

Logic Programming

And Prolog

5th–Generation Languages

- ▶ Declarative (nonprocedural)
 - Functional Programming
 - Logic Programming
- ▶ Imperative
 - Object Oriented Programming

Nonprocedural Programming

Sorting procedurally:

1. Find the min in the remained numbers.
2. Swap it with the first number.
3. Repeat steps 1,2 until no number remains.

Sorting nonprocedurally:

1. B is a sorting of A \leftrightarrow B is a permutation of A and B is ordered.
2. B is ordered \leftrightarrow for each $i < j$: $B[i] \leq B[j]$

Which is *higher level*?

Automated Theorem Proving

- ▶ **A.T.P.**: Developing programs that can construct formal proofs of propositions stated in a symbolic language.
- ▶ **Construct** the desired result to prove its existence (most A.T.P.'s).
- ▶ In **Logic Programming**, programs are expressed in the form of propositions and the theorem prover constructs the result(s).
- ▶ J. A. Robinson: A program is a theory (in some logic) and computation is deduction from the theory.

Programming In Logic (Prolog)

- ▶ Developed in *Groupe d'Intelligence Artificielle (GIA)* of the University of Marseilles (early 70s) to process a natural language (French).
- ▶ Interpreters: Algol-W (72), FORTRAN (73), Pascal (76), Implemented on many platforms (Now)
- ▶ Application in AI since mid-70s
- ▶ Successor to LISP for AI apps
- ▶ Not standardized (but has ISO standard now)

Structural Organization

13.2

parent(X,Y) :- father(X,Y).
parent(X,Y) :- mother(X,Y).
grandparent(X,Z) :- parent(X,Y), parent(Y,Z).
ancestor(X,Z) :- parent(X,Z).
ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y), ancestor(Y,Z).
sibling(X,Y) :- mother(M,X), mother(M,Y),
 father(F,X), father(F,Y), X \= Y.
cousin(X,Y) :- parent(U,X), parent(V,Y), sibling(U,V).

father(albert, jeffrey).
mother(alice, jeffrey).
father(albert, george).
mother(alice, george).
father(john, mary).
mother(sue, mary).
father(george, cindy).
mother(mary, cindy).
father(george, victor).
mother(mary, victor).

?- [kinship].

% kinship compiled 0.00 sec, 3,016 bytes

Yes

SWI Prolog

?- ancestor(X, cindy), sibling(X, jeffrey).

X = george ↵

Yes

?- grandparent(albert, victor).

Yes

?- cousin(alice, john).

No

?- sibling(A,B).

A = jeffrey, B = george ; ↵

A = george, B = jeffrey ; ↵

A = cindy, B = victor ; ↵

A = victor, B = cindy ; ↵

No

Clauses

- ▶ Programs are constructed from A number of *clauses*: $\langle \text{head} \rangle :- \langle \text{body} \rangle$
 - ▶ Clauses have three forms:
 - *hypotheses* (facts)
 - *conditions* (rules)
 - *goals*
 - ▶ Both $\langle \text{head} \rangle$ and $\langle \text{body} \rangle$ are composed of *relationships* (also called *predications* or *literals*)
-
- assertions (database)
- questions

Relationships

- ▶ Represent properties of and relations among the individuals
- ▶ A relationship is application of a *predicate* to one or more *terms*
- ▶ Terms:
 - *atoms* (or constants): john, 25, ...
 - *variables* (begin with *uppercase letters*): X, ...
 - *compounds*
- ▶ *Horn clause form*: At most one relationship in <head>

Compound Terms

- ▶ It is *more* convenient to describe individuals without giving them names (*expressions* or *compounds* as terms).
- ▶ using *functors* (tags):
 $d(X, \text{plus}(U, V), \text{plus}(DU, DV)) :- d(X, U, DU), d(X, V, DV).$
- ▶ or using *infix functors*:
 $d(X, U+V, DU+DV) :- d(X, U, DU), d(X, V, DV).$
- ▶ instead of
 $d(X, W, Z) :- \text{sum}(U, V, W), d(X, U, DU), d(X, V, DV), \text{sum}(DU, DV, Z).$
- ▶ with less readability and some other things...

Data Structures

13.3

Primitives and Constructors

- ▶ *Few* primitives and *No* constructors.
- ▶ Data types and data structures are defined *implicitly* by their *properties*.

Example (datatype)

- ▶ Natural number arithmetic

```
sum(succ(X), Y, succ(Z)) :- sum(X, Y, Z).  
sum(0, X, X).  
dif(X, Y, Z) :- sum(Z, Y, X).
```

```
:-sum(succ(succ(0)), succ(succ(succ(0))), A).  
A = succ(succ(succ(succ(succ(0))))))
```

- ▶ Very inefficient! (Why such a decision?)
- ▶ Use of **'is'** operator (unidirectional)

Principles

- ▶ **Simplicity**
 - Small number of built-in data types and operations
- ▶ **Regularity**
 - Uniform treatment of all data types as predicates and terms

Data Structures

- ▶ *Compound terms* can represent data structures
- ▶ Example: *Lists* in LISP

`(car (cons X L)) = X`

`(cdr (cons X L)) = L`

`(cons (car L) (cdr L)) = L`, for **nonnull** `L`

Lists in Prolog

- ▶ Using compound terms:

```
car( cons(X,L), X).
```

```
cdr( cons(X,L), L).
```

```
list(nil).
```

```
list(cons(X,L)) :- list(L).
```

```
null(nil).
```

- ▶ What about null(L)?

- ▶ How to accomplish (car (cons '(a b) '(c d)))?

Some Syntactic Sugar

- ▶ Using `'.'` infix functor (in some systems) instead of `cons`:
 - Clauses?
- ▶ Most Prolog systems allow the abbreviation:
 - $[X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n] = X_1.X_2.\dots.X_n.nil$
 - $[] = nil$
 - `'.'` is right associative!

Component Selection

- ▶ Implicitly done by **pattern matching** (*unification*).

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

```
append( X.P, L, X.Q) :- append(P,L,Q).
```

- ▶ Compare with LISP append:

```
(defun append (M L)
```

```
  (if (null M)
```

```
      L
```

```
      (cons (car M) (append (cdr M) L)) ))
```

- ▶ ***Taking apart*** in terms of ***putting together!***
 - What X and P are cons'd to create M?
 - What number do I add to 3 to get 5 (instead of 5-3)
- ▶ Efficient!?

Complex Structures

- ▶ A tree using lists (in LISP):
 - (times (plus x y) (plus y 1))
- ▶ Using compound terms directly (as records):
 - times(plus(x, y), plus(y, 1))
- ▶ Using predicates directly:
 - sum(x, y, t1).
 - sum(y, 1, t2).
 - prod(t1, t2, t3).
- ▶ Which is *better*?

Why Not Predicates?

Symbolic differentiation using predicate structured expressions:

$d(X,W,Z) :- \text{sum}(U,V,W), d(X,Y,DU), d(X,V,DV), \text{sum}(DU,DV,Z).$

$d(X,W,Z) :- \text{prod}(U,V,W), d(X,U,DU), d(X,V,DV), \text{prod}(DU,V,A), \text{prod}(U,DV,B), \text{sum}(A,B,Z).$

$d(X,X,1).$

$d(X,C,0) :- \text{atomic}(C), C \neq X.$

Why Not Predicates? (cont.)

- ▶ Waste use of intermediate (temporary) variables
- ▶ Less readability
- ▶ Unexpected answers!

`sum(x, 1, z) .`

`:- d(x, z, D) .`

No

- Why? What did *you* expect?
- How to correct it?

Closed World Model

- ▶ **All** that is true is what can be **proved** on the basis of the facts and rules in the database.
- ▶ Very reasonable in *object-oriented* apps (modeling a real or imagined world)
 - All existing objects are defined.
 - No object have a given property which cannot be found in db.
- ▶ Not suitable for *mathematical problems* (Why?)
 - An object is generally take to exist if its existance doesn't contradict the axioms.
- ▶ **Predicates** are better for OO-relationships, **Compounds** for mathematical ones (Why?)
 - We cannot assume existance of $1 + 0$ whenever needed.

An Argument!

- ▶ What's the answer?

`equal(x,x).`

`:- equal(f(Y),Y).`

?

- ▶ What's the *logical* meaning? (*occurs check*)
- ▶ Any *other* meaning?
- ▶ Can it be represented in a *finite amount* of memory?
- ▶ Should we *detect* it?

Control Structures

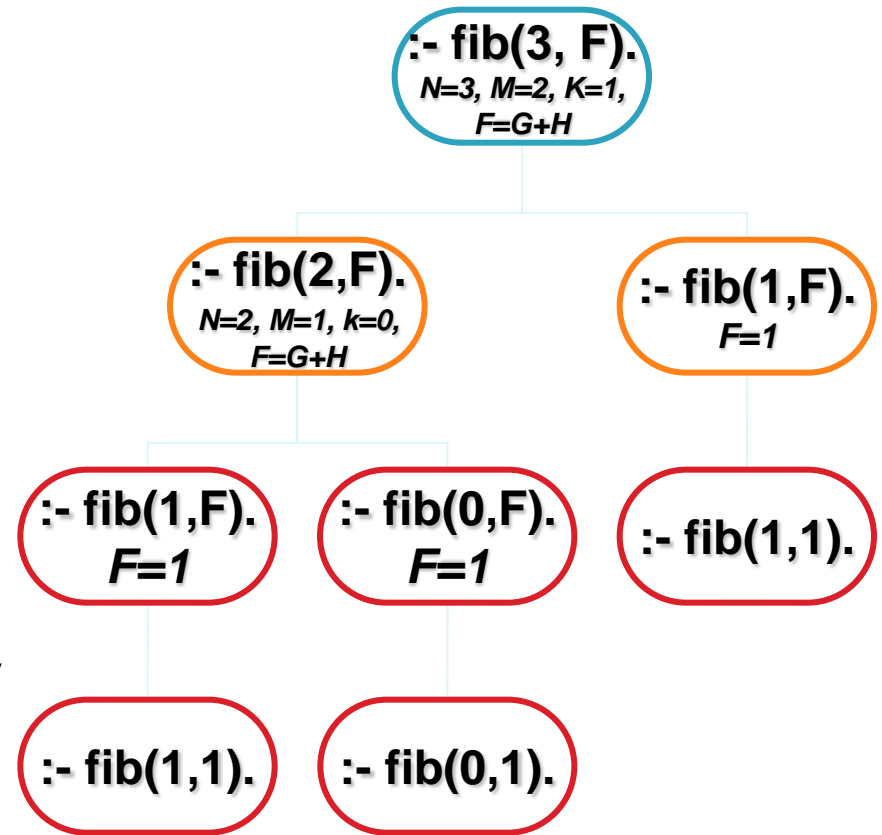
13.4

Algorithm = Logic + Control

- ▶ N. Wirth: **Program = data structure + algorithm**
- ▶ R. Kowalski: **Algorithm = logic + control**
- ▶ In conventional programming:
 - *Logic* of a program is closely related to its *control*
 - A change in order of statements alters the meaning of program
- ▶ In (pure) logic programming:
 - *Logic* (logic phase) is determined by logical *interrelationships* of the clauses not their *order*.
 - *Control* (control phase) affects the *order* in which actions occur in time and only affects the *efficiency* of programs.
- ▶ Orthogonality Principle

Top-Down vs. Bottom-Up Control

- ▶ Top-down \approx **Recursion**:
 - Try to reach the hypotheses from the goal.
- ▶ Bottom-up \approx **Iteration**:
 - Try to reach the goal from the hypotheses.
- ▶ Hybrid:
 - Work from both the goals and the hypotheses and try to meet in the middle.
- ▶ Which one is better?



$\text{fib}(0,1).$ $\text{fib}(1,1).$
 $\text{fib}(N,F) \text{ :- } N=M+1, M=K+1, \text{fib}(M,G),$
 $\text{fib}(K,H), F=G+H, N>1.$

Procedural Interpretation

- ▶ We have seen *logical* and *record* (data structure) interpretations.
- ▶ Clauses can also be viewed as *procedure invocations*:
 - <head>: proc. definition
 - <body>: proc. body (a series of proc. calls)
 - Multiple definitions: branches of a conditional (case)
 - fib() example...
- ▶ Procedure calls can be executed in any order or even concurrently! (pure logic)
- ▶ Input/Output params are not distinguished!
 - fib(3,3) ↔ true. fib(3,F) ↔ F=3. fib(N,3) ↔ N=3. fib(N,F) ↔ ?

Unify, Fail, Redo...

- ▶ Heavy use of *unification*, *backtracking* and *recursion*.
- ▶ Unification (Prolog pattern matching – from *Wikipedia*):
 - One-time assignment (binding)
 - uninst. var with atom/term/another uninst. var (aliasing) (occurs check)
 - atom with the same atom
 - compound with compound if top predicates and arities of the terms are identical and if the parameters can be unified *simultaneously*
 - We can use ‘=’ operator to explicitly unify two terms
- ▶ Backtracking:
 - Make another choice if a choice (unif./match) *failes* or want to find *other* answers.
 - In logic prog. It is the *rule* rather than the *exception*.
 - Very expensive!
- ▶ Example: `len([], 0). len(X.T, L+1) :- len(T,L).`

Prolog's Control Regime

- ▶ Prolog lang. is *defined* to use *depth-first* search:
 - Top to bottom (try the clauses in order of entrance)
 - Left to right
 - In pure logic prog., some complete deductive algorithm such as Robinson's *resolution algorithm* must be implemented.
- ▶ DFS other than BFS
 - Needs much fewer memory
 - Doesn't work for an infinitely deep tree (responsibility of programmer)
- ▶ Some programs may fail if clauses and subgoals are not ordered correctly (pp.471–474)
- ▶ Predictable execution of *impure* predicates (write, nl, read, retract, asserta, assertz, ...)

[trace] ?- ancestor(X, cindy), sibling(X, jeffrey).

Event Depth Subgoal

=====

SWI Prolog

```
Call: (1) ancestor(X, cindy)
Call: (2) parent(X, cindy)
Call: (3) father(X, cindy)
Exit: (3) father(george, cindy)
Exit: (2) parent(george, cindy)
Exit: (1) ancestor(george, cindy)
Call: (1) sibling(george, jeffrey)
Call: (2) mother(M, george)
Exit: (2) mother(alice, george)
Call: (2) mother(alice, jeffrey)
Exit: (2) mother(alice, jeffrey)
Call: (2) father(F, george)
Exit: (2) father(albert, george)
Call: (2) father(albert, jeffrey)
Exit: (2) father(albert, jeffrey)
Call: (2) george\=jeffrey
Exit: (2) george\=jeffrey
Exit: (1) sibling(george, jeffrey)
```

X = george

Yes

If we move *parent(X,Y) :- father(X,Y)* before *parent(X,Y) :- mother(X,Y)*,
we have:

SWI Prolog

Event Depth Subgoal

```
=====
Call: (1) ancestor(X, cindy)
Call: (2) parent(X, cindy)
Call: (3) mother(X, cindy)
Exit: (3) mother(mary, cindy)
Exit: (2) parent(mary, cindy)
Exit: (1) ancestor(mary, cindy)
Call: (1) sibling(mary, jeffrey)
Call: (2) mother(M, mary)
Exit: (2) mother(sue, mary)
Call: (2) mother(sue, jeffrey)
Fail: (2) mother(sue, jeffrey)
Redo: (2) mother(M, mary)
Fail: (2) mother(M, mary)
Fail: (1) sibling(mary, jeffrey)
Redo: (3) mother(X, cindy)
Fail: (3) mother(X, cindy)
Redo: (2) parent(X, cindy)
```

...

Cut!

- ▶ **‘!’**: Discard choice points of parent frame and frames created after the parent frame.
- ▶ Always is satisfied.
- ▶ Used to guarantee termination or control execution order.
- ▶ i.e. in the goal $:- p(X,a), !$
 - Only produce the 1st answer to X
 - Probably only one X satisfies p and trying to find another one leads to an infinite search!
- ▶ i.e. in the rule $color(X,red) :- red(X), !.$
 - Don't try other choices of red (mentioned above) and color if X satisfies red
 - Similar to *then* part of a if-then-elseif

Fisher, J.R., Prolog Tutorial,

http://www.csupomona.edu/~jrfisher/www/prolog_tutorial/contents.html

Red-Green Cuts (!)

- ▶ A **'green'** cut
 - Only improves efficiency
 - e.g. to avoid additional unnecessary computation
- ▶ A **'red'** cut
 - e.g. block what would be other consequences of the program
 - e.g. control execution order (procedural prog.)

Three Examples

See also MacLennan's example p.476

```
p(a).  
p(X) :- s(X), r(X).  
p(X) :- u(X).
```

```
r(a). r(b).
```

```
s(a). s(b). s(c).
```

```
u(d).
```

```
:- p(X), !  
:- r(X), !, s(Y).  
:- r(X), s(Y), !  
:- r(X), !, s(X).
```

```
part(a). part(b). part(c).  
red(a). black(b).
```

```
color(P,red) :- red(P),!.  
color(P,black) :- black(P),!.  
color(P,unknown).
```

```
:- color(a, C).  
:- color(c, C).  
:- color(a, unknown).
```

```
max(X,Y,Y) :- Y>X, !.  
max(X,Y,X).  
:- max(1,2,D).  
:- max(1,2,1).
```

Higher-Order Rules

- ▶ Logic programming is limited to first-order logic: can't bind variables to predicates themselves.
- ▶ e.g. `red` (f-reduction) is illegal: $(p(x,y,z) \leftrightarrow z=f(x,y))$
`red(P,I,[],I).`
`red(P,I,X.L,S) :- red(P,I,L,T), P(X,T,S).`
- ▶ But is legal if the latter be defined as:
`red(P,I,X.L,S) :- red(P,I,L,T), Q=..[P,X,T,S], call(Q).`
 - What's the difference?

Higher-Order Rules (cont.)

- ▶ In LISP, both code and data are *first-order* objects, but in Prolog aren't.
- ▶ Robinson *resolution algorithm* is refutation complete for *first-order* predicate logic.
- ▶ Gödel's *incompleteness theorem*: No algorithm is refutation complete for *higher-order* predicate logic.
- ▶ So, Prolog *indirectly* supports higher-order rules.

Negative Facts

- ▶ How to define `nonsibling`? Logically...

`nonsibling(X,Y) :- X = Y.`

`nonsibling(X,Y) :- mother(M1,X), mother(M2,Y), M1
 \= M2.`

`nonsibling(X,Y) :- father(F1,X), father(F2,Y), F1 \= F2.`

- ▶ But if parents of X or Y are not in database?

- What is the answer of `nonsibling`? Can be solved by...

`nonsibling(X,Y) :- no_parent(X).`

`nonsibling(X,Y) :- no_parent(Y).`

- How to define `no_parent`?

Negative Facts (cont.)

- ▶ **Problem:** There is no *positive* fact expressing the *absence* of parent.
- ▶ **Cause:**
 - Horn clauses are limited to
 - $C :- P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n \equiv C$ holds if $P_1 \wedge P_2 \wedge \dots \wedge P_n$ hold.
 - No conclusion if $P_1 \wedge P_2 \wedge \dots \wedge P_n$ don't hold!
 - If, *not* iff

Cut-fail

Solutions:

- ▶ Stating *all* negative facts such as no_parent
 - Tedious
 - Error-prone
 - Negative facts about sth are usually much more than positive facts about it
- ▶ *“Cut-fail”* combination
 - nonsibling(X,Y) is satisfiable if sibling(X,Y) is not (i.e. sibling(X,Y) is **unsatisfiable**)
 - nonsibling(X,Y) :- sibling(X,Y), !, fail.
 - nonsibling(X,Y).
 - how to define ‘fail’ ?!

negation :- unsatisfiability

- ▶ **'not'** predicate
 - not(P) is satisfiable if P is not (i.e. is **unsatisfiable**).
 - not(P) :- call(P), !, fail.
 - not(P).
 - nonsibling(X,Y) :- not(sibling(X,Y)).
- ▶ Is **'not'** predicate the same as **'logical negation'**? (see p.484)

Evaluation and Epilog

13.5

Topics

- ▶ Logic programs are **self-documenting**
- ▶ Pure logic programs **separate** logic and control
- ▶ Prolog falls **short of** logic programming
- ▶ Implementation techniques are **improving**
- ▶ Prolog is *a step toward* **nonprocedural** programming

Self-documentation

- ▶ Programming in a higher-level, ...
- ▶ Application orientation and...
- ▶ Transparency
 - programs are described in terms of predicates and individuals of the problem domain.
- ▶ Promotes clear, rapid, accurate programming

Separation of Logic and Control

- ▶ Simplifies programming
- ▶ Correctness only deals with logic
- ▶ Optimization in control cannot affect correctness
- ▶ Obeys **Orthogonality Principle**

Prolog vs. Logic Programming

- ▶ Definite control strategy
 - Programmers make explicit use of it and the result have little to do with logic
 - Reasoning about the order of events in Prolog is comparable in difficulty with most imperative of conventional programming languages
- ▶ **Cut** doesn't make any sense in logic!
- ▶ **not** doesn't correspond to logical negation

Improving Efficiency

- ▶ Prolog is far from an efficient language.
- ▶ So, it's applications are limited to apps in which:
 - Performance is not important
 - Difficult to implement in a conventional lang.
- ▶ New methods are invented
- ▶ Some compilers produce code comparable to LISP

Toward Nonprocedural Programming

- ▶ *Pure* logic programs prove the possibility of nonprocedural programming.
- ▶ In *Prolog*, DFS requires programmers to think in terms of *operations* and their proper *ordering* in time (procedurally).
- ▶ And Prolog's control regime is more *unnatural* than conventional languages.
- ▶ So, there is still much more important work to be done before nonprocedural programming becomes *practical*.

Covered Sections of MacLennan

- ▶ 13.1
- ▶ 13.2
- ▶ 13.3
- ▶ 13.4
 - except topics starting on pp. 471, 475, 477, 484, 485, 486, 488
- ▶ 13.5

Presentation References

- ▶ Colmerauer, Alain, Philippe Roussel, The Birth of Prolog, Nov. 1992, URL: <http://www.lim.univ-mrs.fr/~colmer/ArchivesPublications/HistoireProlog/19november92.pdf>
- ▶ Fisher, J.R., Prolog Tutorial, 2004, URL: http://www.csupomona.edu/~jrfisher/www/prolog_tutorial/contents.html
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- ▶ Merritt, Dennis, “Prolog Under the Hood: An Honest Look”, *PC AI magazine*, Sep/Oct 1992
- ▶ “Unification”, *Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia*, 25 Sep. 2005, URL: <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unification>

Thank You!