



# EECS 490 – Lecture 20

## Logic Programming II

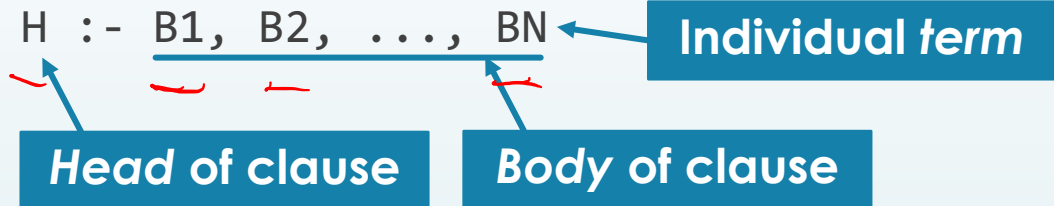
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# Announcements

- Project 4 due Tue 11/21 at 8pm
- HW5 due 12/5 at 8pm

# Review: Horn Clauses

- ▶ A logic program is expressed as a set of *axioms* that are assumed to be true
- ▶ An axiom takes the form of a *Horn clause*, which specifies a reverse implication:



- ▶ This is equivalent to

$$(B_1 \wedge B_2 \wedge \dots \wedge B_N) \Rightarrow H$$

with implicit quantifiers.

# Review: Queries

- A goal is a query that the system attempts to prove from the axioms

```

⚡ parent(P, C) :- mother(P, C).                % rule 1
⚡ parent(P, C) :- father(P, C).                % rule 2
  sibling(A, B) :- parent(P, A), parent(P, B). % rule 3

⚡ mother(molly, bill).                        % fact 1
⚡ mother(molly, charlie).                     % fact 2

```

```

sibling(bill, S)  sibling(CS, bill)  sibling(S, T)
-> parent(P, bill), parent(P, S)              (rule 3)
-> mother(P, bill), parent(P, S)              (rule 1)
-> mother(molly, bill), parent(molly, S)      (fact 1)
-> mother(molly, bill), mother(molly, S)      (rule 1)
-> mother(molly, bill), mother(molly, charlie) (fact 2)

```

S = bill is also a valid solution given the axioms.

# Implementing Lists

- Compound terms can represent data structures
- Example: use pair(A, B) to represent a pair

- This won't be a head or body term, so it will be treated as data

- Relations on pairs:

`cons(A, B, pair(A, B)).`  
`cdr(pair(_, B), B).`  
`car(pair(A, _), A).`  
`is_null(nil).`

Relates a first and second item to a pair

Anonymous variable

```

?- cons(1, nil, X).
X = pair(1, nil).

?- car(pair(1, pair(2, nil)), X).
X = 1.

?- cdr(pair(1, pair(2, nil)), X).
X = pair(2, nil).

?- cdr(pair(1, pair(2, nil)), X),
   car(X, Y), cdr(X, Z).
X = pair(2, nil), Y = 2, Z = nil.

?- is_null(nil).
true.

?- is_null(pair(1, nil)).
false.
  
```

# Prolog Lists

- Prolog also provides built-in linked lists, specified as elements between square brackets

[]    [1, a]    [b, 3, ~~foo(bar)~~]

- The pipe symbol acts like a dot in Scheme, separating some elements from the rest of the list

?- writeln([1, 2 | [3, 4]]).  
[1,2,3,4]  
true.

(1 2 . (3 4))  
(1 2 3 4)

- This allows us to write predicates like the following:

contains([X|\_], X).  
contains([\_]Ys, X) :- contains(Ys, X).

# Numbers and Comparisons

- Prolog includes integer and floating-point numbers
- Comparison predicates can be written in infix order

```
?- 3 =< 4.      % less than or equal
true.           =< (3, 4)

?- 4 =< 3.
false.

?- 3 == 3.      % arithmetic equal
true.

?- 3 =\= 3.     % arithmetic not equal
false.
```

- The = operator specifies explicit unification, not equality

# Arithmetic

- Arithmetic operators represent compound terms and are not evaluated

```
?- 7 = 3 + 4.
```

```
false. +(3, 4)
```

7 does not unify with  $+(3, 4)$

- Comparisons perform evaluation on both operands

```
?- 7 ::= 3 + 4.
```

```
true.
```

7 is equal to the result of evaluating  $+(3, 4)$

- The `is` operator unifies its first argument with the arithmetic result of its second argument

```
?- 7 is 3 + 4.
```

```
true.
```

```
?- X is 3 + 4.
```

```
X = 7.
```



# List Length

- We can now define a predicate for length on our list representation:

$\rightarrow$  `len(nil, 0).`  
 $\rightarrow$  `len(pair(_, B), L) :- len(B, M), L is M + 1.`

Unify L with the result of `+(M, 1)`

```
?- len(nil, X).
X = 0.

?- len(pair(1, pair(b, nil)), X).
X = 2.
```

Must be second body term so that M is sufficiently instantiated for arithmetic

- Built-in lists have a built-in length predicate

```
?- length([1, a, 3], X).
X = 3.
```

# Side Effects

- Prolog provides I/O predicates, including reading from standard input and writing to standard output
- We will only use `write` and `writeln`:

```
?- X = 3, write('The value of X is: '),  
  writeln(X).  
The value of X is: 3  
X = 3.
```

# Unification and Search

- ▶ A logic solver is built around the processes of *unification* and *search*
- ▶ Search in Prolog uses *backward chaining*
- ▶ Start with a set of goal terms
- ▶ Look for a clause whose head can unify with a goal term
- ▶ If unification succeeds, replace the old goal term with the body terms of the clause
- ▶ Search succeeds when no more goal terms remain
- ▶ Unification attempts to unify two terms, which may require recursively unifying subterms
  - ▶ May require *instantiating* variables to values

# Unification

$$\underline{X=Y, X=3}$$

$$3 = 3$$

$$X = 3$$

$$foo = foo$$

$$X = \text{pair}(1, 2)$$

$$X = Y$$

$$X=3, Y=3$$

- An atomic term only unifies with itself
- A variable unifies with any term
  - If the other term is not a variable, then the variable is *instantiated* with the value of the other term, i.e. all occurrences of the variable are replaced with the value
  - If the other term is a variable, the two variables are bound together such that later instantiating one with a value also instantiates the other with the same value
- ⚡ ➤ A compound term unifies with another compound term if the functors and number of arguments are the same, and the arguments recursively unify

$$X = 3$$

$$Y = \text{foo}(1, Z)$$

$$\text{foo}(1, A) = \text{foo}(B, 3) \quad \% \text{ unifies } B = 1, A = 3$$

# Instantiation and Renaming

- ▶ Applying a clause involves renaming variables that occur in different contexts to be unique and can result in instantiation of variables
  - ▶ Analogous to  $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ -reduction in  $\lambda$ -calculus

- ▶ Example:

`foo(X, Y) :- bar(Y, X).`

`?- foo(3, X).`

1. Rename rule to `foo(X1, Y1) :- bar(Y1, X1).`
2. Unify `foo(3, X)` with `foo(X1, Y1)`, resulting in `X1 = 3` and `X <=> Y1`
3. New goal term `bar(X, 3)`

# Search Order

- In pure logic programming, search order is irrelevant as long as the search terminates
- In Prolog, clauses are applied in program order, and terms within a body are resolved in left-to-right order
- Example:

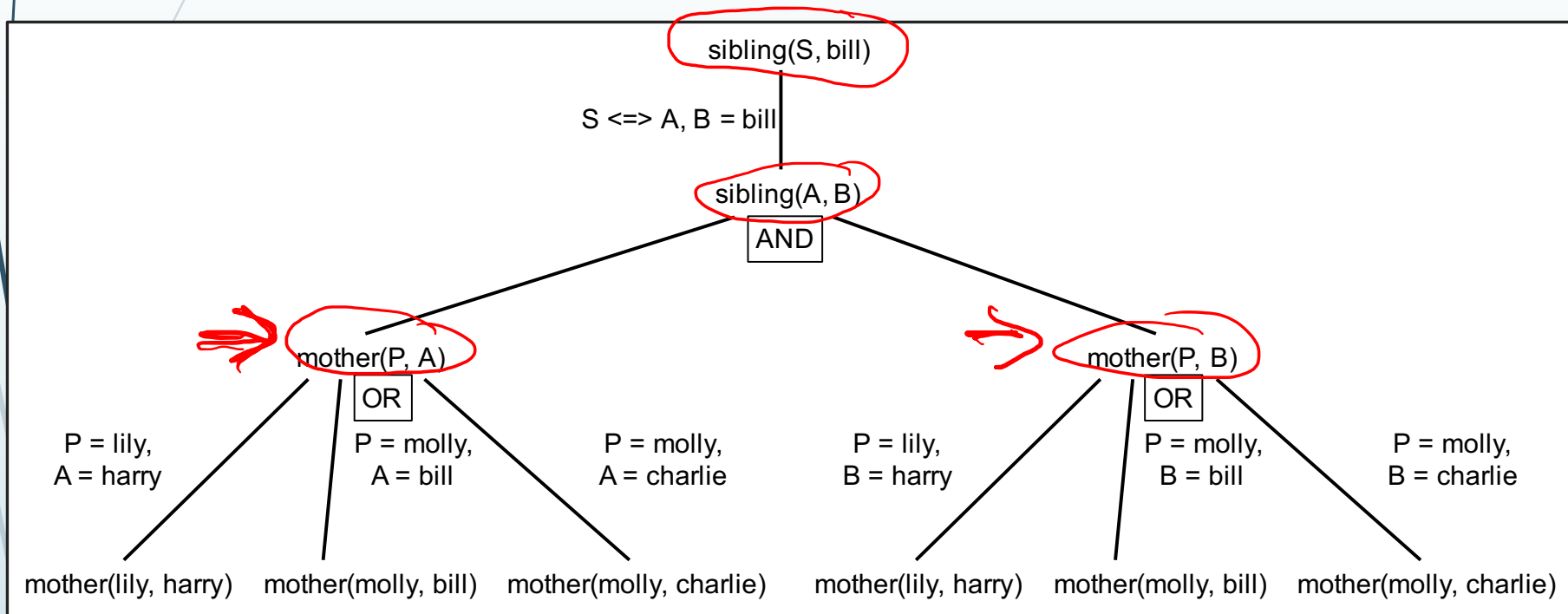
→ `sibling(A, B) :- mother(P, A), mother(P, B).`

```
mother(lily, harry).  
mother(molly, bill).  
mother(molly, charlie).
```

→ `?- sibling(S, bill)`  
`S = bill`

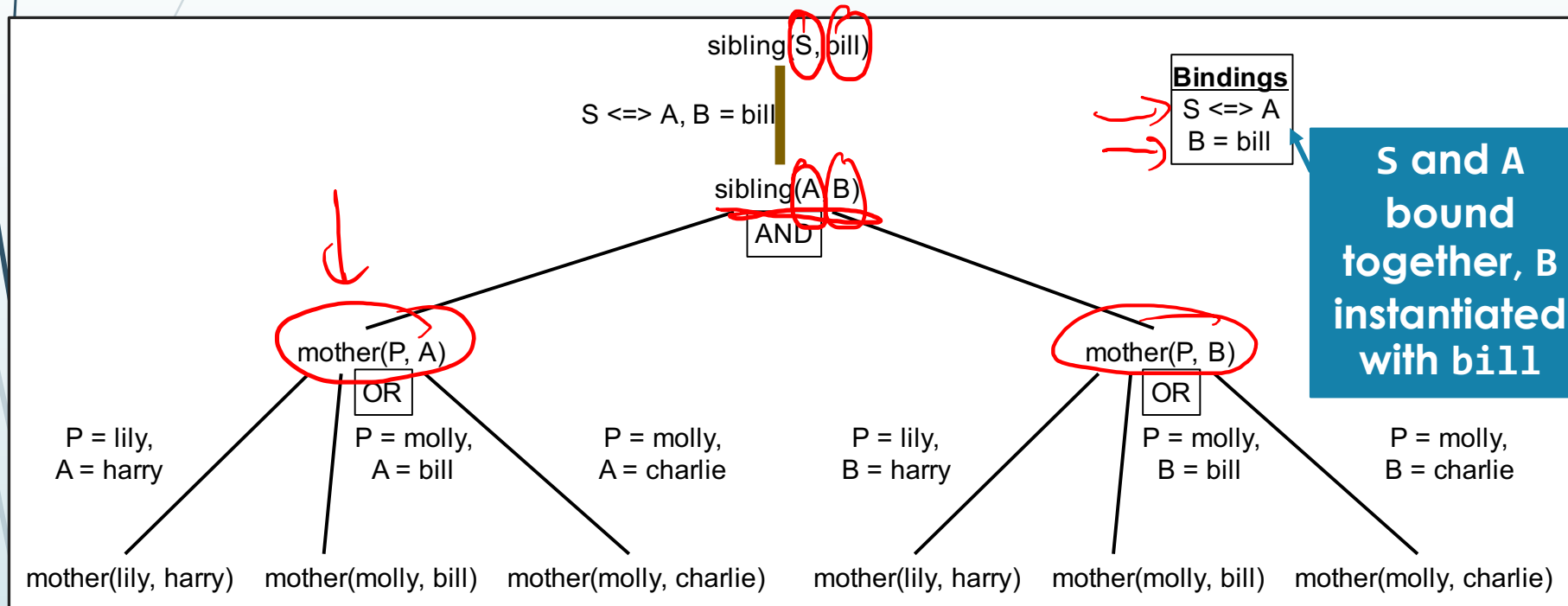
# Search Tree

- Search encounters choice points, and backtracking is required on failure or if the user asks for more solutions



# Search Tree

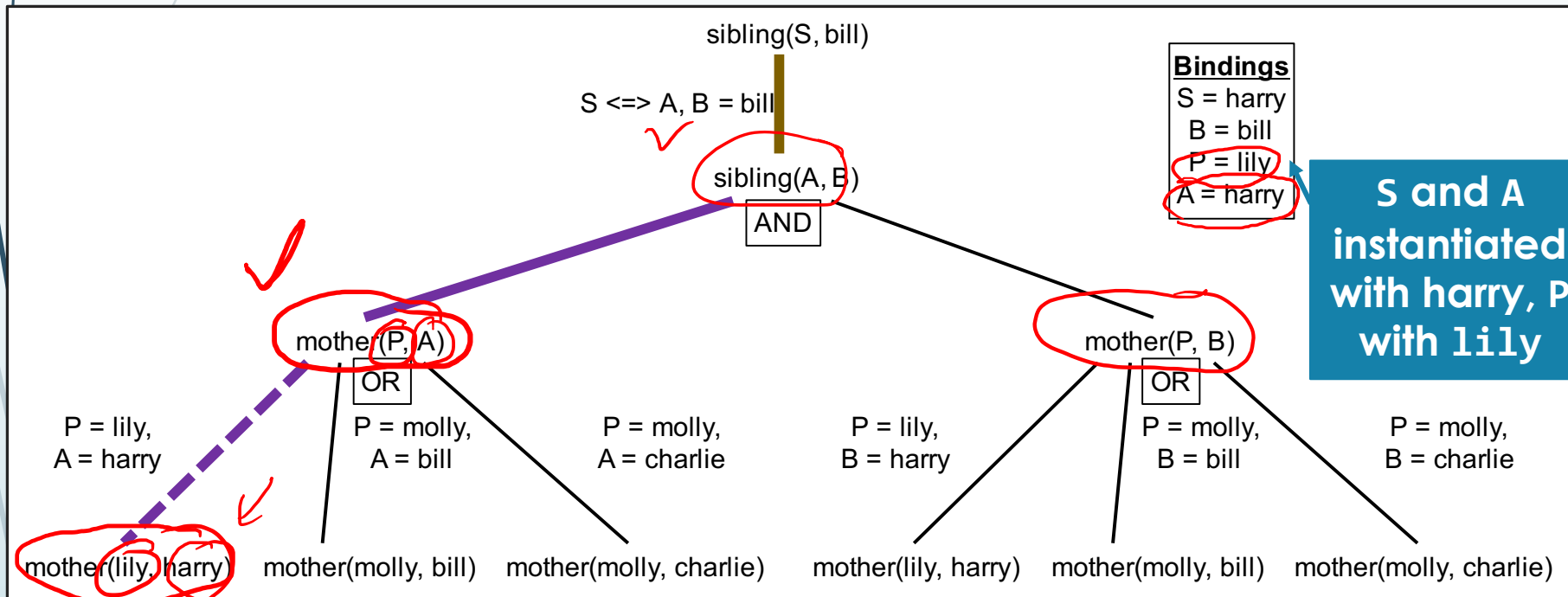
- First, `sibling(S, bill)` is unified with the head term `sibling(A, B)`, and the body terms of the clause are added to the goals





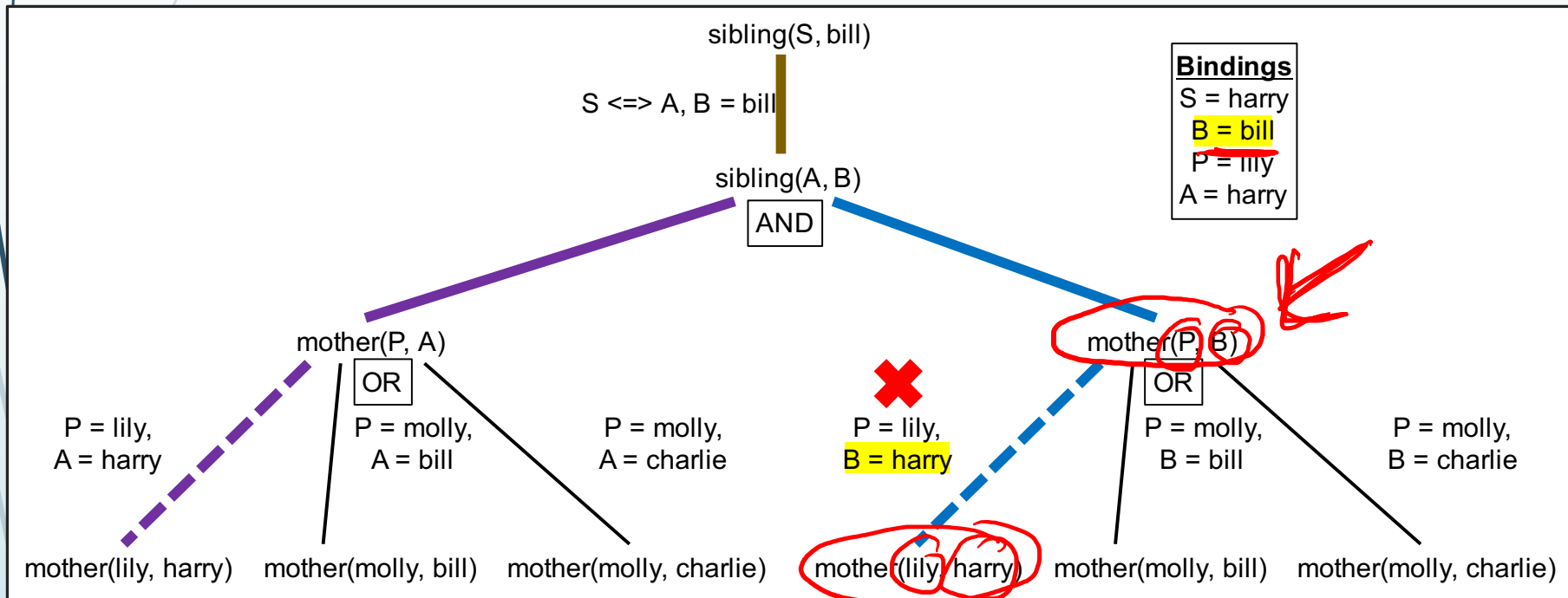
# Search Tree

- The goal `mother(P, A)` is solved first, with an initial choice of applying the fact `mother(lily, harry)`



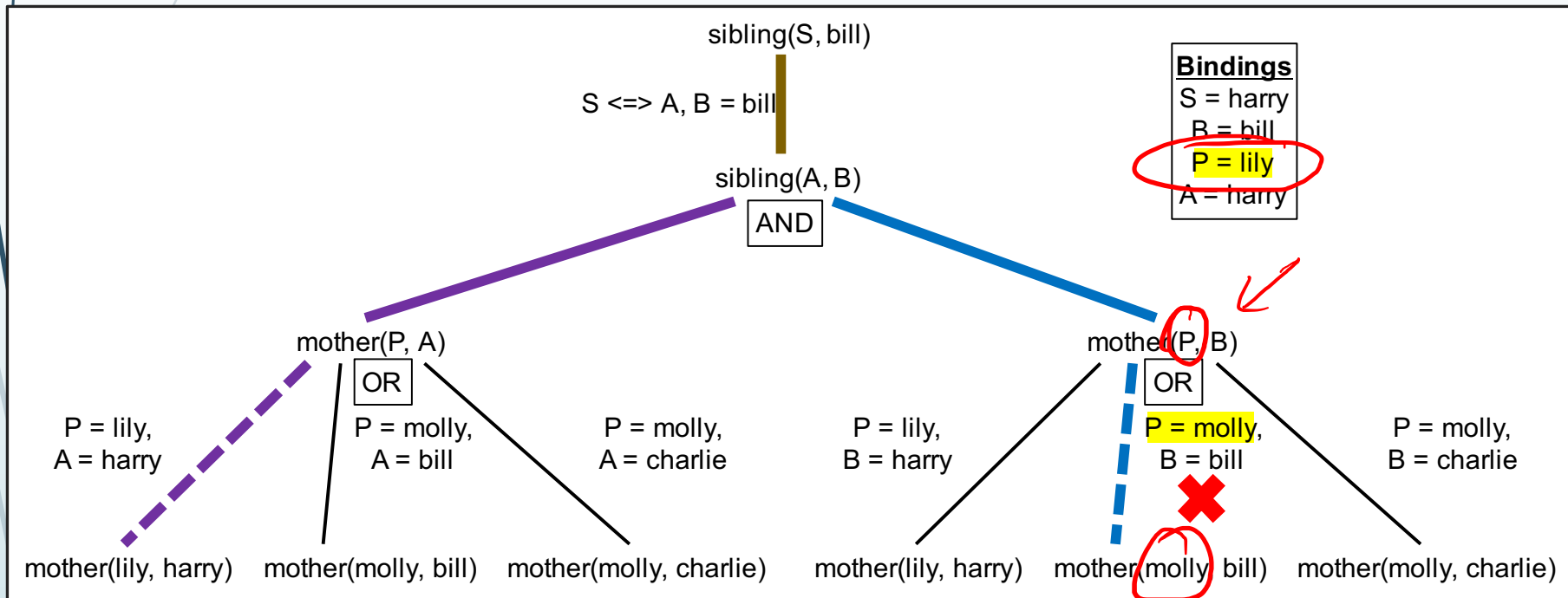
# Search Tree

- Then the goal `mother(P, B)` is solved, with an initial choice of applying the fact `mother(lily, harry)`
- However, unification of `B = bill` with `harry` fails



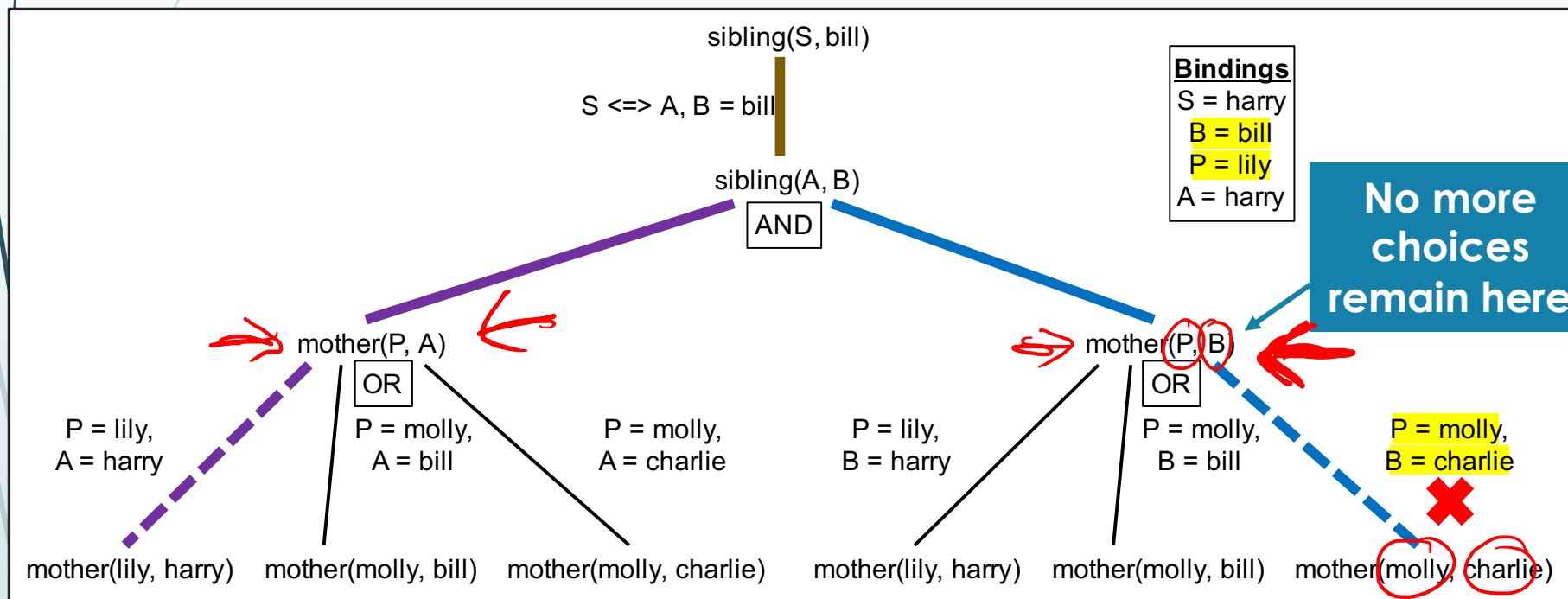
# Backtracking

- The search backtracks to the previous choice point, attempting to apply the fact `mother(molly, bill)`
- However, unification of `P = lily` with `molly` fails



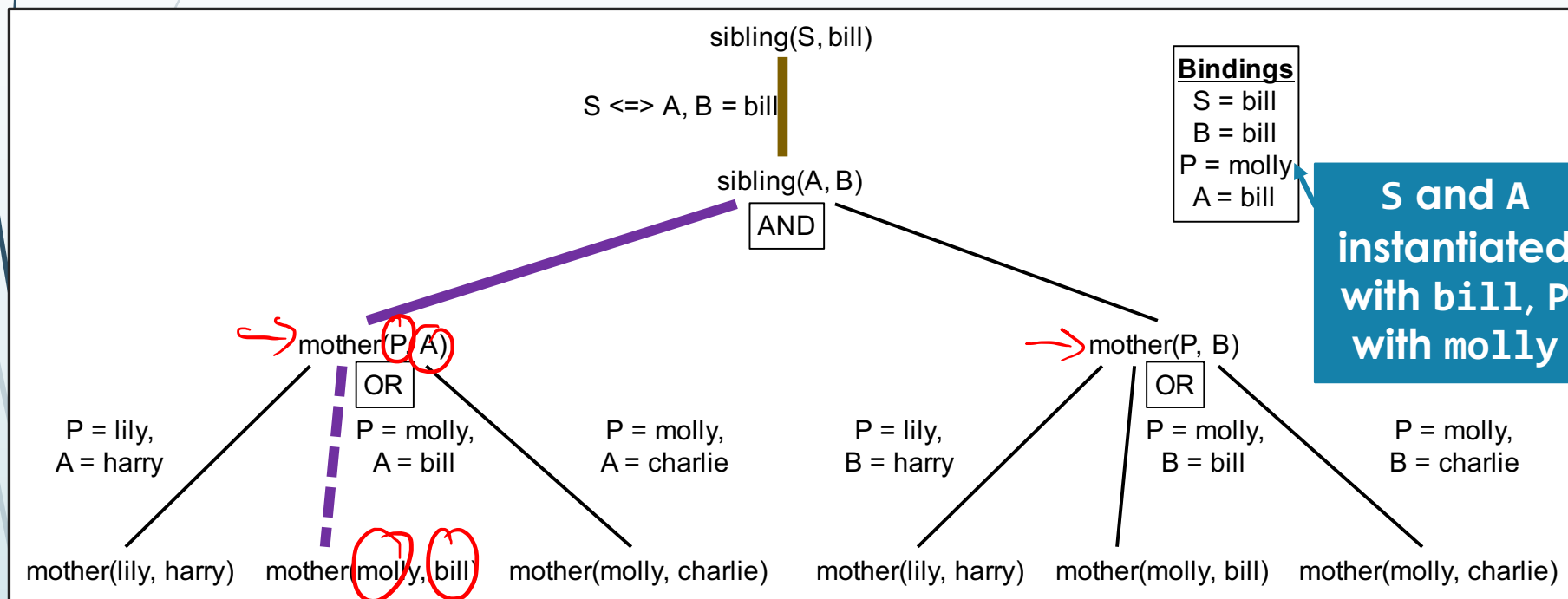
# Backtracking

- The search backtracks once again, attempting to apply the fact `mother(molly, charlie)`
- However, unification of `P = lily` with `molly` fails



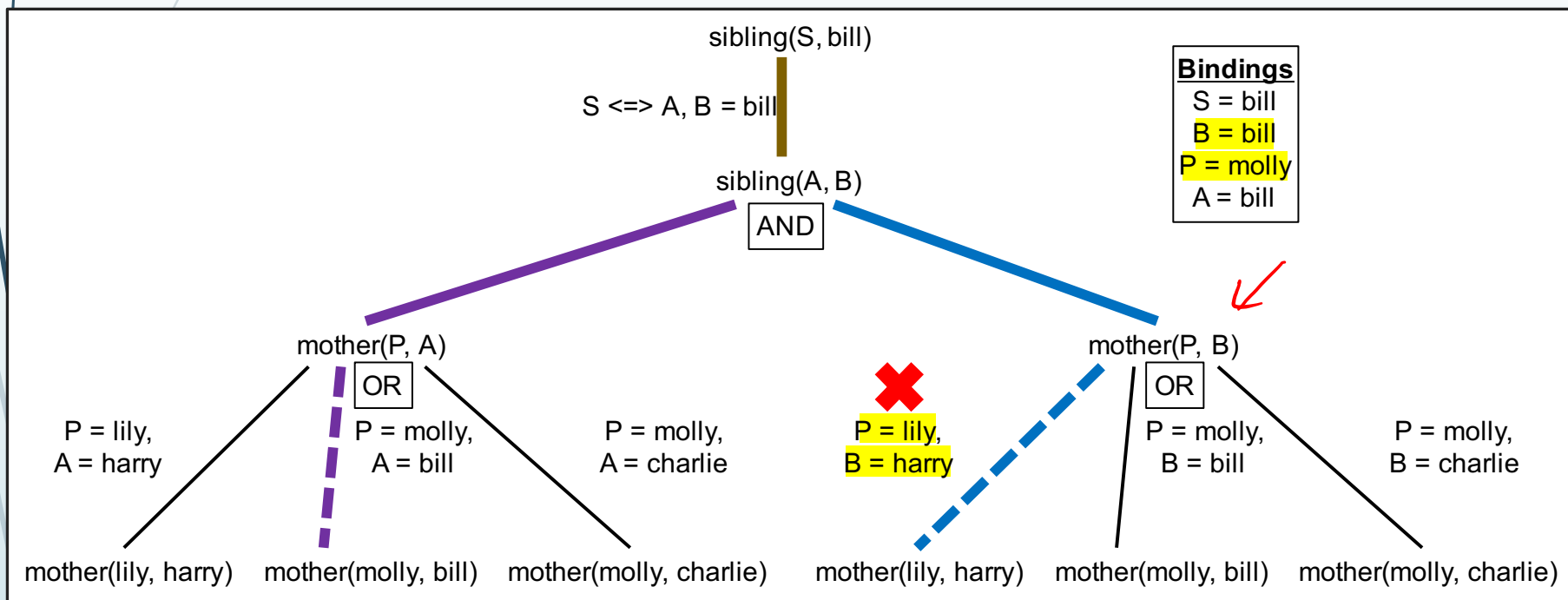
# Backtracking

- The search backtracks to the preceding choice point, unifying `mother(P, A)` with `mother(molly, bill)`



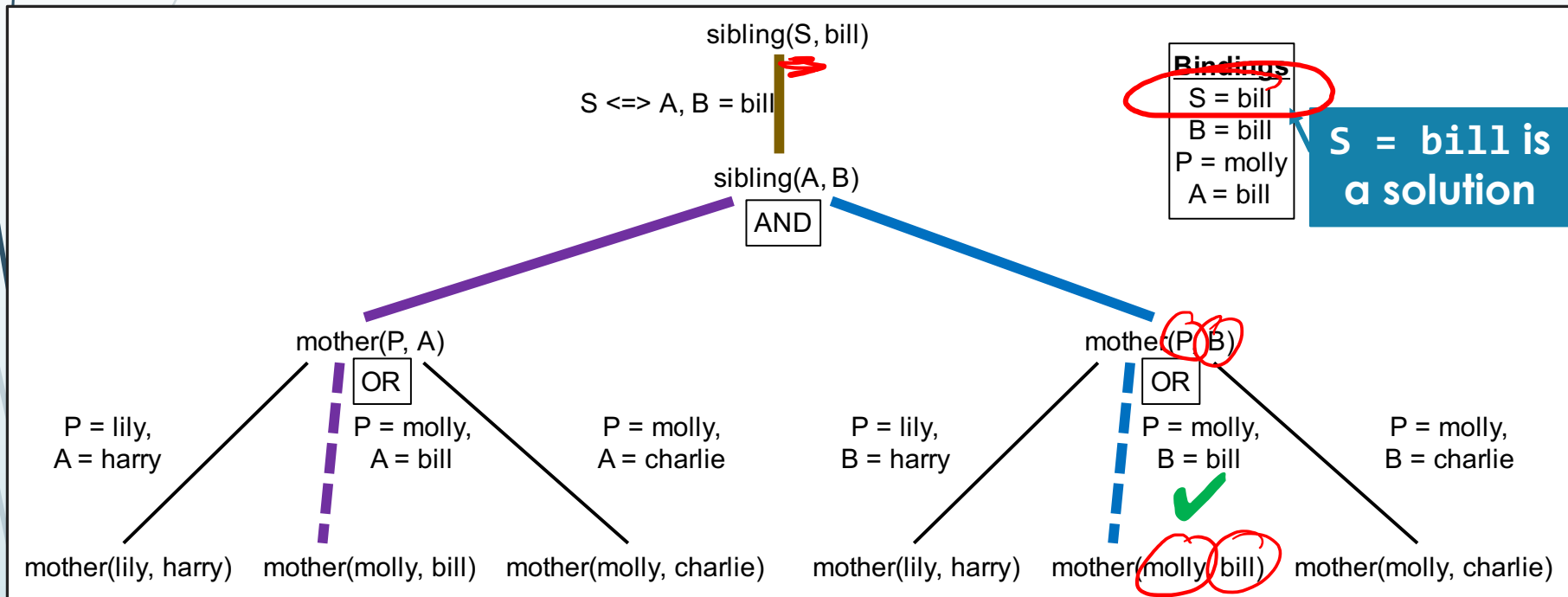
# Search Tree

- Then the goal `mother(P, B)` is solved, with an initial choice of applying the fact `mother(lily, harry)`
- However, unification of `B = bill` with `harry` fails



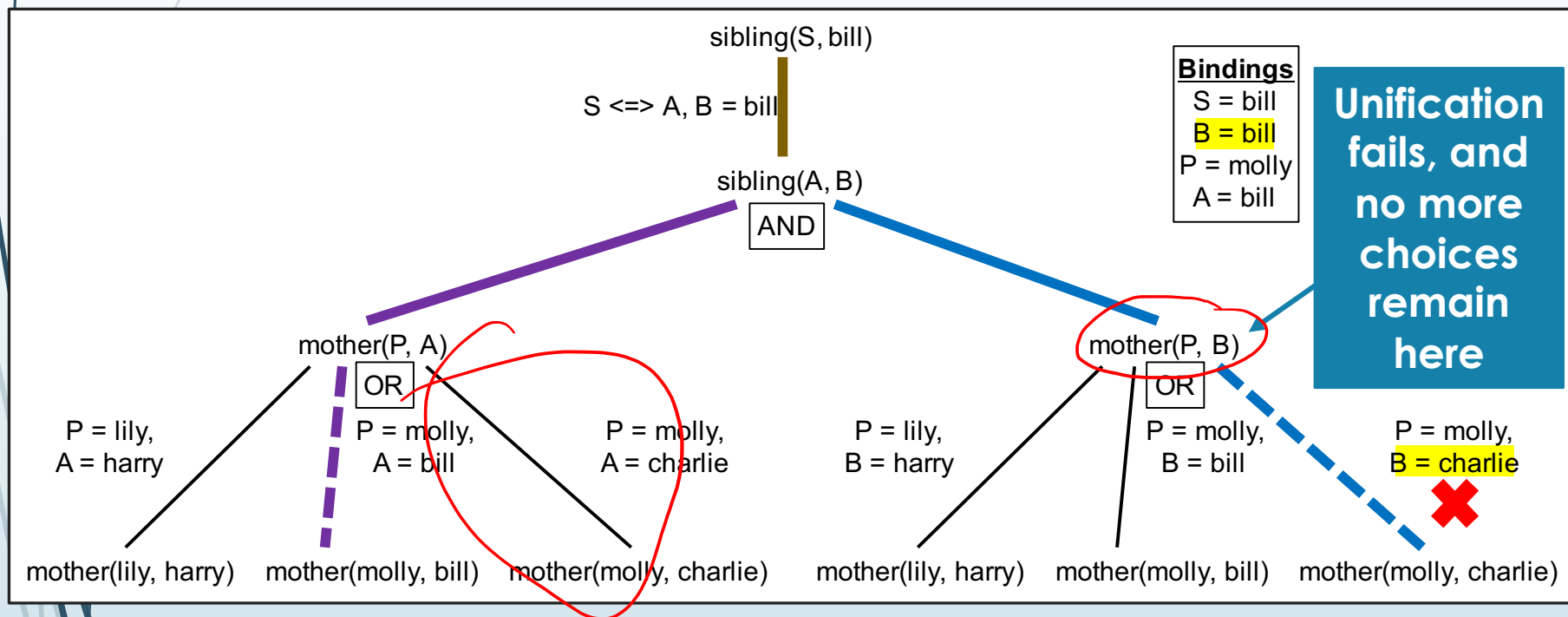
# First Solution

- The search backtracks to the previous choice point, attempting to apply the fact `mother(molly, bill)`
- Unification succeeds, and no goal terms remain



# Continuing the Search

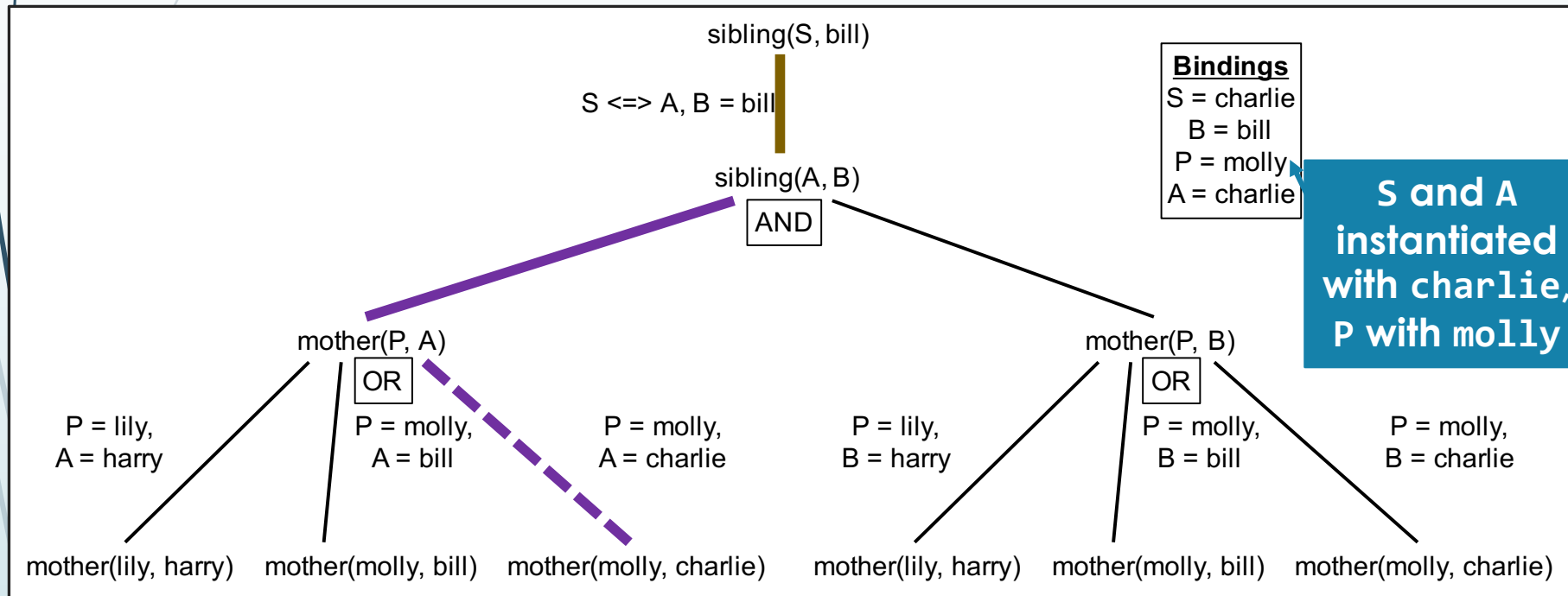
- If we ask the interpreter for another solution, it backtracks to the previous choice point, attempting to apply the fact `mother(molly, charlie)`





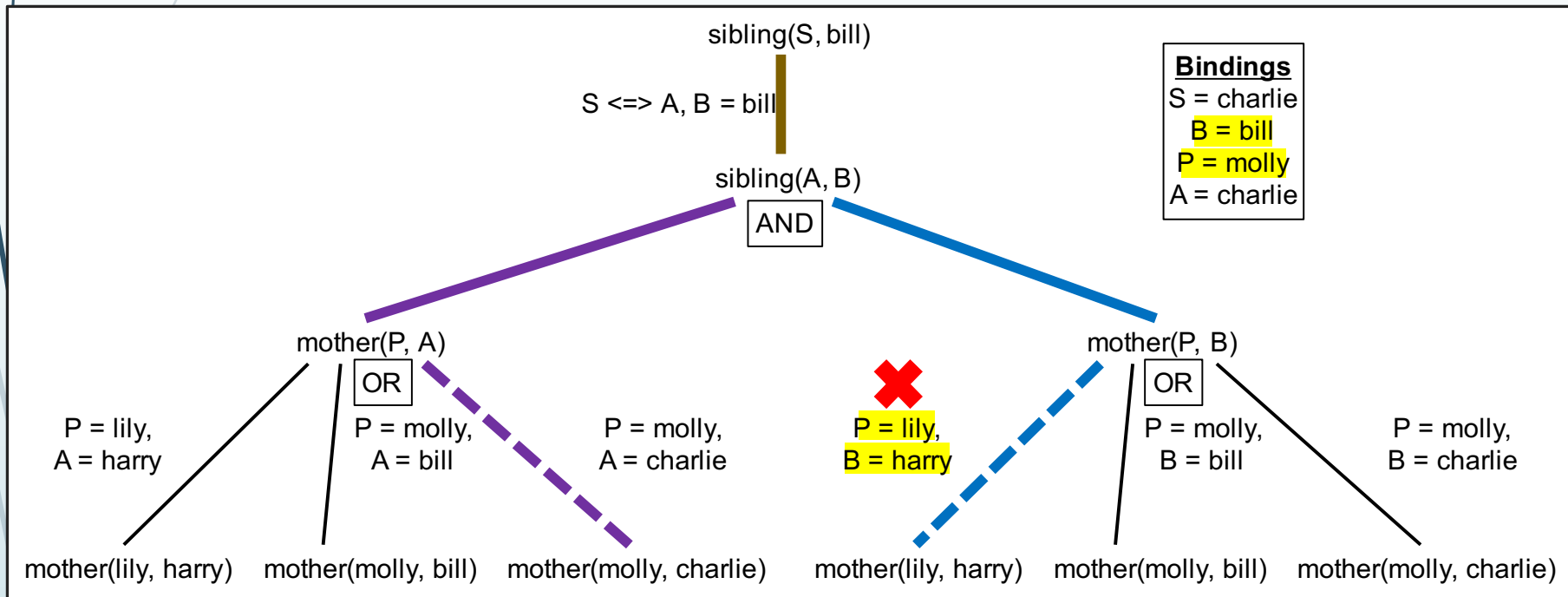
# Backtracking

- The search backtracks to the preceding choice point, unifying `mother(P, A)` with `mother(molly, charlie)`



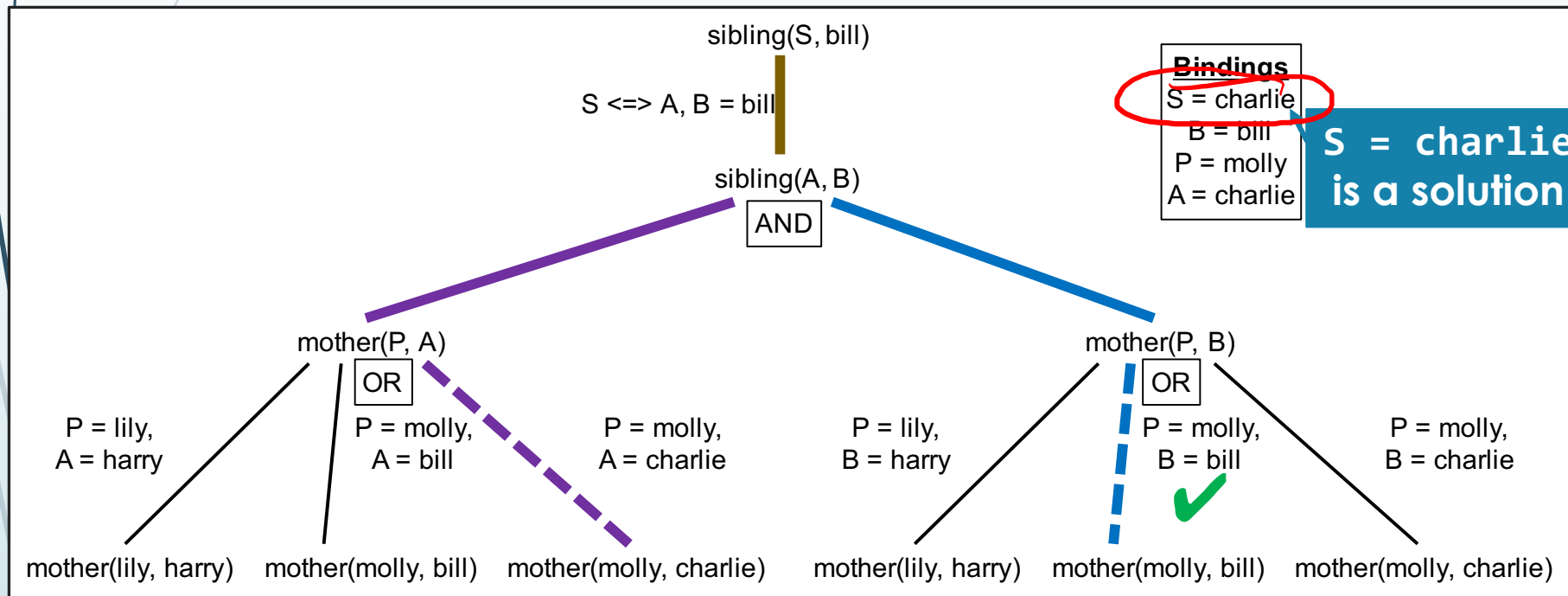
# Search Tree

- Then the goal `mother(P, B)` is solved, with an initial choice of applying the fact `mother(lily, harry)`
- However, unification of `B = bill` with `harry` fails



# Second Solution

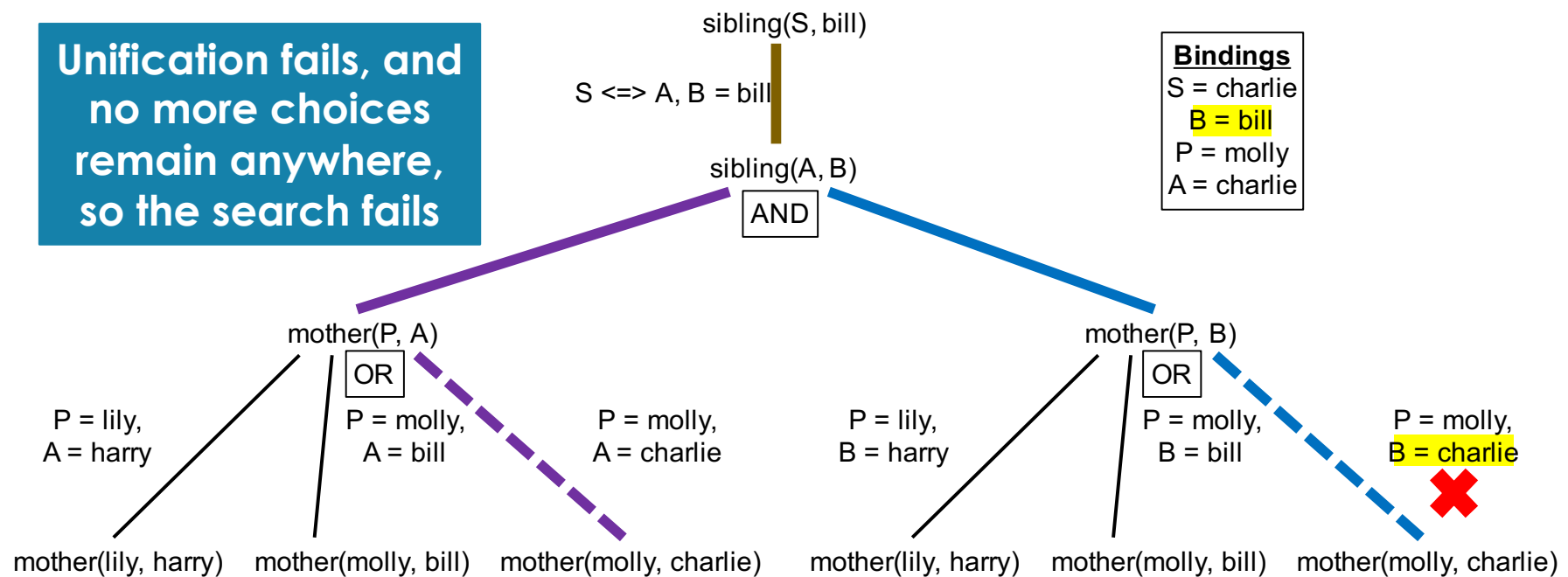
- The search backtracks to the previous choice point, attempting to apply the fact `mother(molly, bill)`
- Unification succeeds, and no goal terms remain



# No More Solutions

- If we ask the interpreter for another solution, it backtracks to the previous choice point, attempting to apply the fact `mother(molly, charlie)`

Unification fails, and no more choices remain anywhere, so the search fails



# Cut Operator

- The cut operator (!) tells the search engine to eliminate choice points associated with the current predicate
- However, this can cause some queries to fail, as it prevents backtracking from considering other choices:

```
contains([Item|_], Item) :- !.  
contains([_|Rest], Item) :-  
    contains(Rest, Item).
```

```
?- contains([1, 2, 3, 4], X), X = 3.  
false.
```

- We will only use the cut operator in a query to restrict ourselves to the first solution; we will **not** use it in a rule

# Negation

- Prolog provides limited negation operators
  - Explicit negation: `\+`
  - Negation of unification: `\=`
- We can try to rewrite the `sibling` rule to avoid the result that `bill` is his own sibling in `sibling(S, bill)`:

```
sibling(A, B) :- A \= B,  
                mother(P, A), mother(P, B).
```

**Variable A  $\Leftarrow$  S**  
**unifies with anything, so**  
**negation always fails**

- ➡ Instead, write it as:

```
sibling(A, B) :- mother(P, A), mother(P, B),
    A \= B. ← Variables A and B new
```

**Variables A and B now instantiated, so it only fails when A = bill and B = bill**

# Limits of Negation

- If we query whether harry and bill are not siblings, the query succeeds:

```
?- \+(sibling(harry, bill)).  
true.
```

- But if we attempt to find someone who is not a sibling of bill, the query fails:

```
?- \+(sibling(S, bill)).  
false.
```

**There is a solution to sibling(S, bill), so the negation fails**

- Negation is defined as attempting to prove what is being negated, and if the proof fails, the negation is true
- This limit is fundamental to logic programming, which does not provide the full power of first-order predicate calculus

- We'll start again in five minutes.



## Example: Digits

- Find a 5 digit number whose first digit counts the number of 0s, second counts the number of 1s, etc.

```
count(_, [], 0).  
count(Item, [Item|Rest], Count) :-  
    count(Item, Rest, RestCount),  
    Count is RestCount + 1.  
count(Item, [Other|Rest], Count) :-  
    Item =\= Other,  
    count(Item, Rest, Count).
```

```
is_digit(0).  is_digit(1).  is_digit(2).  
is_digit(3).  is_digit(4).
```

```
digits(M) :-  
    M = [N0, N1, N2, N3, N4],  
    is_digit(N0), is_digit(N1), is_digit(N2),  
    is_digit(N3), is_digit(N4),  
    count(0, M, N0), count(1, M, N1),  
    count(2, M, N2), count(3, M, N3),  
    count(4, M, N4).
```

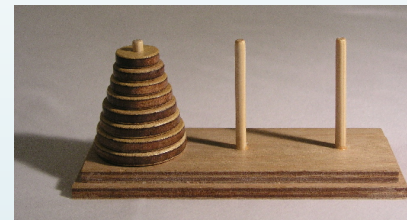
# Example: Tower of Hanoi

- Move  $N$  discs from one rod to another, using a third rod as temporary storage
- The discs have varying size, and cannot place a larger disc on a smaller one
- Print a move:

```
move(Disc, Source, Target) :-  
    write('Move disc '), write(Disc),  
    write(' from '), write(Source),  
    write(' to '), writeln(Target).
```

- Solve the puzzle:

```
hanoi(1, Source, Target, _) :-  
    move(1, Source, Target).  
hanoi(N, Source, Target, Temp) :-  
    M is N - 1,  
    hanoi(M, Source, Temp, Target),  
    move(N, Source, Target),  
    hanoi(M, Temp, Target, Source).
```



# Example: Quicksort

## ► Partition:

```
partition(_, [], [], []).  
partition(Pivot, [Item|Rest], [Item|Less], NotLess) :-  
    Item < Pivot,  
    partition(Pivot, Rest, Less, NotLess).  
partition(Pivot, [Item|Rest], Less, [Item|NotLess]) :-  
    Item >= Pivot,  
    partition(Pivot, Rest, Less, NotLess).
```

## ► Sort:

```
quicksort([], []).  
quicksort([Item|Rest], Sorted) :-  
    partition(Item, Rest, Less, NotLess),  
    quicksort(Less, SortedLess),  
    quicksort(NotLess, SortedNotLess),  
    append(SortedLess, [Item|SortedNotLess], Sorted).
```

# Example: Primes

- Sieve of Eratosthenes:

```
numbers(2, [2]).
numbers(Limit, Numbers) :-
    M is Limit - 1, numbers(M, NumbersToM),
    append(NumbersToM, [Limit], Numbers).

is_not_multiple(N, D) :- R is mod(N, D), R =\= 0.

filter_not_multiple(_, [], []).
filter_not_multiple(Factor, [First|Rest],
                    [First|FilteredRest]) :-
    is_not_multiple(First, Factor),
    filter_not_multiple(Factor, Rest, FilteredRest).
filter_not_multiple(Factor, [_|Rest], FilteredRest) :-
    filter_not_multiple(Factor, Rest, FilteredRest).

sieve([]).
sieve([First|Rest], [First|SievedRest]) :-
    filter_not_multiple(First, Rest, FilteredRest),
    sieve(FilteredRest, SievedRest).

primes(Limit, Primes) :-
    numbers(Limit, Numbers), sieve(Numbers, Primes).
```