

COMP 348

PRINCIPLES OF

PROGRAMMING

LANGUAGES

LECTURE 2 – LOGICAL PROGRAMMING WITH PROLOG

Logical Programming with PROLOG

Clauses and Queries, Lists

Acknowledgement and Copyright Notice

- The following materials are the original lecture note from the Course Pack “COMP 348 Principles of Programming Languages” written and developed by:

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Software

- **SWI-PROLOG**

- <https://www.swi-prolog.org/>
- QuickStart: <https://www.swi-prolog.org/pldoc/man?section=quickstart>
- Online Version: <https://swish.swi-prolog.org/>
- Some Tutorials:
 - <http://lpn.swi-prolog.org/lpnpage.php?pageid=online>
 - https://www.doc.gold.ac.uk/~mas02gw/prolog_tutorial/prologpages/
 - <http://www.cs.nuim.ie/~jpower/Courses/Previous/PROLOG/>
 - <https://www.cis.upenn.edu/~matuszek/Concise%20Guides/Concise%20Prolog.html>

Data Type

- Prolog's single data type is **term**.
- A term can be
 - **atom** (begins with lower case),
 - a **number**,
 - a **variable** (upper case),
 - or a **compound term** (composed if an atom called a **functor** and a number of arguments which are indeed terms).
- Examples:
 - **raining**
 - **2**
 - **X**
 - **parent(peter, daphne)**

Facts and Clauses

- A Prolog program consists of **assertions (clauses)**.
 - Clauses are divided into:
 - **facts**
 - and **rules**.
 - Example:
 - **raining** *“It’s raining”*
 - **parent(peter, daphne) :- true.** *“Peter is the parent of Daphne.”*
- It can be simplified to:
- **parent(peter, daphne).**

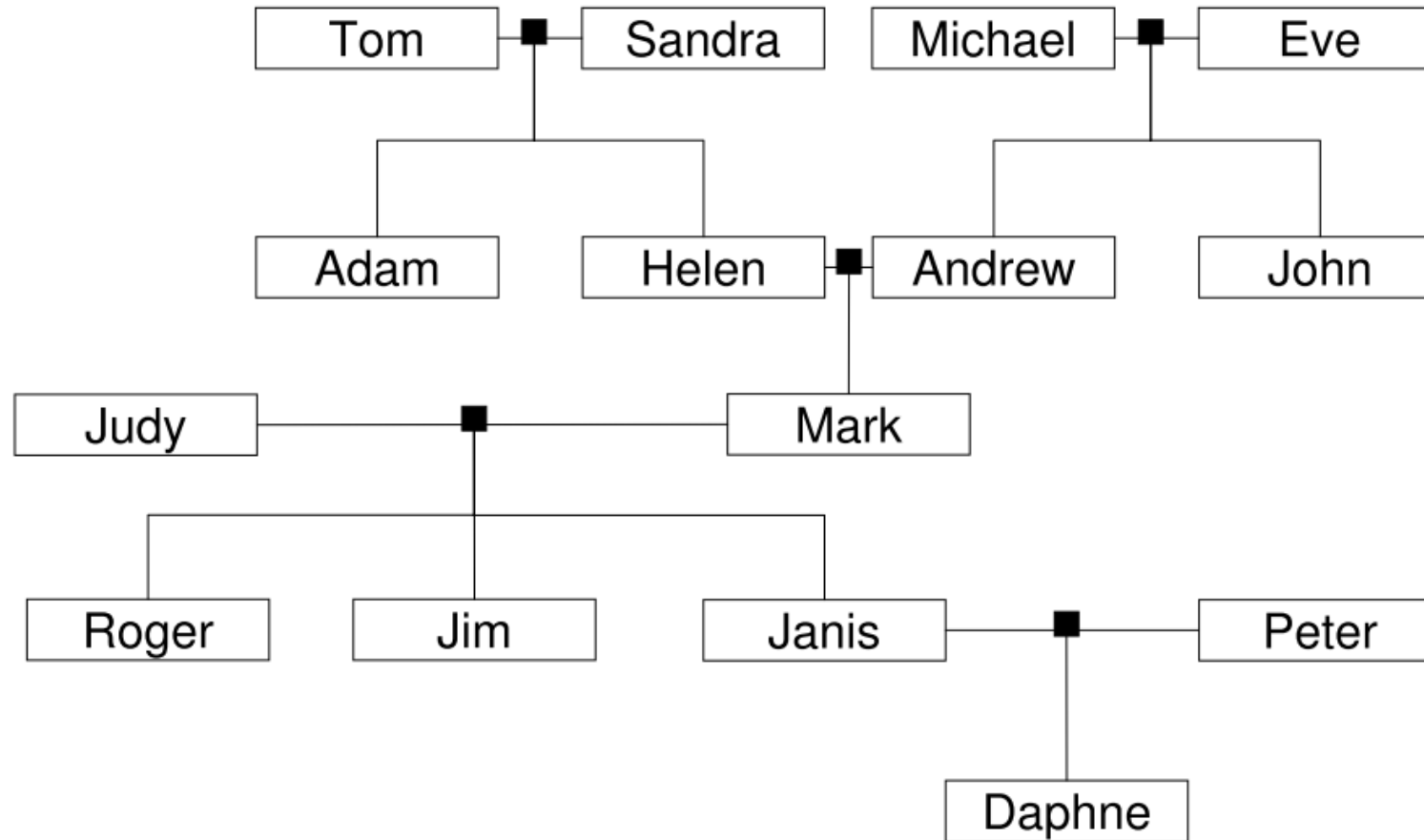
Arity

- The number of arguments is called **arity** and is represented by “/”:
 - Clause: **parent(peter, daphne).**
 - Arity: **parent/2**
- Note: Same name different arities are treated as different.

Clauses

- Predicate logic can be used to represent and reason about knowledge.
- We will adopt the Prolog programming language to model and process clauses.
- In this discussion we will use a running example to express the meaning and constraints of data as well as to construct queries over their representation in order to obtain information.

A running example: A family genealogy tree



Programs and statements

parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).

Prolog programs consist of collections of **statements** (called **assertions**, or **clauses**).

Statements and procedures

parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).

Prolog programs consist of collections of statements (called assertions, or clauses).

Statements are grouped into **procedures**. In the example, we have one procedure named **parent**, made up of several statements.

Procedures and arguments



```
parent(tom, adam).  
parent(tom, helen).  
parent(sandra, adam).  
parent(sandra, helen).  
parent(michael, andrew).  
parent(michael, john).  
parent(eve, andrew).  
parent(eve, john).  
parent(helen, mark).  
parent(andrew, mark).  
parent(judy, roger).  
parent(judy, jim).  
parent(judy, janis).  
parent(mark, roger).  
parent(mark, jim).  
parent(mark, janis).  
parent(janis, daphne).  
parent(peter, daphne).
```

Prolog programs consist of collections of statements (called assertions, or clauses).

Statements are grouped into procedures. In the example, we have one procedure named `parent`, made up of several statements.

Each procedure defines a certain relationship between its **arguments**.

The programmer decides on how to interpret this relationship. Here, `parent(tom, adam)` will be interpreted as “*Tom is the parent of Adam.*”

Statements revisited: Facts and rules

parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).



Prolog programs consist of collections of statements (called assertions, or clauses).

Statements are grouped into **procedures**. In the example, we have one procedure named parent, made up of several statements.

Each procedure defines a certain relationship between its arguments.

The programmer decides on how to interpret this relationship. Here, parent(tom, adam) will be interpreted as “*Tom is the parent of Adam.*”

There are two kinds of clauses: **facts** and **rules**.

Facts are propositions declared to be True.

In the example, the procedure named parent consists only by facts.

Questions and queries

parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).

The collection of statements constitutes a **(declarative) database**.

We can pose **queries** on this database.

A query is the codification of a **question**.

There are only two types of queries:

1. *Is it indeed the case that a given statement is true? (ground query)*



2. *Under what conditions, if any, is a given statement true? (non-ground query)*



Ground queries

parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).

Ground queries result in a Yes/No (or True/False) response:

For example, the question

“Is it indeed the case that Peter is the parent of Daphne?”

will be codified into a query and executed as

?- parent(peter, daphne).

Evaluation of ground queries

parent(tom, adam).

parent(tom, helen).

parent(sandra, adam).

parent(sandra, helen).

parent(michael, andrew).

parent(michael, john).

parent(eve, andrew).

parent(eve, john).

parent(helen, mark).

parent(andrew, mark).

parent(judy, roger).

parent(judy, jim).

parent(judy, janis).

parent(mark, roger).

parent(mark, jim).

parent(mark, janis).

parent(janis, daphne).

parent(peter, daphne).

Prolog will take the query

?- parent(peter, daphne).

and will start searching the database from top to bottom, one statement at a time trying to **match** (“**unify**”) it with a statement.

In trying the first statement, a match (**unification**) is *not* successful.

Evaluation of ground queries /cont.

parent(tom, adam).

parent(tom, helen).

parent(sandra, adam).

parent(sandra, helen).

parent(michael, andrew).

parent(michael, john).

parent(eve, andrew).

parent(eve, john).

parent(helen, mark).

parent(andrew, mark).

parent(judy, roger).

parent(judy, jim).

parent(judy, janis).

parent(mark, roger).

parent(mark, jim).

parent(mark, janis).

parent(janis, daphne).

parent(peter, daphne).

Prolog will then try to match the query

?- parent(peter, daphne).

against the next statement in the program.

Again, if not successful, it will try the next statement in the program...etc. until either a match is found or until the database is exhausted.

Evaluation of ground queries /cont.

parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).

In this example, Prolog will eventually succeed, having matched the query

→ ?- parent(peter, daphne).

with the last statement.

Prolog will respond *Yes* (or *true*) to the query.

We have managed to prove that it is indeed the case that parent(peter, daphne) is true.

Non-ground queries

parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).

A non-ground query involves one or more **variables**.

The question “*Who is a parent of Daphne*” can be transformed into a non-ground query as

?- parent(X, daphne).

where **X** (note the capitalization) is a variable.

We are asking Prolog to seek **instantiation**(s) for variable **X**, provided any exist, that could make the query succeed.

Unification revisited

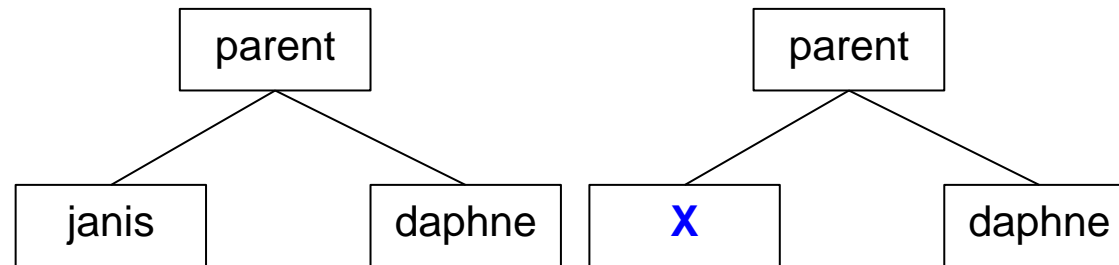
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).

Unification (or matching) is a basic operation on terms.

A ground query can unify with a statement, e.g.
?- parent(tom, adam).

A non-ground query can unify with a statement only if substitution can be made for any variables so that the two terms can be made equal. In this example, we have

?- parent(X, daphne).



Tree representation of a statement.

Tree representation of a non-ground query.

Unification revisited /cont.



- The terms `parent(janis, daphne)` and `parent(X, daphne)` unify instantiating `X` to `janis`.
- There is in fact one more solution, because there are two possible choices to unify with `parent(X, daphne)`.

Rules: Head and body



parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).

A rule statement gives rules of implication between propositions. The general form is

head :- body.

(or **conclusion :- condition.**)

which reads

“The head (of the rule) is true, if the body is true.”,

or, alternatively:

“The head of the rule can succeed if the body of the rule can succeed.”

Formulae and rules

- Let us extend the database with a new procedure `grandparent`.
- Let `p` stand for `isParentOf` relation and let `g` stand for `isGrandParentOf` relation.
- We can define `g` in terms of `p` by the following formula: For persons `x`, `y`, `z`:

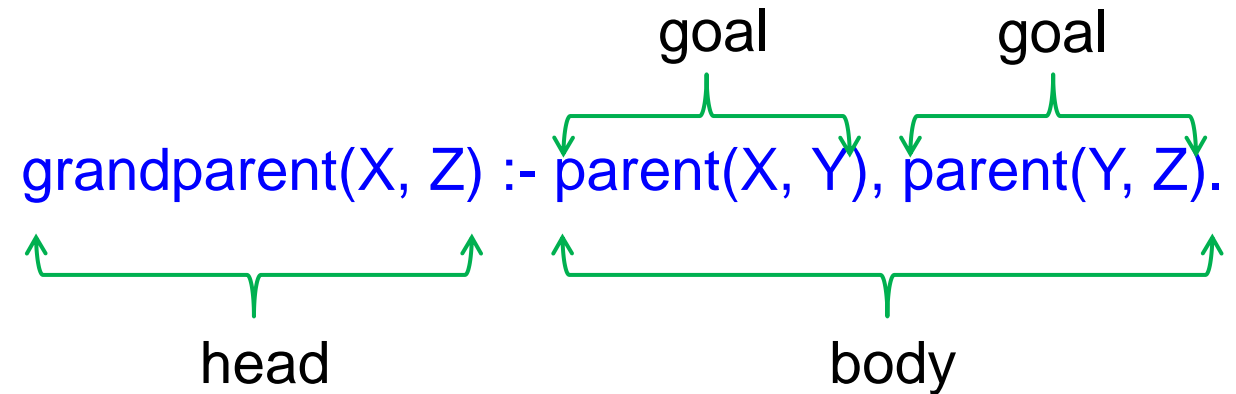
$$G = \forall x, y, z ((p(x, z) \wedge p(z, y)) \rightarrow g(x, y))$$

- We can represent the formula with the rule below:
`grandparent(X, Z) :- parent(X, Y), parent(Y, Z).`

Rules and goals

parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).

Consider the following rule statement:



The body of rule `grandparent` contains two **goals**.

The goals are related by a **conjunction** (denoted by the comma symbol).

Extending the database

parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).

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

← The rule is added to the database.

Evaluation of a ground query in the presence of rules

An example

parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).

Consider the query `grandparent(judy, daphne)`.

Prolog will search its database from top to bottom and

a) **unify** the query with the head of the rule,

b) **instantiate** `X` to `judy` and `Z` to `daphne`,

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

`?- grandparent(judy, daphne).`

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

Evaluation of a ground query in the presence of rules

An example /cont.

parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).

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

c) **resolve** to two new queries (that correspond to the two goals of the rule):

parent(judy, Y), parent(Y, daphne).

Both queries must now be evaluated (in the order specified) and if both prove true, then the rule **succeeds** (and the answer to the query is Yes/True).

Evaluation of a ground query in the presence of rules

An example /cont.

```
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).
grandparent(X, Z) :- parent(X, Y),
                      parent(Y, Z).
```

The two goals

`parent(judy, Y), parent(Y, daphne).`

will be evaluated as follows:

The first goal `parent(judy, Y)`, will be executed as any other query, unifying with `parent(judy, roger)`, and instantiating `Y` to `roger`.

Once the first goal succeeds, Prolog will try the next one on the right, for the same instantiation:

Can `roger` make the second goal succeed?

No. The query `parent(roger, daphne)` is not successful.

Evaluation of a ground query in the presence of rules

An example /cont.

parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).

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

Prolog will continue searching the database to find matches that can satisfy both goals

parent(judy, Y), parent(Y, daphne).

→ The first goal, parent(judy, Y), can unify with parent(judy, jim), instantiating Y to jim.

Can jim make the second goal succeed?

No. The query parent(jim, daphne) is not successful.

Evaluation of a ground query in the presence of rules

An example /cont.

parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).
grandparent(X, Z) :- parent(X, Y),
parent(Y, Z).

Prolog will continue searching the database to find matches that can satisfy both goals

parent(judy, Y), parent(Y, daphne).

The first goal, parent(judy, Y), can unify with parent(judy, janis), instantiating Y to janis.

Can janis make the second goal succeed?

Yes. The query parent(janis, daphne) is successful.

Evaluation of a non-ground query in the presence of rules: An example

parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).

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

The question

“Who are the grandparents of Daphne?”

is codified into the query

→ ?- grandparent(G, daphne).

This will unify with the head of rule
grandparent, instantiating variable Z to
daphne and resolving into two goals:

parent (G, Y), parent(Y, daphne).

Evaluation of a non-ground query in the presence of rules: An example

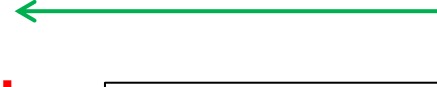
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).
grandparent(X, Z) :- parent(X, Y),
 parent(Y, Z).

?- grandparent(X, daphne).

X = judy ;

X = mark ;

No



Upon finding a match, Prolog will stop here and wait for instructions. The semicolon symbol (;) inquires whether more matches can be found.

A period symbol (.) would indicate our intention to stop the search.

I'm my own Grandpa

-- Ray Stevens

I'm my own GRANDPA



<https://blog.eogn.com/2015/01/23/im-my-own-grandpa/>

Thanks to Dr. Nora Nouari

I'm my own Grandpa

-- Ray Stevens

Many, many years ago when I was twenty-three
 I was **married** to a widow who was pretty as could be
 This widow had a grown-up **daughter** who had hair of red
 My **father** fell in love with her and soon they too were wed
 This made my **dad** my **son-in-law** and really changed my life
 For now my **daughter** was my **mother**, 'cause she was my **father's wife**
 And to complicate the matter, even though it brought me joy
 I soon became the **father** of a bouncing baby boy
 My little baby then became a **brother-in-law** to dad
 And so became my uncle, though it made me very sad
 For if he were my uncle, then that also made him brother
 Of the widow's grownup daughter, who was of course my step-mother
 Father's wife then had a son who kept them on the run
 And he became my grandchild, for he was my daughter's son
 My wife is now my mother's mother and it makes me blue
 Because although she is my wife, she's my grandmother too
 Now if my wife is my grandmother, then I'm her grandchild
 And every time I think of it, it nearly drives me wild
 'Cause now I have become the strangest 'case you ever saw
 As husband of my grandmother, I am my own grandpa
 I'm my own grandpa, I'm my own grandpa
 It sounds funny, I know but it really is so
 I'm my own grandpa...

<https://blog.cogn.com/2015/01/23/im-my-own-grandpa/>

Thanks to Dr. Nora Nouari



Multi-line rules: Disjunction

- We can now further extend the database with a rule to define ancestor relation.
- Suppose we let **p** stand for the **isParentOf** relation and let **a** stand for the **isAncestorOf** relation. Then we can define **a** in terms of **p** by the following formula we will call **A**:

$$A = \forall x, y (p(x, y) \rightarrow a(x, y))$$

$$A = \forall x, y, z ((p(x, z) \text{ and } a(z, y)) \rightarrow a(x, y))$$

Multi-line rules: Disjunction /cont.

- In other words, **x** is an ancestor of **y** if either **x** is a parent of **y**, or **x** is a parent of an ancestor of **y**. We can represent this in Prolog with the rules below:



disjunction { ancestor(X, Y) :- parent(X, Y).
ancestor(X, Y) :- parent(X, Z), ancestor(Z, Y).
conjunction

- A rule can be placed in more than one lines.
- In this case, there is a **disjunction** between the two lines, and there is a **conjunction** between the two goals of the body of the second rule.

Further extending the database

```
man(tom).
man(michael).
man(adam).
man(andrew).
man(john).
man(mark).
man(roger).
man(jim).
man(peter).
woman(sandra).
woman(eve).
woman(helen).
woman(judy).
woman(janis).
woman(daphne).
```

```
father(X, Y) :- man(X),
                parent(X, Y).
mother(X, Y) :- woman(X),
                parent(X, Y).
```

We extend the database by introducing four procedures:

man, woman: made up of facts, and
father, mother: rules.

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

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

Anonymous variables in rules

- If any parameter of a relation is not important, we can replace it with an **anonymous variable** denoted by the underscore character (`_`) as follows:

```
is_father(X) :- father(X, _).
```

```
is_mother(X) :- mother(X, _).
```

- We can now pose more queries such as *“Is Tom a father?”*
- To answer this type of question, it does not matter who **Tom** is the father of, as long as **Tom** is found as the first term in a father statement. The query is as follows:

```
?- is_father(tom).
```

```
true
```

Anonymous variables in queries

- Alternatively we can use anonymous variables in queries, such as

`?- father(tom, _).`

true

Arithmetic Operators

- Operators `+`, `-`, `*`, `/`, `**`, and `mod`.
- Keyword `is` denotes arithmetic assignment.
- Example:

?- (7 is 6 + 1).

Yes

?- (X is 6 + 1).

X = 7 ;

No

Relational and Logical Operators

- Operators $<$, $>$, $=<$, $>=$, $:=$, and \neq .
 \neg (logical NOT)

- Example:

$\neg (1 < 3), (4 < 2).$

No

$\neg (1 < 3); (4 < 2).$

Yes

Relational and Logical Operators

- Example: how to find maximum of two numbers?
 - $\text{max}(X, Y, X) :- X > Y.$
 - $\text{max}(X, Y, Y) :- X < Y.$
 - $\text{max}(X, X, X).$

?- $\text{max}(9, 5, X).$

$X = 9;$

No

?- $\text{max}(5, 9, X).$

$X = 9;$

No

Question: What is the output for $\text{max}(5, 5, X)$?

= VS is VS == VS :=

- = means unification i.e. $X = 2$
- == means identical i.e. $2 == 2$
- is evaluates r.h.s only i.e. $X \text{ is } (1 + 2)$
- := evaluates both sides i.e. $(1+3) := (2 + 4)$

Prolog cannot solve equations!

Remember

- Prolog cannot solve equations.
- Instead it uses **unification**!
- Example:
 - `solve(X, Y) :- (X is Y + 1), (2 * X == Y + 3).`

`?- solve(2, 1).`

true

`?- solve(X, Y).`

Arguments are not sufficiently instantiated

Lists

- Lists are represented in square brackets [...].
- The **empty list** is represented by [].
- Every non-empty list can be represented in two parts:
 - The **head**, which is the first element.
 - The **tail**, which is the list containing the remaining elements.
 - The head of [john, eve, paul] is john.
 - The tail of [john, eve, paul] is [eve, paul].

List representations

- The symbol `|` in `[H|T]` represents a list whose head is `H` and whose tail is `T`.
- We can represent the above example as `[john | [eve, paul]]`
- Since `[eve, paul]` is also a list with head `eve` and tail `[paul]`, we can write the above list as `[john | [eve | [paul]]]`
- Any one-element list can be written as that element joined to the empty list. Thus, `[paul]` is the same as `[paul | []]`
- We can now write the full list as `[john | [eve | [paul | []]]]`

Example: Checking for list membership

- We want to define a procedure `member(X,L)` which succeeds if `X` is an element of a list `L`.
- We can define list membership recursively as follows:
- `X` is a member of `L` if
`X` is the head of `L` (regardless of what the tail is), or
`member(X, [X|_])`.
- `X` is a member of the tail of `L` (regardless of what the head is).
`member(X, [_|T]) :- member(X, T)`.

Example: Checking for list membership /cont.

?- member(a, [a, b, c]).

true

?- member(a, []).

false.

?- member([b, c], [[a], [b, c]]).

true

?- member(X, [a, b]).

X = a ;

X = b ;

false.

Controlling backtracking with 'cut'

Recall the run member/2:

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

To improve efficiency, we can use the cut operation in prolog: !

```
member(X, [X|_]) :- !.  
member(X, [_|T]) :- member(X, T).
```

Controlling backtracking with 'cut'

added

Using Cut:

```
member(X, [X|_]) :- !.  
member(X, [_|T]) :- member(X, T).
```

Example:

```
?- member(a, [a, b, c]).  
true
```

```
?- member(X, [a, b, c]).  
X = a.
```

Example: The last element in a list

- In this example, we want to define a rule which succeeds if an element is found to be in the last position of a non-empty list.
- We can identify two cases for this:
- The list has one element.
- The list has more than one element.

Example: The last element in a list /cont.

- Case 1: The list has only one element.
- In this case, the last element is the only existing element of the list.
- The following rule,

`last(L, [L]).`

reads “Rule last succeeds if element L is found to be the only element of a given list.”

Example: The last element in a list /cont.

- Case 2: The list has more than one element.
- In this case, we need to reduce the problem to the one that can be handled by case 1.
- In other words, the clause will succeed once it chops off all elements, one by one, until it ends up with one element.

Example: The last element in a list /cont.

- The following rule,

`last(L, [H|T]) :- last(L, T).`

reads “*Rule last can succeed for a list whose head is H and whose tail is T , if it can succeed for a new list which is the tail T of the original list.*”

Example: The last element in a list /cont.

- In other words, let us get rid of the first element and see if we end up with only one element in which case the rule of case 1 will determine that this remaining element is indeed the last element.
- However, if after getting rid of the first element we end up with a list with more than one elements, we must repeat this chopping off the head of the list, until we end up with a list which has only one element and subsequently handled by the first rule (of case 1).

Example: The last element in a list /cont.

Evaluation of a ground query [1 of 3].

Given the rule,

`last(L, [L]).`

`last(L, [H|T]) :- last(L, T).`

Consider the query

`?- last(c, [a, b, c]).`

Prolog will (search its database from top to bottom and)

unify the query with the head of the second statement of the rule,
instantiate variable `L` to `c` and variable `[H|T]` to `[a | b, c]`,
resolve to a new query (that corresponds to the body of the rule):

`last(c, [b, c]).`

This new query must now be evaluated.

Example: The last element in a list /cont.

Evaluation of a ground query [2 of 3].

Given the rule,

`last(L, [L]).`

`last(L, [H|T]) :- last(L, T).`

The query

`?- last(c, [b, c]).`

Will cause Prolog to (perform a new search and)

unify the query with the head of the second statement of the rule,
instantiate variable `L` to `c` and variable `[H|T]` to `[b | c]`,
resolve to a new query (that corresponds to the body of the rule):

`last(c, [c]).`

This new query must now be evaluated.

Example: The last element in a list /cont.

Evaluation of a ground query [3 of 3].

Given the rule,

`last(L, [L]).`

`last(L, [H|T]) :- last(L, T).`

The query

`?- last(c, [c]).`

Will cause Prolog to (perform a new search and)

unify the query with the head of the first statement of the rule, and yield a success, indicating that it is indeed the case that `c` is found in the last position of the list.

Example: Calculating the size of a list

- Consider a rule `size/2` to read in a list and calculate its length.

`size([],0).`

`size([H|T],N) :- size(T,N1), N is N1+1.`

- We can execute queries as follows:

`?- size([],N).`

`N = 0.`

`?- size([a,b,c],N).`

`N = 3.`

`?- size([[a,b],c],N).`

`N = 2.`

`?- size([[a,b,c]],N).`

`N = 1.`

Built-in utility functions

- The built-in function `findall(X, P, L)` returns a list `L` with all values for `X` that satisfy predicate `P`.
- To eliminate redundancies in a list, we can use the built-in function `list_to_set(List, Set)` that converts the list (with possibly repeated elements) into a set.
- The built-in function `length(List, L)` returns the length `L` of a given list.

Example with **findall** and **list_to_set** in a query

- Let us obtain a set of all fathers:

?- findall(F, father(F, _), Lst).

Lst = [tom, tom, michael, michael, andrew, mark, mark, mark, peter].

?- findall(F, father(F, _), Lst), list_to_set(Lst, Set).

Lst = [tom, tom, michael, michael, andrew, mark, mark, mark, peter],

Set = [tom, michael, andrew, mark, peter].

Example with **findall** and **list_to_set** in a rule

- The query `findall(F, father(F, _), Lst), list_to_set(Lst, Set)` is rather long and complex.
- We can encapsulate its size and complexity in a rule:

```
get_all_fathers(Set) :- forall(F, father(F, _), Lst),  
                        list_to_set(Lst, Set).
```

```
?- get_all_fathers(Set).
```

```
Set = [tom, michael, andrew, mark, peter].
```

Example with **findall** and **length** in a rule

- Let us construct a rule **qualifies_for_benefits(P)** that succeeds if **P** is a mother of at least three children.

qualifies_for_benefits(P) :-

```
woman(P),  
    findall(C, parent(P, C), L),  
    length(L, N),  
    N >= 3.
```

?- qualifies_for_benefits(Name).

Name = judy ;

false.

Example with **findall** and **length** in a rule

- How about?

```
qualifies_for_benefits(P) :-  
    woman(P),  
    findall(P, parent(P, _), L),  
    length(L, N),  
    N >= 3.
```

?- **qualifies_for_benefits**(Name).

Name = judy ;

false.

Qualifiers

- Qualifiers may be used to pose questions such as “Are all men parents?”. To do this, in prolog we use **forall** qualifier.

?- forall(man(X), parent(X, _)).

No

Prolog Tutorial

- **Videos**

- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SykxWpFwMGs>