## **Prolog Programming Language**

## **Relations/Predicates**

#### recursion

```
"I am my own grandpa"
Transitive close
Ex: graph declared with facts
Edge(1,2). Edge(2,3). Edge(2,4). Reach(X,Y):- edge(X,Y).
```

#### prolog execution

Call: call a predicate (invocation)
Exit: return an answer to the caller
Fail: return to caller with no answer
Redo: try next path to find answer

## Syntax of prolog programs

```
Program = sequence of clauses

Each clause is of the form head :- body.

Head = one term

Body = list conjunction of terms

Fact = Clause with empty body ex raining(ny)

Rule = Clause can sometimes be called a rule ex wet(X) :- raining(X).
```

## **Logic programming concepts**

- Operators: conjunction, disjunction, negation, implication
- Universal and existential quantifiers
- Statements: T, F, unknown.
  - Axioms: assumed true.
  - Theorems: probably true.
  - Goals: we'd like to prove true
- All statement are in form of HORN CLAUSES = HEAD + BODY

- Term: can be constant, variable, or structure of a functor+ parenthesize list of arguments
- Meaning of a rule: the conjunction of the terms in the body implies the head.
- Query/top-level Goal = clause with an empty head ex: ?- wet(X).
- Prolog interpreter has collection of facts and rules in its database = fact are axioms (thing interpreter assumes to be true) & prolog provides automatic way to deduce true results from facts and rules.
- A structure can play the role of a data structure or a predicate
- A constant is either an ATOM (looks like an identifier beginning with a lowercase letter, or a single quoted charact string) or a number (looks like an int or real from some more ordinary language)
- Variable looks like an identifier beginning with an upper-case letter
- Rules are theorems that allow interpreter to inger things
- Variables whose first appearance is on the left hand side of the clause have implicit universal quantifiers
- Variables whose first appearance is in body of clause have implicit existential quantifiers

## **Prolog programs**

- Atomic data:
  - Numeric constants: int, float
  - o Atoms: strings of charact enclose in single quotes ex 'Concordia'
  - o Identifiers: sequence of letters, digits, underscore, beginning with a lower case letter ex mark, r2d2, one\_element
- Variables
  - Are denoted by identifiers beginning with an Uppercase letter or underscore ex X, Index, \_param
  - These are single-assignment logical variables
    - Be assigned only once
    - Diff occurrences of same variable in a clause denote same data
    - Variables are implicitly declared upon first use
      - They are not typed
    - if doesn't start with "\_" then assumed it will appear multiple time in the rule
  - o Anonymous variables/Don't care variables: beginning with "\_"
    - Underscore by itself = variable
      - Each occurance will correspond to diff variable
      - A variable with "\_" and with charact: descriptive name & used to create relationships within a clause (used 1+)
  - Warning used to identify bugs
- Queries
  - To run prolog program, one ask interpreter a question(query) which interpreter tries to prove
  - o Declarative meaning: what are the logical consequences of program?

- Procedural meaning: for what values of variables in query can I prove query?
  - Use gives syst a goal = syst attempts to find axioms + inference steps to prove goal

## **Procedural meaning of prolog**

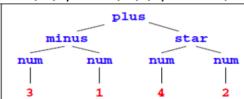
- Prolog interpreter works by what is called backward chaining (top-down, goal directed)
  - Begins with thing it is trying to prove and works backwards looking for things that would imply it until it gets to facts
- Also possible to work forward but can be very time consuming
- Interpreter starts at beginning of database & looks for smthing with which to unify the current goal
  - If finds fact = success
  - If finds rule = attempts to satisfy terms in body of rule depth first
  - Process is motivated by resolution principle of Robinson
- When attempts resolution = interpreter pushes current goal onto stack, makes first term in body current goal, and goes back to beginning of database and starts looking again.
- If fails: interpreter undoes unification of left hand side & keeps looking through database for smthing else which to unify == BACKTRACKING
- Prolog isn't purely declarative

#### **Structures**

- If f is an identifier and  $t_1$ ,  $t_2$ , ..., $t_n$  are terms then  $f(t_1,\,t_2,\,...,t_n)$  is a term. F is a function and t is an argument
- Structures are used to group related data items and to construct trees

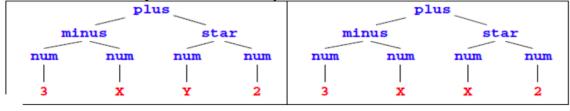
#### **Trees**

plus (minus (num (3), num (1)), star (num (4), num (2)))



• Data structures may have variables. And the same

variable may occur multiple times in a data structure.



#### Matching

- Given 2 terms, we can ask if they match each other. Rules:
  - A constant matches with itself
  - Variable matches with anything
    - Ex A = 35, A=B, then B becomes 35
  - o 2 structures match if they have: same functor, same arity, match recursively
- General rule whether S and T match are:
  - o If S and T are constants
  - o If S is variable and T is anything
  - If T is variable and S is anything
  - o If S and T are structures: same functor, corresponding arguments components have to match.
- Matching is predominant means for accessing a structures arguments

## **Declarative and procedural Way**

- Prolog programs can be understood 2 ways: declaratively and procedurally
  - $\circ$  P:-Q,R
  - o Declaractive way: P is true if Q and R are true
  - Procedural Way: to solve P first solve Q then R OR to satisfy P, first satisfy Q then R

#### Lists

- Prolog uses special syntax to represent and manipulate lists
  - o [1,2,3,4]: represents a list
  - o [1 | [2,3,4]] : head is first element, tail is the rest
  - o empty list : ∏ or nil
- List are special cases of trees
- Strings: a sequence of charact surrounded by quotes is equivalent to a list of numeric charact codes: "abc", "to be, or not to be".

#### **Programming with Lists**

- Ex: member/2 to find if a given element occurs in a list:
  - $\circ$  The program: member(X, [X]). member(X, [Ys]):- member(X, Ys).
  - o Ex of questies: ?- member(2, [1,2,3]).
- Append/3: concatenate two lists to form the third list:
  - Append([], L, L).
- Is the predicate a function? No. not applying arguments to get result. Instead we're proving that a theorem holds. => can leave other variables unbound
- Append example trace
- Len/2 finds the length of a list (first argument)
  - $\circ$  Len([], 0). Len([\_Xs], N+1) :- len(Xs, N).
  - Queries: ?-len([]), X). X = 0

#### **Arithmetic**

- ?-1+2 = 3. False
- in predicate logic, basis for prolog, the only symbols that have a meaning are the predicates themselves
- in particular, function symbols are uninterpreted: have no special meaning and can be used to construct data structures.
- Meaning for arithmetic expressions is given by the built-in predicate "is":
  - $\circ$  ?- X is 1 + 2. Succeeds, binding X = 3.
  - o ?- 3 is 1 + 2. Succeeds.
- General form: R is E where E is an expression to be evaluated and R is matched with expression's value.

#### **Conditional Evaluation**

- Conditional operator: the if-then-else construct in Prolog:
  - o If A then B else C is written as (A-> B; C)
  - o In prolog it means: try A. if can prove it, go prove B and ignore C. If A fails, go on to prove C ignoring B
- Computation of n! factorial(N, F):- ...
  - o N is input parameter; F is output parameter
  - o Body of rule species how output is related to input
    - If N = < 0 then F = 1 if N > = 0 then F = N\*factorial(N-1)

## **Imperative Features**

- Imperative programs/ backtracking
  - o Program:-
    - Member(X, [1,2,3,4]),
    - Write(X),
    - N1,
    - Fail
  - o Program.
  - o ?- program. %prints all solutions
- Fail: always fails
- ! Is cut operator: prevent other rules from matching

## **Arithmetic Operators**

- int/float operators: +, -, \*, /
- int operators: mod, //
- comparison operators: <, >, =<, >=.

#### **Programming with Lists**

- delete/3 to remove given element from a list ex delete([1,2,3], 2, X) X = [1,3].
- Algorithm: when X is select from [X|Ys], Ys results
- Permutations: permute/2 to find permutation of a given list

- Permute([1,2,3],X) return X[1,2,3] upon backtracking X[1,3, 2],
   X[2,1,3], X[2,3,1] to X[3,2,1].
- Issue of Efficiency: rev/2 finds the reverse of given list rev([1,3, 2],X) succeed X = [3,2,1].

#### **Tree traversal**

- Binary tree represented by
  - Node/3facts: for internal nodes: node(a,b,c) means that a has b and c as children.
  - o Left/1 facts: for leaves leaf(a) mean a is a leaf

#### **Difference Lists**

- Lists in prolog are singly-linked; hence we can access first element in constant time but need to scan entire list to get last element
- However we can use variables in data structure = to make lists open tailed
- When X = [1,2,3] Y, X is a list with 1,2,3 as its first element, followed by Y
  - o Now if Y = [4|Z] then X = [1,2,3,4|Z]
  - o Z as pointing to the end of X
  - o WE can now add an element to the end of X in constant time
  - o Open-tailed lists are called difference lists in Prolog.
- Conventions:
  - o difference list represented by 2 variables: one referring to entire list, another to its tail

## **Functional Programming with Common Lisp**

## 1. Lisp

= List Processing Language Basic datatype is list, programs themselves are lists

An *element of a list* can be either a *list* or an *atom*. A list can also be empty.

## 1.1 Anything in () is a function call

Ex (+12) evaluates 3 BUT ((+12)) error bc 3 is not a function (quote(123)) short form (123) is a list that contains +, 1, 2

## 1.2 Functional Programming

Evaluate functions Avoid global state and mutable data Higher-order first class functions Closures and recursion Lists and list processing

#### 1.3 State

State of program = all of current variable and heap values Imperative programs destructively modify existing state SET{x,y} Functional programs yield new similar states over time SET\_1{x} -> SET\_2{x,y}

## 1.4 Functional-Style Advantages

- Tractable program semantics (procedures=fcts; formulate and assertions about code; more readable)
- Referential transparency (replace expression by value without changing result)
- No side-effects (fewer errors)

## 1.5 Functional-Style Disadvantages

- Efficiency (copying takes time)
- Compiler implementation (frequent memory allocation)
- New programming style = unfamiliar
- Not appropriate for every program

## 2. Basic Types

*Atoms*: symbols (words) || numbers || NIL (means false or empty list)

*Lists*: objects/expressions enclosed in ()

Ex: () the empty list or NIL = false

(3 (4 5 6) a b c)

((B (3))): (a b c) is list of 3 items, ((a b c)) is list of 1 item which the

item is a list of 3 items

*Strings*: sequence of char within double quotes

Ex: "this is a string"

## Objects and other structures

#### 2.1 Atoms

= number, symbols (words), NIL

**Numbers** are atoms Ex: 3, 8.9, 2/3

*Symbols* are atoms Ex: object whose name is a string

Value – symbols are "variables" they "bound" to other lisp objects Ex FOO bound 4.2

Function = fct name bound to fct definition

**NIL** is an atom it is an atom AND a list

#### 2.2 T and NIL

= self-evaluating and ø be bound to anything

**NIL**: represents as symbol "false" as a list empty list "()"

T or ANYTHING non-NIL: represents "true"

(null <arg>) returns true if arg = nIL, false otherwise

Ex: returns T if arg NIL, else returns NIL

(*listp <arg>*): returns true if arg = list (including NIL)

Ex: (listp NIL) = T

#### 2.3 Variables

Values have types not variables

## 2.4 Evaluation of Basic Types

*Numbers*: self-evaluating  $ex 5 \Rightarrow 5$ 

*Symbols*: evaluate hteir binding or value ex Color has value 3 then color => 3.

Evaluation of an unbound symbol = error. Symbol have many facets to a value.

*Strings*: self-evaluation Ex "this is a string" => "this is a string"

## 2.4.1 preventing evaluation: quote

• (quote <arg>)

prevents evaluation of its arg its return value is <arg>

• Single quote mark '<arg>

is equivalent to (quote <arg>)

Ex 'foo is the same as (quote foo) 'foo => foo

## 3. Functions

"function f is a mapping from each element in a set A to exactly one element in a set B. f:  $A \rightarrow B$ "

They're called using prefix notation

- Parentheses () surround the call
- *1st item*: function name || symbol
- 2nd & the rest: parameters (functionName arguments)

(+ 1 3 5) => **9** 

(+ 1 3) => 4





Ex:

```
(+ 1 2 3 4) ; Equivalent to infix (1 + 2 + 3 + 4). Returns 10.
(* 2 3 4) ; Equivalent to infix (2 * 3 * 4). Returns 24.
(< 1 3 2) ; Equivalent to (1 < 3 < 2). Returns false (NIL).</pre>
```

A function definition:

(defun name (parameter list) body)

#### 3.1 Functions Evaluation

function call has form – (<name> <arg1> <arg2> ...)
All args are evaluated
Fct definition of <name> is obtained
Fct is applied to args

Value's returned

## Examples:

```
(+ 5.3 8) => 13.3
(+ (+ 4.5 (* 5.7 3)) (- 7 29) (/ 99 23)) => 3.9043465
in infix notation this amounts to (4.5+5.7*3)+(7-29)+(99/23)

if x is bound to 23, then
```

# (+ X 4) => 27

#### 3.2 Functions and Control

**Functions** 

- Built-in fct
- Defining fct
- Fct Evaluation and Special Forms (defun, if)

**Control statements** 

- Conditional (*if, cond*)
- Repetition (loops) do
- Sequence prog

## 3.3 High-order Functions

Functions which do at least one of the following:

- 1. Take one or + fcts as their args
- 2. Return a fct

```
>(sort (list 5 0 7 3 9 1 4 13 23) #'>)
(23 13 9 7 5 4 3 1 0)
```

• mapcar

takes as args a fct and one or + lists & applies the fct to elements of list(s) in order.

Ex ; Multiplication applies to successive pairs.

```
> (mapcar #'* '(2 3) '(10 10))
(20 30)
```

• funcall

takes as args a fct and a list of args (ø require args to be packaged as list), and returns result of applying fct to elements of list.

```
Ex > (funcall #'+ 1 3 4); Equivalent to (+ 1 3 4).
```

apply

works like funcall, but requires that last arg is a list.

## 3.4 Anonymous Functions

It's one that is defined (and called) without being bound to an identifier. They aren't stored in memory.

Syntax: (lambda (formal parameter list) (body))

#### 3.5 Recursive functions

Each recursive case consists of:

- 1. Splitting data into smaller pieces
- 2. Handling pieces with calls to current method
- 3. Combining results into a single result

```
Ex f: N \rightarrow lists(N)
        f(0) = \langle 0 \rangle.
        f(n)=cons(n,f(n-1)), for n>0.
Ex sum
 (defun sum (lst)
        (cond ((null lst) 0)
                 (t (+ (car lst) (sum (cdr lst))))))
Ex find last element
        (defun last2 (lst)
                 (cond ((null lst) nil)
                        ((null (cdr lst)) (car lst))
                        (t (last2 (cdr lst)))))
Ex reversing a list
        (defun reverse2 (lst)
                (cond ((null lst) '())
                         (t (append (reverse2 (cdr lst)) (list (car lst))))))
```

## 4. Basic List Processing Functions

1. List

creates a list comprised of its arguments Ex (list 'x 'y 'z)=>(X Y Z)

2. Car (or first)

returns the first element of a list

Ex (car (list 'x 'y)) => X

3. *Cdr (or rest)* 

Everything but first element Ex (cdr '(a b c))=>(B C)

4. Cons

creates a list by adding element as head of existing list Ex cons (list 'x 'y) (list 'x 'y)) => ((X Y) X Y)

5. **Append** 

Takes any number of lists as args Returns them appended together Ex (append '(a b c) '(d e f)) => (A B C D E F)

6. Equal

Takes 2 args

Returns T if they are structurally equal or equal value

## **ATTENTION**

**EQL**: return true if its arguments point to the same object

Ex: (eql 1 1) is true (eql 1 1.0) is false

**EQUAL**: returns true if its arguments have the same value.

## 4.1 Predicate Functions listp and null

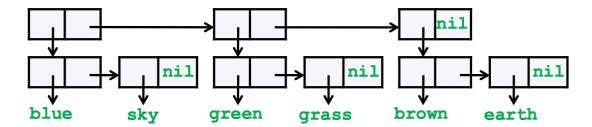
**Predicate**: function whose return value is intended to be interpreted as T/F **Listp** 

- takes one parameter
- it returns
  - T if the arg is a list
  - NIL otherwise

#### Null

- takes one parameter it returns
  - T if the parameter is the empty list
  - NIL otherwise
- Note that null returns T if the parameter is ()!

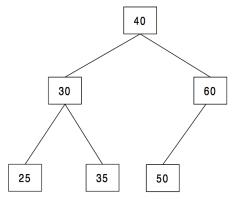
#### 4.2 Sublists



## 5. Cons Cell and Lists as Trees

Binary tree: car -left subtree & cdr -right subtree

We can use a list to represent a non-empty tree as (atom, (l-list), (r-list))atom = root Ex '(40 (30 (25 () ())(35 () ()))(60 (50 () ())()))



## 6. Variables

#### 6.1 Quote

```
takes 1 param & entire expression evaluates to param

Ex (quote (a b c))=>(A B C) OR '(a b c) => (A B C)

Doesn't work under eager evaluation

Ex: (+ 1 2) is a program

'(+ 1 2) is data (list of 3 elements)

(+ 2 (+ 1 2)) is 5

(+ 2 '(+ 1 2)) is an error => Ø evaluate +1 2
```

#### 6.2 Variable declarations

Global and special variables

```
- (defvar ...)
- (defparameter ...)
- (defconstant ...)
- (setq var2 (list 4 5))
- (setf ...)
Local variables
- (let ((x 10)) ...)
- (let* ((x 99) ...)
```

#### 6.3 Global variables

Var is *global* if it is visible *everywhere* as opposed to a *local* variable which is visible *only within code block* in which it's defined.

```
Setq = global var Setf = local & global
```

## Declared with defvar and defparameter

(defvar <var name> <init value> <documentation>)

## Assign values with setf

(setf <place> <new value>)

## 7. Expressions and functions

**Expressions** are written as **lists**, **using prefix notation**.

Prefix notation: form of notation for logic, arithmetic, and algebra. It places operators to the left of their operands.

Ex expression  $14 - (2 \times 3)$  is written as  $(-14 \times 23)$ 

## **7.1** Arity of functions

**Arity**: describe the number of arguments or operands that a function takes. Unary fct = arity 1 & binary fct = arity 2, etc....

## 7.2 Prohibiting expression evaluation

Quote will stop the expression evaluation

```
Ex: (/ (* 2 6) 3) returns 4
BUT '(/ (* 2 6) 3) returns (/(*2 6) 3)
```

## 7.3 Boolean Operations

Lisp supports Boolean logic with operators and, or, and not

#### 7.3.1 OR operator

Evaluates its subexpressions from  $\it left\ to\ right\$  and  $\it stops\$  immediately if any subexpression is  $\it T$ 

```
Ex > (let ((x 5)))
(or (< x 2) (> x 3)))
```

#### 7.3.2 AND operator

Evaluates its subexpressions from *left to right* and *stops* immediately if any subexpression is *false/NIL*.

```
Ex > (let ((x 5))
(and (< x 7) (< x 3)))
NIL
```

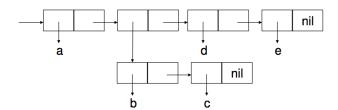
## 8. Constructing lists

3 fcts to create list:

```
1. cons 2. list 3. append
```

#### 8.1 Fct cons

A list in Lisp is *singly-linked* where each node = pair of 2 pointers (first one pointing to data element & 2nd pointing to tail of list with last node's 2nd pointer pointing to empty list)



#### 8.2 Fct list

Lists can be created directly with list function, which takes any number of args, and it returns list composed of these args.

```
(list 1 2 'a 3) ; Returns (1 2 A 3).

(list 1 '(2 3) 4) ; Returns (1 (2 3) 4).

(list '(+ 2 1) (+ 2 1)) ; Returns ((+ 2 1) 3).

(list 1 2 3 (list 'a 'b 4) 5) ; Returns (1 2 3 (a b 4) 5).
```

## 8.3 Fct append

It takes any number of list args and it returns list which is concatenation of its args:

```
(append '(1 2) '(3 4))
(append '(1 2 3) '() '(a) '(5 6))
(append '(1 2 3 '(a b c)) '() '(d) '(4 5))

Returns (1 2 3 4)

Returns (1 2 3 a 5 6)

Returns (1 2 3 (QUOTE (a b c)) d 4 5)
```

#### append expects as its arguments only lists.

```
Ex > (append 1 '(4 5 6))
Error: 1 is not of type LIST.
> (append (list 1) '(4 5 6))
(1 4 5 6)
```

## 9. Accessing a List

Only access either the head of a list, or the tail of a list.

*Operation car* takes a list as an argument and returns the head of the list.

*Operation cdr* takes a list as an argument and returns the tail of the list.

```
Ex (car (cdr '(1 (3 5) (7 11)))) Returns (3 5)
```

## 10. Control flow

Single selection

## **Multiple Selection**

Can be formed with *cond* which *contains list of clauses* where *each* clause *contains* 2 expressions, called *condition* and *answer*.

```
Ex: (cond (question answer)
...
(else answer); Optional
```

Conditions evaluated sequentially. Can use t(true) instead of else.

## 11. Binding

## 11.1 Variables and binding

```
Binding = mechanism for implementing lexical scope for variables.
```

values are computed and bindings are done in parallel.

```
let ((x 2) (y 3))
(+ x y)) Returns 5
```

## 11.2 context and nested binding

Inner binding for variable shadows outer binding and region where variable binding is visible is called *its scope*.

```
let* is functionally equivalent to a series of nested lets Ex (let*((x 10) (y (* 2 x))); Not legal for let. (* x y)); Returns 200
```

## 12. Search a List

#### 12.1 Bubble Sort

*is-sortedp* which returns True or False on whether or not its list argument is sorted

```
(defun is-sortedp (lst)
  (cond ((or (null lst) (null (cdr lst))) t)
        ((< (car lst) (car (cdr lst))) (is-sortedp (cdr lst)))
        (t nil)))</pre>
```

#### bubble-sort

#### 12.2 Linear Search

If x appears in L, then we would like to return its position in the list.

```
(defun search (lst elt pos)
  (if (equal (car lst) elt)
    pos
        (search (cdr lst) elt (+ 1 pos))))
(defun linear-search (lst elt)
    (search lst elt 1))
```

#### 12.3 binary Search

```
(defun binary-search (lst elt)
  (cond ((null lst) nil)
     ((= (car lst) elt) t)
     ((< elt (car lst)) (binary-search (car (cdr lst)) elt))
      ((> elt (car lst))
           (binary-search (car (cdr lst))) elt))))
```