

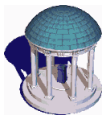
The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill

COMP 144 Programming Language Concepts
Spring 2003

Logic Programming with Prolog: Resolution, Unification, Backtracking

Stotts, Hernandez-Campos

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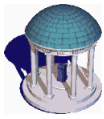


Prolog

***PRO**gramming in LOGic*

- It is the most widely used logic programming language
- Its development started in 1970 and it was result of a collaboration between researchers from Marseille, France, and Edinburgh, Scotland

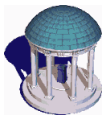
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What's it good for?

- Knowledge representation
- Natural language processing
- State-space searching (Rubik's cube)
- Logic problems
- Theorem provers
- Expert systems, deductive databases
- Agents

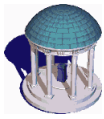
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Terms to learn

- Predicate calculus
- Horn clause
- Resolution
- Unification
- Backtracking

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The Logic Paradigm

A logic program comprises

- collection of axioms (facts and inference rules)
- one or more goal statements

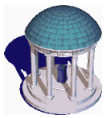
Axioms are a *theory*

Goal statement is a *theorem*

Computation is *deduction* to prove the theorem within the theory

Interpreter tries to find a collection of axioms and inference steps that imply the goal

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Relational Programming

- A predicate is a tuple `pred(a,b,c)`
- Tuple is an element in a relation
- Prolog program is a specification of a relation (contrast to functional programming)

```
brother (sam, bill)
```

```
brother (sam, bob)
```

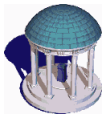
Brother is not a function, since it maps "sam" to two different range elements

Brother is a relation

- Relations are n-ary, not just binary

```
family(jane,sam,[ann,tim,sean])
```

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Relations... examples

$(2,4), (3,9), (4,16), (5,25), (6,36), (7,49), \dots$ "square"

$(t,t,f), (t,f,t), (f,t,t), (f,f,f) \dots$ "xor" boolean algebra

$(\text{smith}, \text{bob}, 43, \text{male}, \text{richmond}, \text{plumber}),$

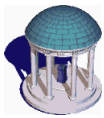
$(\text{smith}, \text{bob}, 27, \text{male}, \text{richmond}, \text{lawyer}),$

$(\text{jones}, \text{alice}, 31, \text{female}, \text{durham}, \text{doctor}),$

$(\text{jones}, \text{lisa}, 12, \text{female}, \text{raleigh}, \text{student}),$

$(\text{smith}, \text{chris}, 53, \text{female}, \text{durham}, \text{teacher})$

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Relational Programming

- Prolog programs define relations and allow you to express patterns to extract various tuples from the relations
- Infinite relations cannot be defined by rote... need rules

- (A,B) are related if B is $A*A$

- (B,H,A) are related if A is $\frac{1}{2} B*H$

or... gen all tuples like this $(B,H,B*H*0.5)$

Prolog uses Horn clauses for explicit definition (facts) and for rules

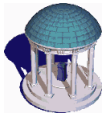
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“Directionality”

- Parameters are not directional (in, out)
 - Prolog programs can be run “in reverse”
- $(2,4), (3,9), (4,16), (5,25), (6,36), (7,49), \dots$ “square”
 - can ask `square(X,9)`
“what number, when squared, gives 9”
 - can ask `square(4,X)`
“what number is the square of 4”

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Logic Programming

- Axioms, rules are written in standard form
Horn clauses
 - a **consequent** (head H) and a **body** (terms B_i)
 $H \star B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n$
 - when all B_i are true, we can deduce that H is true
- Horn clauses can capture most first-order predicate calculus statements *but not all*
- **This is not the same issue as “can Prolog compute all computable functions”...**
 - *any C program can be expressed in Prolog, and any Prolog program can be expressed in C*

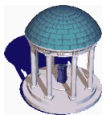
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Prolog Programming Model

- A program is a *database of (Horn) clauses*
 - *order is important... one diff between prolog and logic*
- Each clause is composed of *terms*:
 - *Constants* (atoms, that are identifier starting with a lowercase letter, or numbers)
 - » e.g. `curry`, `4.5`
 - *Variables* (identifiers starting with an uppercase letter)
 - » e.g. `Food`
 - *Structures* (predicates or data structures)
 - » e.g. `indian(Food)`, `date(Year,Month,Day)`

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Resolution

- The derivation of new statements is called
Resolution
- The logic programming system combines existing statements to find new statements... *for instance*

$C \star A, B$	A and B imply C
$D \star C$	
$D \star A, B$	If we know that A and B imply C, and that C implies D, then we can deduce that A and B imply D

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Example

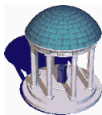
Variable

flowery(X) ★ rainy(X). Predicate Applied to a Variable
rainy(rochester). Predicate Applied to an Atom

flowery(rochester).

Free Variable X acquired value Rochester during the resolution
This is known as *Unification*

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SWI-Prolog

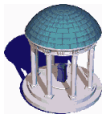
- We will use SWI-Prolog for the Prolog programming assignments

– <http://www.swi-prolog.org/>

- After the installation, try the example program

```
?- [likes]. Load example likes.pl
% likes compiled 0.00 sec, 2,148 bytes
Yes
?- likes(sam, curry). This goal cannot be proved, so it assumed to be false (This is the so called Close World Assumption)
No
?- likes(sam, X).
X = dahl ; Asks the interpreter to find more solutions
X = tandoori ;
X = kurma ;
```

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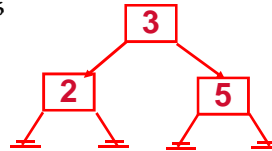


Data Structures

- Data structures consist of an atom called the *functor* and a list of arguments

– e.g. `date` Year, Month, Day)

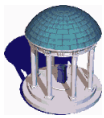
– e.g. **Functors**



`T = tree(3, tree(2, nil, nil), tree(5, nil, nil))`

- Data and predicates are all the same... prolog is symbolic... text matching most of the time

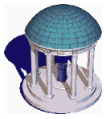
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Principle of Resolution

- Prolog execution is based on the *principle of resolution*
 - If C_1 and C_2 are Horn clauses and the head of C_1 matches one of the terms in the body of C_2 , then we can replace the term in C_2 with the body of C_1
- For example,
 - C_2 : `likes(sam, Food) :- indian(Food), mild(Food).`
 - C_1 : `indian(dahl).`
 - C_3 : `mild(dahl).`
 - We can replace the first and the second terms in C_1 by C_2 and C_3 using the principle of resolution (after *instantiating* variable `Food` to `dahl`)
 - Therefore, `likes(sam, dahl)` can be proved

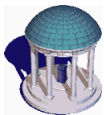
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Unification

- Prolog associates (binds) variables and values using a process known as *unification*
 - Variable that receive a value are said to be *instantiated*
- Unification rules
 - A constant unifies only with itself
 - Two structures unify if and only if they have the same functor and the same number of arguments, and the corresponding arguments unify recursively
 - A variable unifies with anything

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Equality

- Equality is defined as *unifiability*
 - An equality goal is using an infix predicate =
- For instance,

```
?- dahl = dahl.  
Yes  
?- dahl = curry.  
No  
?- likes(Person, dahl) = likes(sam, Food).  
Person = sam  
Food = dahl ;  
No  
?- likes(Person, curry) = likes(sam, Food).  
Person = sam  
Food = curry ;  
No
```

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Equality

- What is the results of

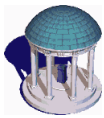
```
?- likes(Person, Food) = likes(sam, Food).
```

```
Person = sam  
Food = _G158 ;
```

No

**Internal Representation for an
uninstantiated variable
Any instantiation proves the equality**

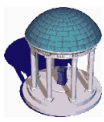
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Execution Order

- Prolog searches for a resolution sequence that satisfies the goal
- In order to satisfy the logical predicate, we can imagine two search strategies:
 - *Forward chaining*, derived the goal from the axioms
 - *Backward chaining*, start with the goal and attempt to resolve them working backwards
- Backward chaining is usually more efficient, so it is the mechanism underlying the execution of Prolog programs
 - Forward chaining is more efficient when the number of facts is small and the number of rules is very large

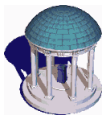
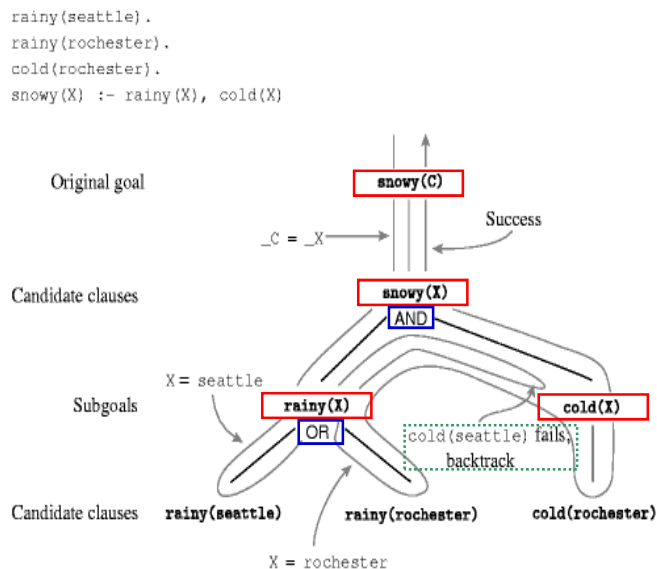
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Backward Chaining in Prolog

- Backward chaining follows a classic depth-first backtracking algorithm

- Example
 - Goal: Snowy(C)



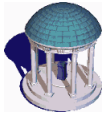
Depth-first backtracking

- The search for a resolution is ordered and depth-first
 - The behavior of the interpreter is predictable
- Ordering is fundamental in recursion
 - Recursion is again the basic computational technique, as it was in functional languages
 - Inappropriate ordering of the terms may result in non-terminating resolutions (infinite regression)
 - For example: Graph

```

edge(a,b). edge(b, c). edge(c, d).
edge(d,e). edge(b, e). edge(d, f).
path(X, X).
path(X, Y) :- edge(Z, Y), path(X, Z).
    
```

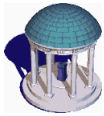
Correct



- The search for a resolution is ordered and depth-first
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 - For example: Graph

```
edge(a,b). edge(b, c). edge(c, d).
edge(d,e). edge(b, e). edge(d, f).
path(X, Y) :- path(X, Z), edge(Z, Y).
path(X, X).
```

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```

edge(a, b).  edge(b, c).  edge(c, d).
edge(d, e).  edge(b, e).  edge(d, f).
path(X, Y) :- path(X, Z), edge(Z, Y).
path(X, X).

```

(d, e). edge(b, e). edge(d, f).
 (X, Y) :- path(X, Z), edge(Z, Y).
 (X, X).

Goal

path(a, a)

OR

path(X, Y) path(X, X)

AND

path(X, Z) edge(Z, Y)

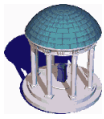
OR

path(X, Y) path(X, X)

AND

path(X, Z) edge(Z, Y)

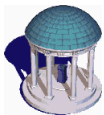
...



Backtracking under the hood

- Resolution/backtracking uses a frame stack
- Frame is a collection of bindings that causes a subgoal to unify with a rule
- New frame pushed onto stack when a new subgoal is to be unified
- Backtracking: pop a frame off when a subgoal fails


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Backtracking under the hood

- Query is satisfied (succeeds) when all subgoals are unified
- Query fails when no rule matches a subgoal
- “;” query done when all frames popped off

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Backtracking under the hood

→ `rainy(seattle)`

database

```
rainy(rochester)
cold(rochester)
snowy(X) :- rainy(X), cold(X).
```

query

```
snowy(P).
rainy(P), cold(P).
rainy(P)
```

first RHS match

(a) first subgoal


`rainy(seattle)`

Creates this binding
(unification)

(a)

PX: seattle

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Backtracking under the hood

→ `rainy(seattle)`

database

```
rainy(rochester)
cold(rochester)
snowy(X) :- rainy(X), cold(X).
```

query

```
snowy(P).
rainy(P), cold(P).
rainy(P)
```

first RHS match

(a) first subgoal

`rainy(seattle)`

(b) second subgoal

`cold(P)`

`cold(seattle)` lookup binding for P

Then try to find goal in DB,
it's not there so subgoal (b)
fails

Backtrack...pop (b)


(b)

(no new bindings)

(a)

PX: seattle

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Backtracking under the hood

→ rainy(seattle) **database**

→ rainy(rochester)

cold(rochester)

snowy(X) :- rainy(X), cold(X).

snowy(P). **query**

rainy(P), cold(P). first RHS match


rainy(P) (a) first subgoal

 rainy(rochester)

Try another binding in (a)

PX: rochester

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Backtracking under the hood

rainy(seattle) **database**

→ rainy(rochester)

cold(rochester) ←

snowy(X) :- rainy(X), cold(X).

snowy(P). **query**

rainy(P), cold(P). first RHS match

rainy(P) (a) first subgoal

 rainy(rochester)

cold(P) (b) second subgoal

 cold(rochester)

Lookup binding for P

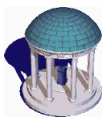
Then search DB for the subgoal

Success...

(no new bindings)

PX: rochester

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Backtracking under the hood

```

rainy(seattle)           database
→ rainy(rochester)
cold(rochester) ←
snowy(X) :- rainy(X), cold(X).

snowy(P).               query
rainy(P), cold(P).      first RHS match
rainy(P)                (a) first subgoal
    rainy(rochester)
cold(P)                 (b) second subgoal
    cold(rochester)
  
```

Success...

all stack frames stay
display bindings that satisfy goal

P = rochester

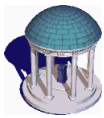
(b)

(no new bindings)

(a)

PX: rochester

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Backtracking under the hood

```

rainy(seattle)           database
→ rainy(rochester)
cold(rochester) ←
snowy(X) :- rainy(X), cold(X).
snowy(N) :- latitude(N,L), L > 60.
snowy(P).               query
rainy(P), cold(P).      first RHS match
rainy(P)                (a) first subgoal
    rainy(rochester)
cold(P)                 (b) second subgoal
    cold(rochester)
  
```

If we had other rules, we would
backtrack and keep going

P = rochester

(b)

(no new bindings)

(a)

PX: rochester

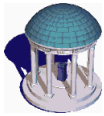
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Examples

- Genealogy
 - <http://ktiml.mff.cuni.cz/~bartak/prolog/genealogy.html>
- Data structures and arithmetic
 - Prolog has an arithmetic functor `is` that unifies arithmetic values
 - » *E.g.* `is (X, 1+2), X is 1+2`
 - Dates example
 - » <http://ktiml.mff.cuni.cz/~bartak/prolog/genealogy.html>

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Reading Assignment

- Read
 - Scott Ch. 11 intro
 - Scott Sect. 11.3 intro, 11.3.1
- *Guide to Prolog Example*, Roman Barták
 - Go through the first two examples
 - <http://ktiml.mff.cuni.cz/~bartak/prolog/learning.html>

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