `1 is sin(pi/2).` /* false; as $\sin(\pi/2) = 1.0$ */
- Not the same as an assignment statement!
 - The following is illegal:

`Sum is Sum + Number.`

Ref: <http://www.swi-prolog.org/pldoc/man?predicate=is/2>

Prolog: Example

```
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.
```

```
A query: distance(chevy, Chevy_Distance) .
          105 * 21 = 2205.
```

Prolog: List Structures

- Other basic data structure (besides atomic propositions we have already seen): list
- *List* is a sequence of *any* number of elements
- Elements can be atoms, atomic propositions, or other terms (including other lists)

e.g.,

[apple, prune, grape, kumquat]

[] /* (empty list) */

[X | Y] /* head X, tail Y; head : CAR, tail: CDR */

[X | Y] = [a, b, c] /* x = a; y = [b, c] */.

Prolog: Append

```
append([], List, List).
```

```
append([Head | List_1], List_2, [Head | List_3]) :-  
    append (List_1, List_2, List_3).
```

e.g.,

```
append([bob, jo], [jake, darcie], Family).  
Family = [ bob, jo, jake, darcie]
```

Notes:

1. **Head** the **first** element of the list
2. List_1 and List_2 are lists to be appended;
List_3 is the **resulting** list
3. **append** is a **predicate** that returns **yes** or **no**.

Prolog: reverse, member

```
reverse([], []).
```

```
reverse([Head | Tail], List) :-  
    reverse(Tail, Result),  
    append(Result, [Head], List).
```

e.g., `Q = [c, b, a]`

`reverse([a, b, c], Q).` → yes

```
member(Element, [Element | _]).
```

```
member(Element, [_ | List]) :-  
    member(Element, List).
```

e.g., `member(a, [b, a, c]).` → yes

Note: The underscore character (`_`) means an **anonymous variable**—it means we do not care what instantiation it might get from unification.

Deficiencies of Prolog

- Resolution order control
 - In a **pure** logic programming environment, the **order** of attempted matches is **nondeterministic** and all matches would be attempted *concurrently*
- The closed-world assumption
 - The **only** knowledge is what is in the **database**
- The **negation problem**
 - Anything **not** stated in the database is assumed to be **false**
- **Essential limitations**
 - It is **easy** to state a sort process in logic, but **difficult** to actually do—it **doesn't** know how to sort.

Applications of Logic Programming

- Relational database management systems
- Expert systems
- Natural language processing.