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

(B1
$$\wedge$$
 B2 \wedge ... \wedge BN) \Rightarrow H

with implicit quantifiers.

Review: Queries

 A goal is a query that the system attempts to prove from 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.
```

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

The = operator specifies explicit unification, not equality

Arithmetic

 Arithmetic operators represent compound terms and are not evaluated

Comparisons perform evaluation on both operands

```
?- 7 =:= 3 + 4. 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:
 Unify L with the

```
len(nil, 0).
len(pair(_, B), L) :- len(B, M), L is 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

- 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 = foo(1, Z)

foo(1, A) = foo(B, 3) % 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
 - ightharpoonup Analogous to a- and β-reduction in λ-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)

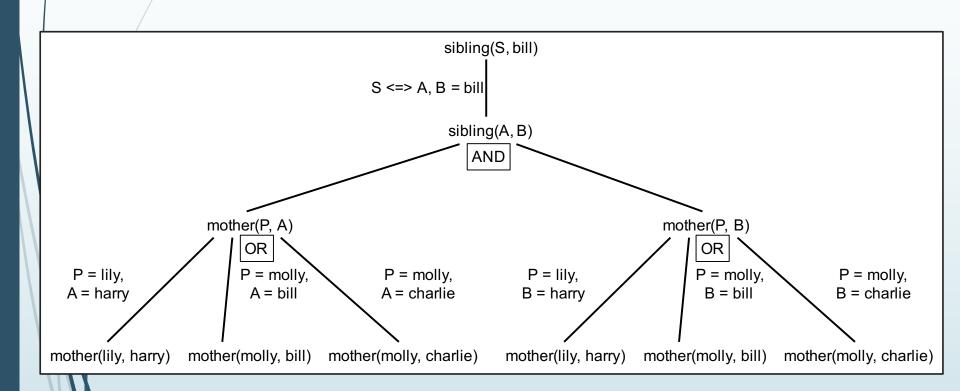
Search Order

- 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:

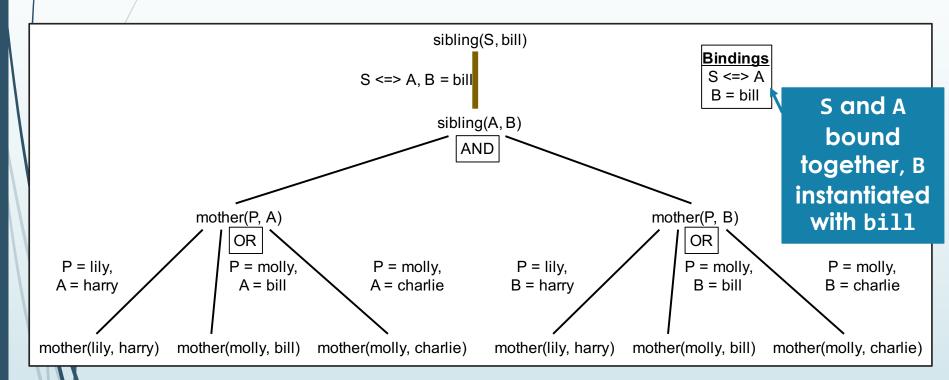
```
sibling(A, B) :- mother(P, A), mother(P, B).
mother(lily, harry).
mother(molly, bill).
mother(molly, charlie).
```

```
?- sibling(S, bill)
S = bill
```

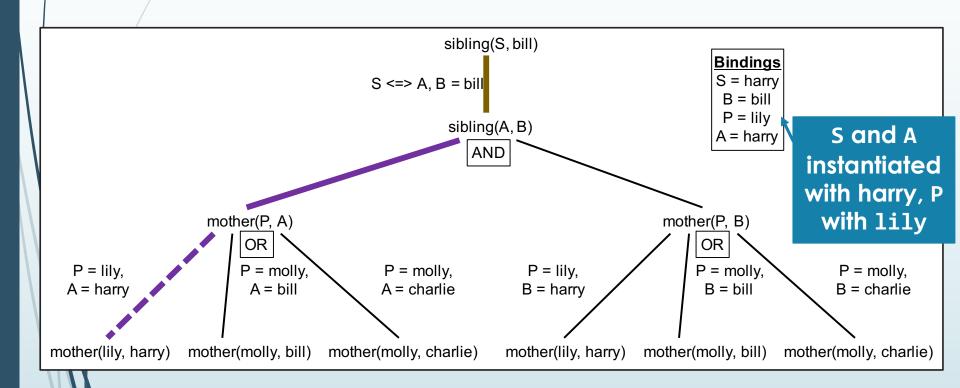
 Search encounters choice points, and backtracking is required on failure or if the user asks for more solutions



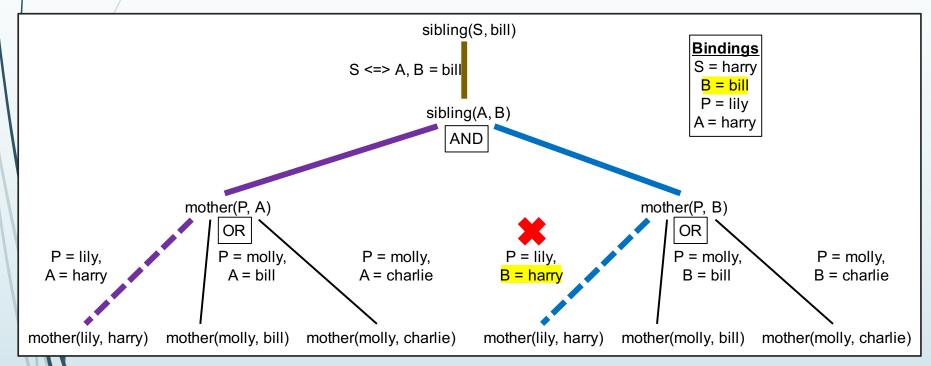
First, sibling(S, bill) is unified with the head term sibling(A, B), and the body terms of the clause are added to the goals



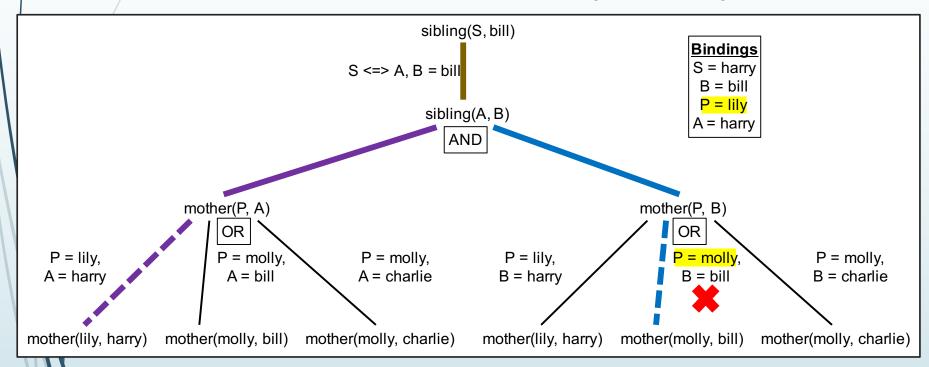
■ The goal mother(P, A) is solved first, with an initial choice of applying the fact mother(lily, harry)



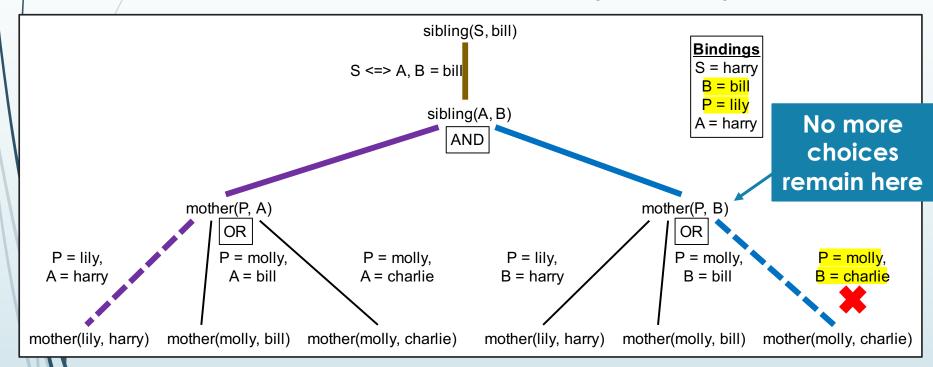
- Then the goal mother(P, B) is solved, with an initial choice of applying the fact mother(lily, harry)
- However, unification of B = bill with harry fails



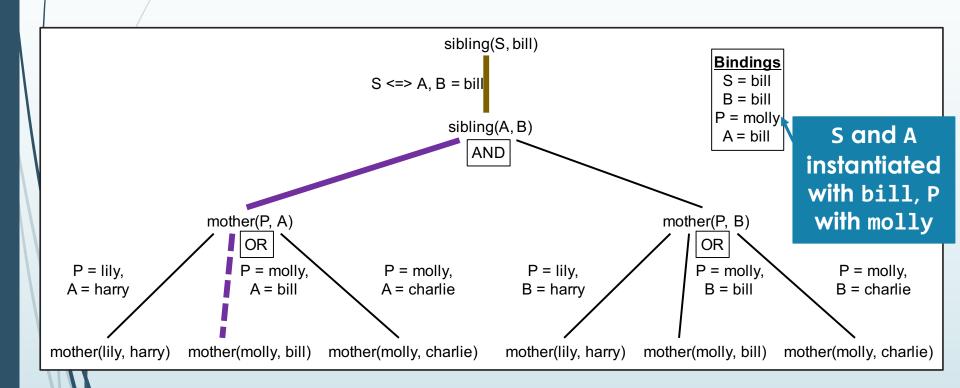
- The search backtracks to the previous choice point, attempting to apply the fact mother(molly, bill)
- However, unification of P = lily with molly fails



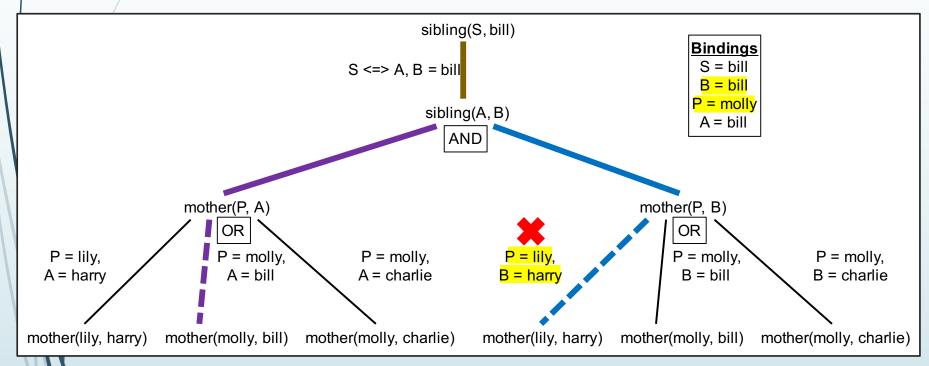
- The search backtracks once again, attempting to apply the fact mother(molly, charlie)
- However, unification of P = lily with molly fails



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

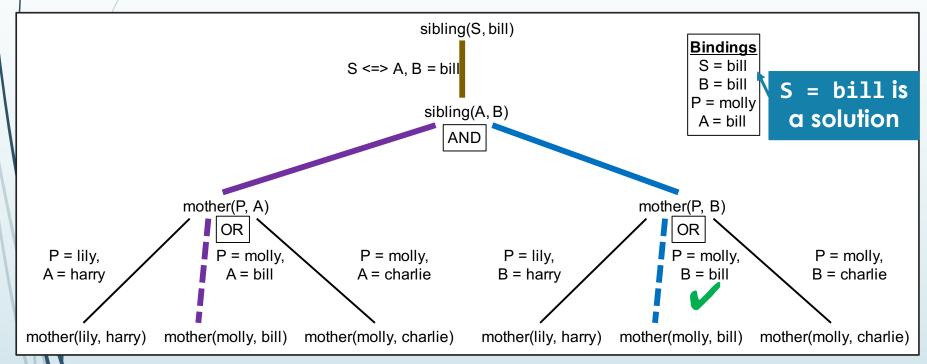


- Then the goal mother(P, B) is solved, with an initial choice of applying the fact mother(lily, harry)
- However, unification of B = bill with harry fails



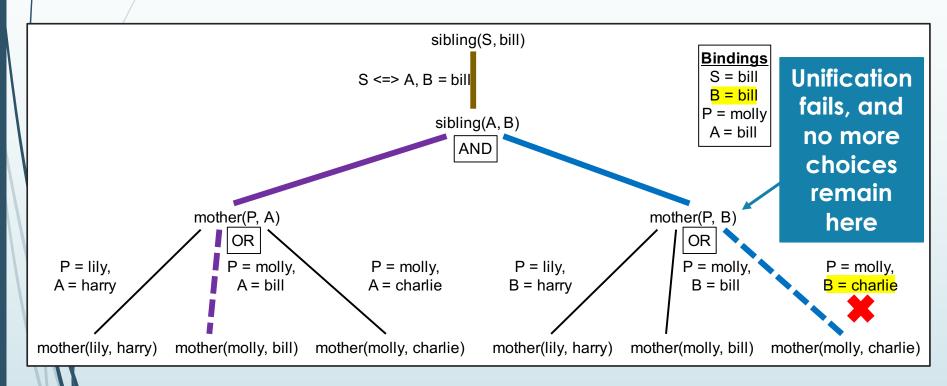
First Solution

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

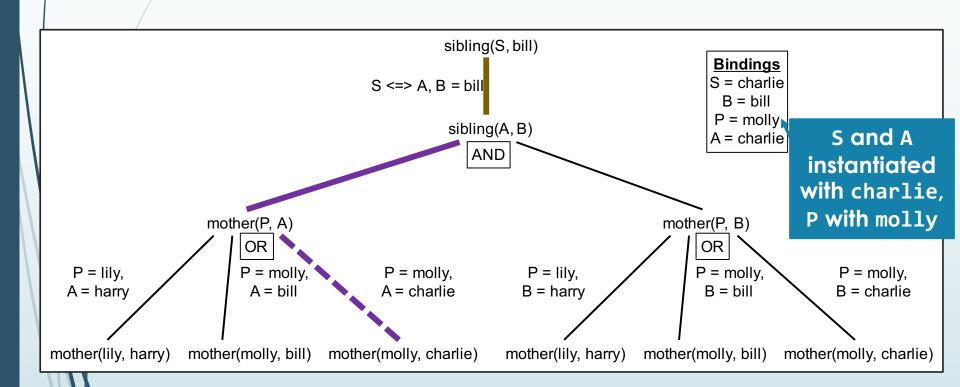


Continuing the Search

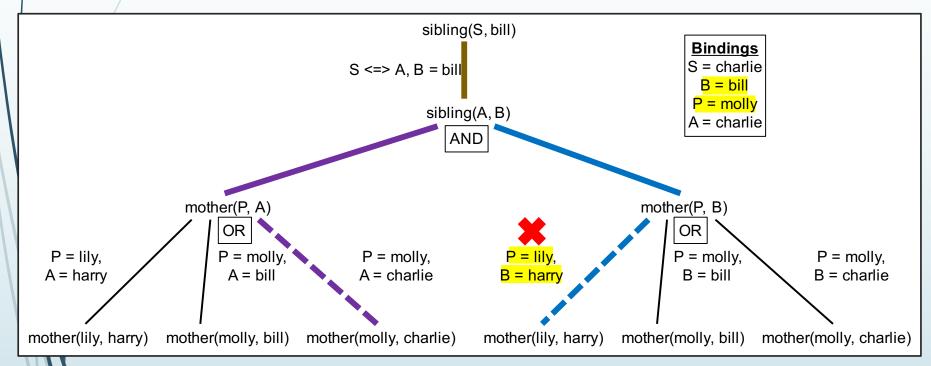
If we ask the interpreter for another solution, it backtracks to the previous choice point, attempting to apply the fact mother(molly, charlie)



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

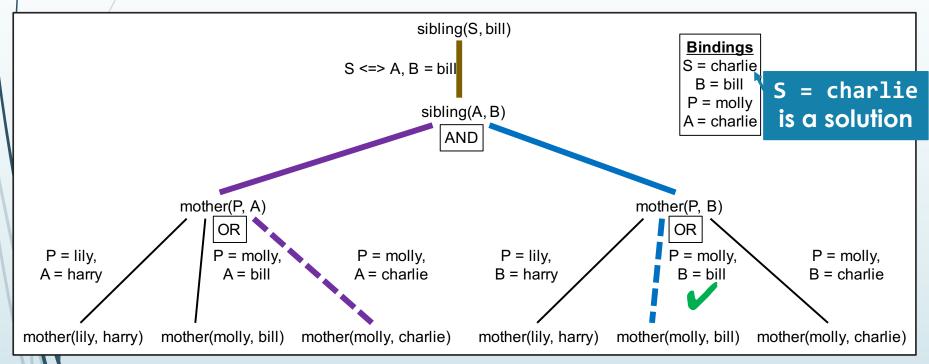


- Then the goal mother(P, B) is solved, with an initial choice of applying the fact mother(lily, harry)
- However, unification of B = bill with harry fails



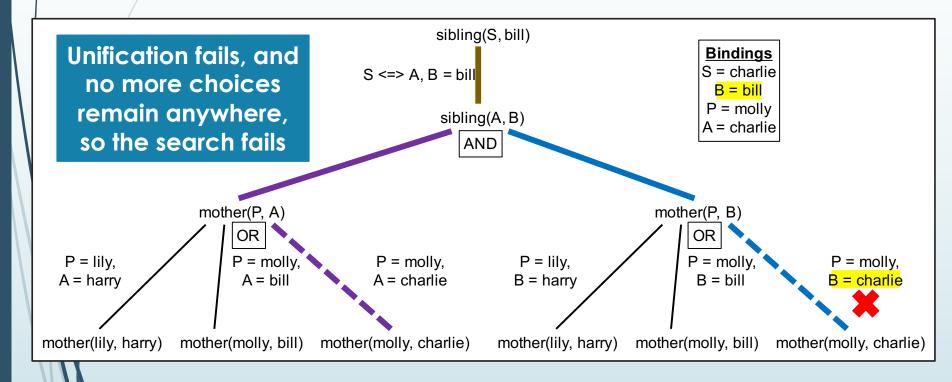
Second Solution

- 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)



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 <=> S
unifies with anything, so
negation always fails

Instead, write it as:

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).
```

11/16/17