

SENG2200/6220
PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES &
PARADIGMS
(S1, 2020)

Logic Programming - Prolog

Dr Nan Li
Office: ES222
Nan.Li@newcastle.edu.au

Outline

- Logical/Declarative Languages
- Prolog
 - *Terminology*
 - *Facts and Rules*
 - *Queries*
 - *Arithmetic*
 - *Lists*
- Predicate Calculus
- Theorem Proving
- Prolog Limitations

Motivation

- In procedural languages, the program specifies a sequence of instructions for solving a problem
 - *A linear decomposition of the problem*
- In functional languages, the program specifies a set of functions which together solve the problem
 - *A hierarchical decomposition of the problem*

Motivation

- If done well, a functional program can *look like* a statement of the problem

- *Especially true with pattern matching*

fib 0 = 1

fib 1 = 1

fib (n+2) = fib (n+1) + fib n

- *But you are still defining the solution to the problem as a set of solutions to subproblems*

Logic Programming

- *Logical* programming language
 - *aka Declarative programming language*
- Express programs in a form of *symbolic logic*
- Use a logical *inferencing* process to produce results

Logic Programming

- Programming is non-procedural
 - *Programs do not state how a result is to be computed, but rather the form of the result*
- Declarative semantics
 - *As only the result needs to be specified, semantics tend to be simple*
 - *Much simpler than the semantics of imperative languages*

Logic Programming

- Example: to sort a list of numbers

```
sort(Old_list, New_list) :-  
    permute(Old_list, New_list),  
    sorted(New_list)
```

- Read as “*sorting Old_list to give New_list is successful if Old_list is a permutation of New_list and New_list is sorted*”
- Require definitions for ***permute*** and ***sorted***

Prolog

- Prolog = PROgramming in LOGic
- Developed as a collaboration between University of Aix-Marseille (for natural language processing) and University of Edinburgh (for automated theorem proving)
- We will use Edinburgh syntax
- Online environment, e.g.,
<https://swish.swi-prolog.org/>

Prolog

- Terminology...
- *Term* = a constant, variable or structure
- *Constant* = an atom or an integer
- *Atom* = a symbolic value, either:
 - a word (letters, digits, and underscores) beginning with a **lowercase** letter
 - a string of printable ASCII characters delimited by apostrophes
- *Variable* = a word (letters, digits, and underscores) beginning with an **uppercase** letter

Prolog

- Prolog works by finding an assignment of values to variables which makes the propositions of the program true
 - *This process is called **instantiation***
 - *The final result (list of matched variables) is called a **unification** - the set of variable values that makes the system true*
- An atomic proposition is represented by a *structure of*
 - *A fact statement*
 - *A headless Horn clause*
 - *functor (parameter_list) .*

Prolog

- Examples of fact statements

lecturer(michael) .

tutor(luke) .

student(melissa) .

payedMore(michael, luke) .

payedMore(michael, melissa) .

payedMore(luke, melissa) .

Prolog

- An inference **rule proposition** is represented by a *headed Horn clause*
 - A rule statement
consequent :- antecedent.
 - *consequent = LHS = “then part” = a single term*
 - *antecedent = RHS = “if part” = a single term or a conjunction of several term*
 - *conjunction = logical AND = comma-separated list of terms*

Prolog

- Rule statements are only really useful if one or more of the parameters are variables

```
payedMore (X, Y) :-  
    lecturer (X) , tutor (Y) .
```

```
payedMore (X, Y) :-  
    tutor (X) , student (Y) .
```

```
payedMore (X, Y) :-  
    lecturer (X) , student (Y) .
```

- *Note there are multiple rules with the same consequent*

Prolog Queries

- A **query** in Prolog is as a goal statement
 - *This can be a single term, or a conjunction of terms, with or without variables*
 - *Without variables, Prolog answers whether the query is true*
 - *With variables, Prolog answers with one set of values which cause the query to be true – if the user responses with ; it continues to find another set of variables*

Prolog Queries

- Consider **payedMore(michael, X)** .

Finds rule `payedMore(X', Y') :-`

`lecturer(X'), tutor(Y') .`

Instantiates `X' ← michael, Y' ← X`

Looks for `lecturer(michael) ⇒ Yes`

Looks for `tutor(Y')`

Finds `tutor(luke)` .

Instantiates `Y' ← luke`

Success! Output `X = luke`

Prolog Queries

- The user responds ; = look for more answers

Backtrack!

Looks for another $tutor(Y') \Rightarrow \text{No}$

Backtrack!

Finds another rule $payedMore(X', Y') :-$

$tutor(X'), student(Y').$

Instantiates $X' \leftarrow michael, Y' \leftarrow X$

Looks for $tutor(michael) \Rightarrow \text{No}$

Backtrack!

Prolog Queries

Finds another rules `payedMore (X', Y')` :-

`lecturer(X'), student(Y') .`

Instantiates `X' ← michael, Y' ← X`

Looks for `lecturer(michael) ⇒ Yes`

Looks for `student(Y')`

Finds `student(melissa) .`

Instantiates `Y' ← melissa`

Success! Output `X = melissa`

Prolog Queries

- The user responds ; = look for more answers

Backtrack!

Looks for another student (Y') \Rightarrow No

Backtrack!

No more rules matching `payedMore (X, Y)`

*Failed! Output **No***

- The system should always respond with No unless the query contains no variables or the user aborts before all answers are found

Prolog Queries

- The **=** operator forces two variables to *unify*
 - *In the previous example, Prolog implicitly instantiates $Y' = X$*

same(X, Y) :- X = Y.

- The **not** operator succeeds if it's argument fails

different(X, Y) :- not(X = Y).

siblings(X, Y) :-

parent(P, X), parent(P, Y),

not(X = Y).

Prolog Arithmetic

- Prolog supports integer variables and integer arithmetic
 - $+$ $-$ $*$ $/$ *div* *mod*
 - ***is*** operator: takes an arithmetic expression as right operand and variable as left operand
 - $A \text{ is } B / 10 + C$
 - ***is*** forces evaluation – assumes ***B*** and ***C*** have been instantiated but ***A*** has not
 - ***This is not the same as an assignment statement!***

Prolog Arithmetic

■ Example

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

Prolog Arithmetic

- Prolog supports comparison of integers

- $== \backslash= > >= < <=$

- *These also force evaluation like **is***

- Examples

$1 + 2 == 2 + 1 \Rightarrow \text{Yes}$

$1 + 2 = 2 + 1 \Rightarrow \text{No}$

$1 + A = B + 2 \Rightarrow A=2, B=1$

Prolog Lists

- Prolog has support for lists
 - *The elements of a list can be any terms, including nested lists*
 - *Examples*
 - [apple, banana, orange, grape]**
 - []** = an empty list
 - [X | Y]** = the list with head **X** and tail **Y**

Prolog Lists

- Example

```
length([], 0).
```

```
length([_ | T], N) :-
```

```
    length(T, N1),
```

```
    N is 1 + N1.
```

- *Note: `_` is the anonymous variable – it holds a place but is never unified or output*
- *E.g.,*
 - *Query:* `length([1,m,p],X).`
 - *Output:* `X = 3`

Prolog Lists

- Example

```
sorted([]).
```

```
sorted([_]).
```

```
sorted([X1, X2]) :- X2 >= X1.
```

```
sorted([X1, X2 | T]) :-
```

```
  X2 >= X1, sorted([X2 | T]).
```

Prolog Lists

- Examples

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

```
append([H | L1], L2, [H | L3]) :-  
    append(L1, L2, L3) .
```

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

```
reverse([H | T], L) :-  
    reverse(T, Rev),  
    append(Rev, [H], L) .
```

Predicate Calculus

- Prolog is built upon the foundation of *first-order predicate calculus*
- A particular form of *symbolic logic* used for logic programming
- Provides a means of...
 - *expressing propositions*
 - *expressing relationships between propositions*
 - *describing how new propositions can be inferred from other propositions*

Predicate Calculus

- Proposition
 - *A logical statement that may or may not be true*
 - *Consists of objects and relationships of objects to each other*
- Objects in propositions are represented by *simple terms*: either *constants* or *variables*
- Constant: a symbol that represents an object
- Variable: a symbol that can represent different objects at different times
 - *Not the same concept as variables in imperative languages*

Predicate Calculus

- *Atomic propositions consist of compound terms*
- *Compound term:*
 - *One element of a mathematical relation, written like a mathematical function*
 - *Two parts*
 - *Functor: function symbol that names the relationship*
 - *Ordered list of parameters*

Predicate Calculus

- Fact:
 - *A compound term where all parameters are constants*
lecturer(michael)
tutor(luke)
student(melissa)
likes(michael, steak)
likes(michael, seafood)
likes(luke, seafood)

Predicate Calculus

- Query:
 - *A compound term where at least one parameter is a variable*

`student (X)`

`likes (michael, Y)`

`likes (Z, seafood)`

Predicate Calculus

- Compound proposition:
 - *Two or more atomic propositions...*
 - *Connected by an operator*
 - *Logical operators: \neg \cap \cup \equiv \supset \subset*
 - *Grouping by parentheses ()*
 - *Quantifiers: \forall \exists*

Predicate Calculus

<i>Name</i>	<i>Symbol</i>	<i>Example</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
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

Predicate Calculus

- Examples

$\text{likes}(\text{michael}, \text{steak}) \supset \text{getsFat}(\text{michael})$

$\text{getsIodinePoisoning}(\text{luke}) \subset \text{likes}(\text{luke}, \text{seafood})$

$\text{retiresComfortably}(\text{michael}) \subset$
 $(\text{worksHard}(\text{michael})$
 $\quad \cap \neg \text{madeRedundant}(\text{michael}))$
 $\cup \text{winsLotto}(\text{michael})$

Predicate Calculus

- Variables are introduced by logical *quantifiers*

<i>Name</i>	<i>Example</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
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

Predicate Calculus

- Examples

$\exists X. (\text{getsIodinePoisoning}(X) \subset \text{likes}(X, \text{seafood}))$

$\neg \forall X. (\text{getsIodinePoisoning}(X) \subset \text{likes}(X, \text{seafood}))$

$\exists X. ((\text{retiresComfortably}(X) \subset (\text{worksHard}(X) \cap \neg \text{madeRedundant}(X)) \cup \text{winsLotto}(X)) \supset \text{lecturer}(X))$

Predicate Calculus

- There may be an exponential number of ways to write the same compound proposition
- Clausal form
 - $B_1 \cup B_2 \cup \dots \cup B_n \subset A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_m$
 - *if all the **A**s are true, then at least one **B** is true*
 - *Antecedent: right side of \subset*
 - *Consequent: left side of \subset*
- Any predicate calculus proposition can be converted algorithmically into clausal form

Theorem Proving

- Restrict each proposition to a Horn clause
 - *Clausal form with zero or one atomic propositions in the consequent*
 - *An empty consequent (a headless Horn clause) is used to express facts*
 - **Most** *propositions can be stated as Horn clauses*

Theorem Proving

- Resolution
 - *An algorithmic process whereby a new proposition is inferred from two existing propositions*
 - *If the consequent of one rule is part of the antecedent of another rule then merge the two rules...*
 - ***Resolve*** ($A \subset B \cap P, P \subset C$)
 $\Rightarrow A \cap P \subset B \cap P \cap C$
 - *Then eliminate common parts P*
 $\Rightarrow A \subset B \cap C$

Theorem Proving

- Propose a theorem then test whether it is true given the known axioms and theorems
- Proof by construction
 - *For existential theorems*
 - *Search the known axioms for a combination which makes the proposed theorem true*
- Proof by contradiction
 - *For universal theorems*
 - *Search the known axioms to ensure there is no combination for which the proposed theorem is not true*

Theorem Proving

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

Theorem Proving

- Matching
 - *Finding a fact or the consequent of a rule which could satisfy the goal proposition*
- Unification
 - *Finding values for all variables in a rule such that it satisfies the goal proposition*
- Instantiation
 - *Assigning temporary values to the variables of one atomic proposition within the (sub)goal*

Theorem Proving

- Depth-first search
 - *Recursively unify one subgoal before attempting to unify any others at this level*
- Breadth-first search
 - *Attempt to unify all subgoals in parallel*
 - *Can be faster but requires much greater computing resources*
- Prolog uses depth-first search

Theorem Proving in Prolog

- Inside Prolog:
 - *Search the database (top-to-bottom in the source file) for a match for the current goal*
 - *If the match contains variables, then instantiate any variables possible with their values*
 - *If the match is a fact, then return success*
 - *If the match is a rule, solve for each subgoal (left-to-right in the source file)...*

Theorem Proving in Prolog

- If all subgoals succeed, then return success
- If a subgoal fails, then
 - *Uninstantiate any variables of that subgoal*
 - *Backtrack to the previous subgoal and look for the next match*

Theorem Proving in Prolog

- Helpful to assume every rule has an extra subgoal
 - *This subgoal displays the current values of all variables then awaits the user's response*
 - *If the user says to stop, then this subgoal succeeds and the theorem is proved*
 - *If the user asks for another solution, then this subgoal fails and backtracking occurs*

Prolog Examples

```
lecturer(michael) .
```

```
tutor(luke) .
```

```
student(melissa) .
```

```
payedMore(X, Y) :- lecturer(X), tutor(Y) .
```

```
payedMore(X, Y) :- tutor(X), student(Y) .
```

```
payedMore(X, Y) :- lecturer(X), student(Y) .
```

```
?- trace.
```

```
?- payedMore(michael, X) .
```

Prolog Examples

```
professor(peter) .
```

```
payedMore(X, _) :- professor(X) .
```

```
payedMore(_, X) :- student(X) .
```

```
?- payedMore(X, michael) .
```

```
?- payedMore(peter, X) .
```

```
?- payedMore(X, peter) .
```


Prolog Limitations

- Prolog can only report “Yes” or “No” based on the knowledge in its database of facts and rules
 - *Called the closed-world assumption*
 - *“Yes” means it can satisfy the proposition given the facts and rules in the database*
 - *“No” does not mean “false”*
 - *“No” means it cannot satisfy the proposition **given the facts and rules in the database***
 - *Prolog is a true/fail system*

Prolog Limitations

- Consider this example

```
parent(arthur, michael) .  
parent(arthur, philip) .  
sibling(X, Y) :-  
    parent(P, X), parent(P, Y) .
```

Now

```
sibling(X, Y) . responds  
    X = michael, Y = michael
```

Prolog Limitations

- Solution 1:

```
sibling(X, Y) :- notSame(X, Y),  
                parent(P, X), parent(P, Y).
```

- For **every** pair of people in the database, add `notSame(person1, person2)`.

- Solution 2:

```
sibling(X, Y) :- parent(P, X), parent(P,  
                Y), not(X = Y).
```

- Works for this simple example

Prolog Limitations

- `not (X)` succeeds if `X` fails
- `not (X)` fails if `X` succeeds
 - So you couldn't put `not (X = Y)` before the *parent ()* propositions, as `X=Y` will always succeed, hence `not (X=Y)` will always fail

Prolog Limitations

- Does `not(not(X)) = X`?
 - Recall that, if `func(X)` fails, then `X` is uninstantiated before backtracking
 - `not(X)` fails, so `X` is uninstantiated
 - `not(not(X))` succeeds...
 - ***but X is left uninstantiated!!***

Prolog Limitations

- In a purely logical programming language, the order of evaluating subgoals is indeterminate
 - *Effectively evaluated in parallel*
- Prolog is not purely logical
 - *Always matches propositions top-to-bottom*
 - *Always evaluates subgoals left-to-right*

References

- R. W. Sebesta, “Concepts of Programming Languages”, 9th Edition, Addison-Wesley, 2010 (Chapter 16)
- I. Bratko, “Prolog Programming for Artificial Intelligence”, Addison-Wesley, 1986