

Logic Programming

CS 6371: Advanced Programming Languages

FP vs. LP

- Functional Programming
 - centered around first-class functions
 - strong, parametric polymorphic type system
 - single-assignment
 - operational semantics based on λ -calculus
- Logic Programming
 - centered around *relations*
 - no type system
 - no explicit assignment operation(!)
 - operational semantics based on depth-first search

Relations

- Relation
 - Def: A **relation** is a cartesian product ($A \times B$) of two sets A and B
 - Example: \leq relation over $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$:
 $\{(0,0), (0,1), (1,1), (0,2), (1,2), (2,2), \dots\}$
- Relations generalize functions
 - Recall: We write functions $f:A \rightarrow B$ as sets of pairs $A \times B$
 - Relations (as defined above) are also sets of pairs
 - Function f encodes relation $\{(x, f(x)) \mid x \in \text{Dom}(f)\}$
 - Unlike functions, relations can map same domain element to multiple different range elements

Relational Programming

- Three ways to define a function/relation
 - Imperatively
 - $\text{factorial}(x) = \{ z:=1; \text{ for } i:=1 \text{ to } x \text{ do } z:=z*i; \text{ return } z \}$
 - Functionally
 - $\text{factorial}(x) = (\text{if } x \leq 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } x * \text{factorial}(x-1))$
 - Relationally
 - $\text{factorial}(0,1).$
 - $\text{factorial}(x,y) \text{ if } \text{factorial}(x-1,y/x)$
- Note the differences in approach
 - Imperative is an operational recipe
 - you are essentially doing the compiler's job
 - compiler must reverse-engineer your code to optimize it!
 - Functional is a mathematical recipe
 - better, but still somewhat operational
 - Relational defines necessary and sufficient conditions
 - compiler creates a search algorithm for the solution
 - implementation details abstracted away from programmer
 - search algorithm can be highly optimized by language implementation

Prolog Programming

- Programs consist of
 - facts (unconditional truths)
 - rules (conditional truths)
 - queries (cause the program to “run” by initiating search for a solution to a question)
- Example: factorial program

```
factorial(0,1).  
factorial(X,Y) :- X2 is X-1, factorial(X2,Y2), Y is X*Y2.
```

```
?- factorial(5,X).  
X = 120
```

Applications

- Originally invited by Robert Kowalski (for theorem-proving) and Alain Colmeraur (for NLP) [1973]
- Now used primarily for
 - artificial intelligence
 - scheduling problems
 - databases (Datalog)
 - model-checking
 - compilers
 - software engineering (verification, etc.)
 - network protocol analysis
 - many other applications...

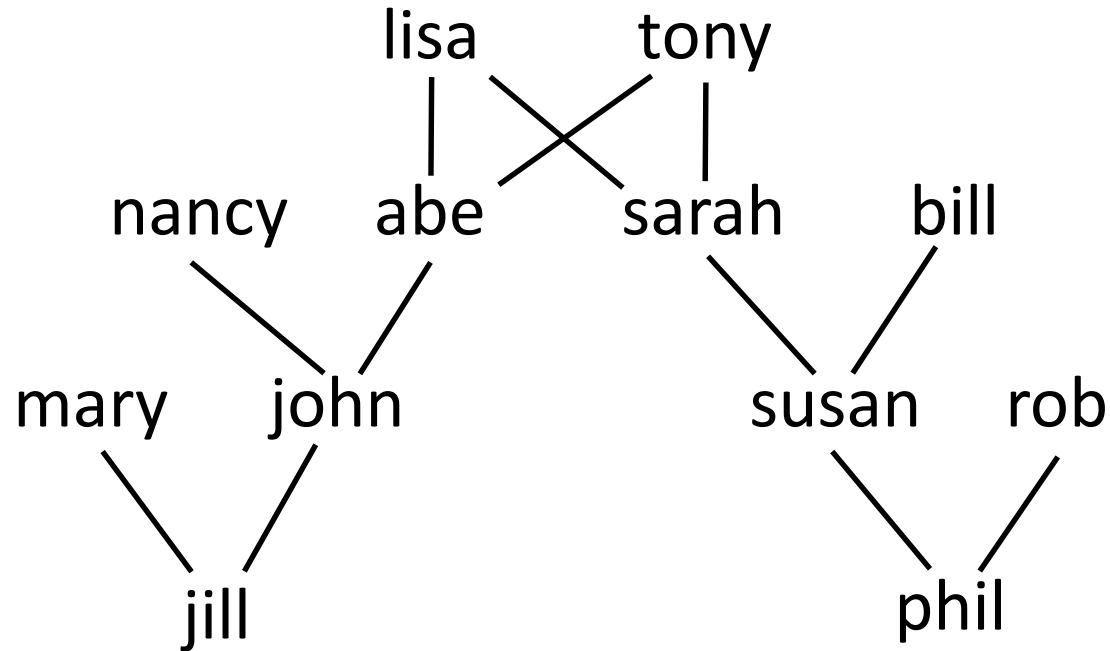
Running Prolog

- One Prolog programming assignment (given next time)
- Two installation options
 - Use CS Dept Unix machines to do assignment, or
 - Install SWI Prolog on your machine (see link on course web page)
- Programming
 - create a text file named “lastname.pl”
 - text file contains facts and rules (no queries)
- Running your program
 - type “pl” at the Unix prompt
 - type “consult(lastname).” at Prolog prompt
 - enter queries at Prolog prompt
 - to reload after changing programs, just type “make.”
 - exit by typing control-C then “e”

Prolog Syntax

- Each program line has one of two forms:
 - $p(t_1, \dots, t_n)$.
 - $p(t_1, \dots, t_n) :- p_1(t_1, \dots, t_i), p_2(t_1, \dots, t_j), \dots, p_m(t_1, \dots, t_k)$.
 - Don't forget the period ending each line!
 - p is a “predicate” consisting of lower-case letters (e.g., “factorial”)
 - t_1, \dots, t_n are “terms”
- Terms can be...
 - integer constants (1, -13, etc.)
 - atoms (non-numerical constants)
 - consist of lower-case letters or surrounded by single-quotes
 - Examples: x, abc, 'Foo'
 - variables (start with Capital letters)
 - Examples: X, Foo
 - structures (tree-like data structures)
 - Examples: foo(3,12), foo(foo(13),foo(16,12))
 - syntax like predicates but not the same as predicates!
 - no type system, so be careful!

Example: Family Tree



Prolog Representation of Family Tree

```
father(tony,abe).  
father(tony,sarah).  
father(abe,john).  
father(bill,susan).  
father(john,jill).  
father(rob,phil).  
mother(lisa,abe).  
mother(lisa,sarah).  
mother(nancy,john).  
mother(sarah,susan).  
mother(mary,jill).  
mother(susan,phil).
```

Reasoning about Family Trees

- Parent
 - `parent(X,Y) :-`

Reasoning about Family Trees

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 - `parent(X,Y) :- father(X,Y).`
 - `parent(X,Y) :- mother(X,Y).`
- Grandparent
 - `gp(X,Y) :-`

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Query Examples

?- father(abe, john).
true.

?- father(tony, X).

X = abe ;

<user presses semicolon>

X = sarah.

?- parent(X, susan).

X = bill ;

<user presses semicolon>

X = sarah ;

<user presses semicolon>

false.

?-

Queries

- typed at Prolog prompt (not in external files)
- consist of a predicate possibly containing variables
 - if no variables, result is either “true” or “false”
 - otherwise, result is an instantiation of variables or “false”
- no solutions, one solution, or many solutions
 - no solution: “false”
 - after printing one solution, Prolog waits for user input
 - type RETURN to stop search; Prolog says “true”
 - type SEMICOLON to find more solutions; Prolog either finds another and waits for more input or says “false”
- convergence not guaranteed!
 - queries can diverge (i.e., loop infinitely)
 - type control-C to interrupt, then “a” to abort

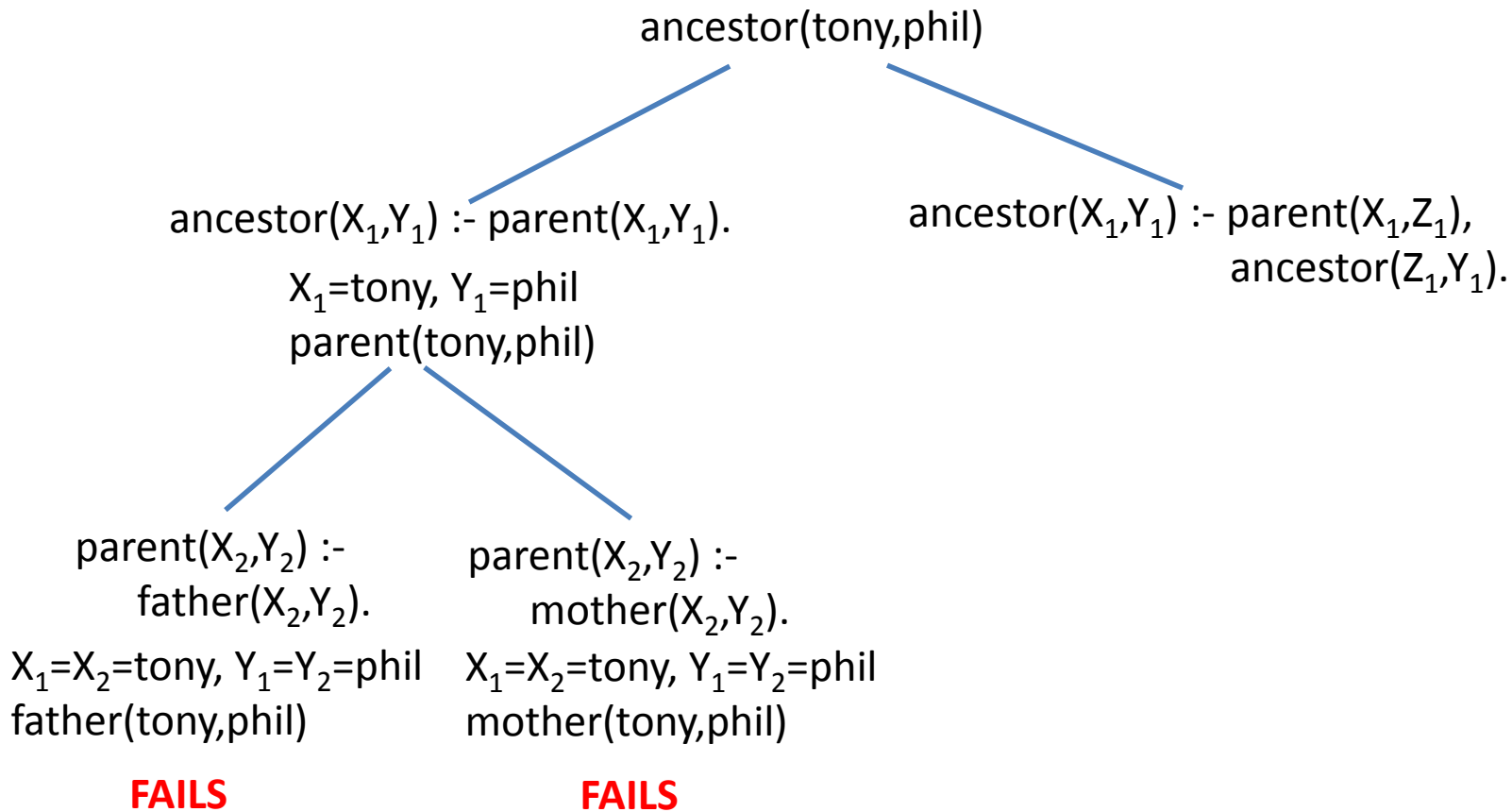
Search Procedure

- How does Prolog search for query solutions?
- Three internal data structures
 - search tree in which each node has...
 - a list of goals (predicates)
 - a set of variable bindings (instantiations)
- Two important concepts
 - unification – find instantiation of vars to make equal terms (if such instantiation exists)
 - back-tracking – revisiting past decisions after a failed goal is reached

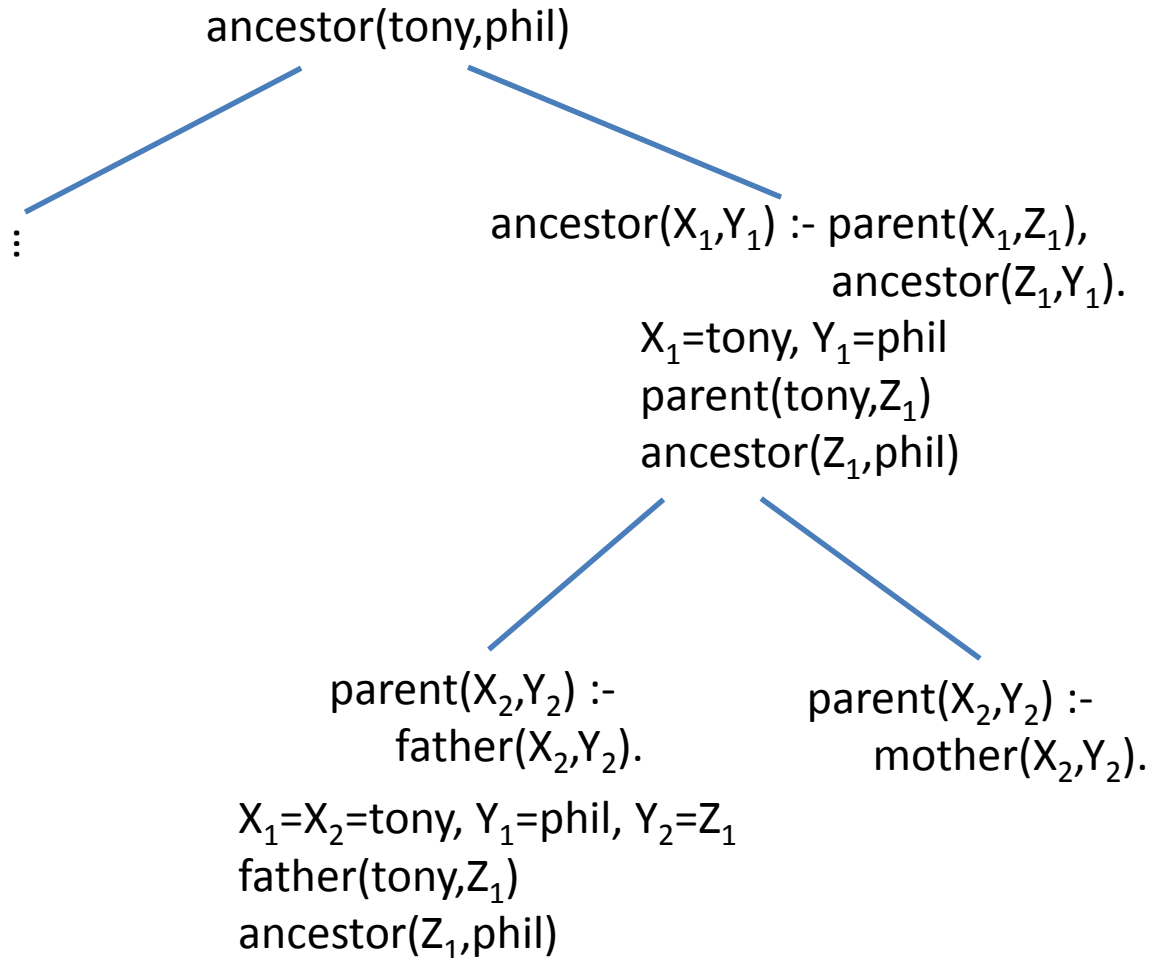
Search Procedure

- Initially
 - search tree has just a root
 - goal list consists only of the query
 - set of variable bindings is empty
- **Step 1:** Scan file from **top to bottom** for a fact or rule whose lhs potentially matches the current goal
 - for each such fact/rule, add a child node to the search tree
 - descend to the leftmost child
- **Step 2:** Unify the top goal with this rule's lhs, yielding more variable bindings
- **Step 3:** Add rhs predicates to goal list, **left to right**
- Return to Step 1
- Steps 1 or 2 may fail
 - no matching rule or failed unification
 - if so, backtrack to parent node and try next child
 - if root node fails, stop and return “false”

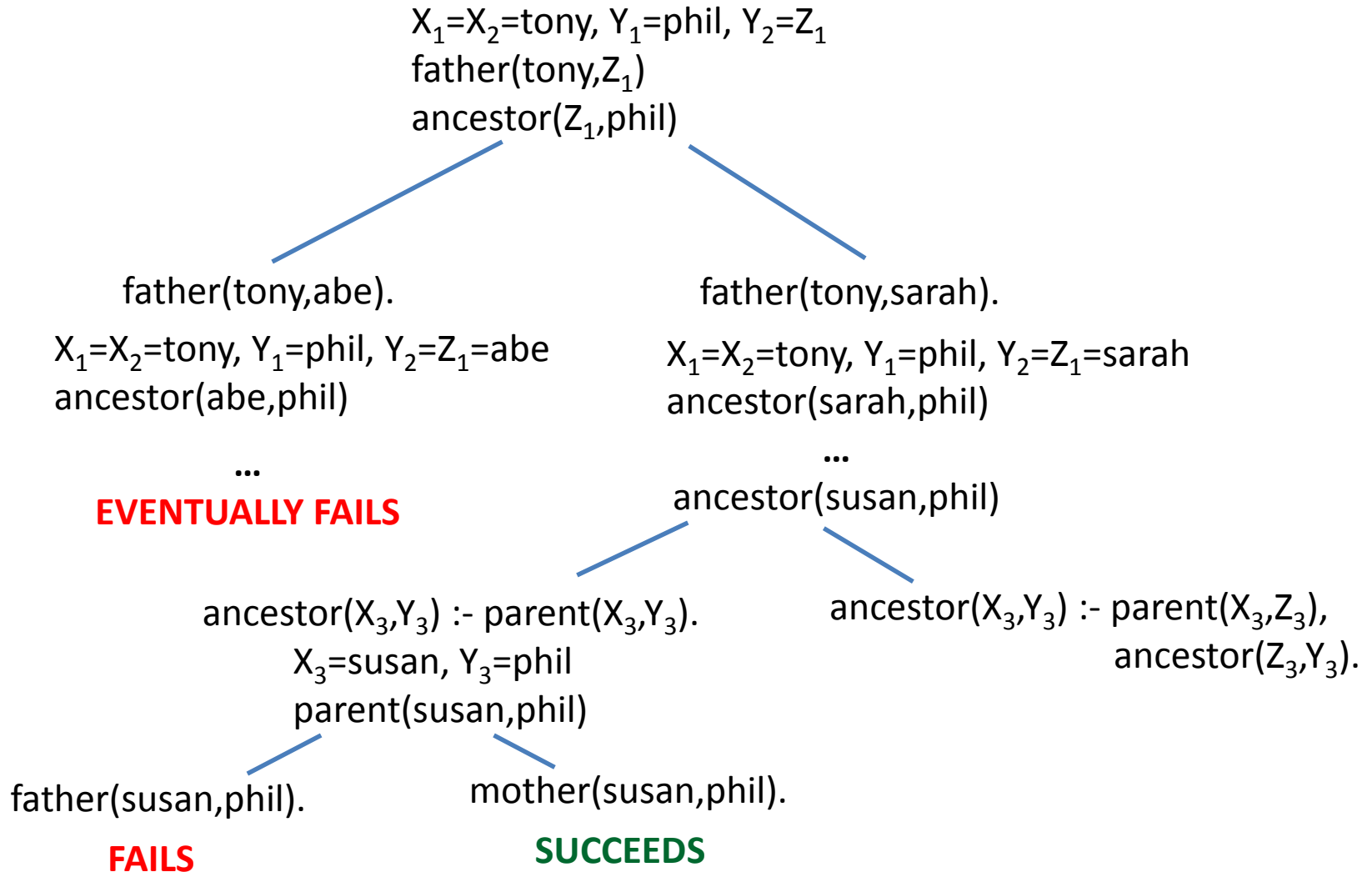
Search Example



Search Example



Search Example



Important Points

- Order matters!
 - order of facts/rules in file
 - order of predicates on rhs of rules
 - order ONLY AFFECTS TERMINATION
 - does not affect outcomes
- Tips for good ordering
 - put facts before rules (base case before recursive case)
 - put “easy” predicates before harder ones

Effects of Reordering

- Our definition of ancestor:
 - `ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y).`
 - `ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Z), ancestor(Z,Y).`
- What would happen if we reversed the lines?
 - `ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Z), ancestor(Z,Y).`
 - `ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y).`
- What about if we reversed the conjuncts in the rule?
 - `ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y).`
 - `ancestor(X,Y) :- ancestor(Z,Y), parent(X,Z).`
- What about both changes together?
 - `ancestor(X,Y) :- ancestor(Z,Y), parent(X,Z).`
 - `ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y).`

Equality Predicates

- “=” means “unifiable”
 - attempts a unification
 - Example #1: $f(X,a)=f(b,Y)$. (succeeds with $X=b, Y=a$)
 - Example #2: $X=a, X=b$. (fails)
 - Example #3: $X=a, a=X$. (succeeds with $X=a$)
- “==” means “physically equal”
 - tests existing bindings (no new unification!)
 - Example #1: $a==b$ (false)
 - Example #2: $X==Z$ (false)
 - Example #3: $X=Z, X==Z$ (true)
 - Example #4: $X==a$ (false)
 - Example #5: $X=a, X==a$ (true)
- “\==” is negation of “==”
 - Example: Siblings
 - $\text{sibling}(X,Y) :- \text{parent}(Z,X), \text{parent}(Z,Y), X \neq Y.$

Inequalities

- Numerical inequalities
 - $X < Y$, $X > Y$, $X \leq Y$, $X \geq Y$
 - these succeed ONLY when both X and Y are already bound to integers
 - no unification occurs
 - no arithmetic expressions allowed!
 - example: $X+3 < X+4$ (syntax error!)
- Non-numerical comparisons
 - $X @< Y$, $X @> Y$, $X @\leq Y$, $X @\geq Y$
 - compare arbitrary atoms according to a “standard” ordering
 - Example: `bar @< foo` (succeeds)
 - X and Y must be bound

Arithmetic

- “is” keyword
 - Syntax: X is $3+5$
 - single variable on left
 - arithmetic expression on right
 - no non-unified variables on right!
- Examples:
 - $X=5$, X is $4+2$ (false)
 - X is $Y+3$ (abort with error)
 - $X=5$, Y is $X+3$ (succeeds with $Y=8$)
- Equality does NOT solve arithmetic
 - $X=3+5$ (binds X to the literal STRUCTURE “ $3+5$ ”)
- The “is” keyword is NOT an assignment operation
 - X is $X+1$ (ALWAYS FAILS!)
 - $X=X+1$ (ALWAYS FAILS!)

Lists

- Syntax
 - [] is the empty list
 - [H|T] is a list with head H and tail T
 - recall: list tail is a list of all elements except the head
 - tail can be empty!
 - [X,Y|Z] is a list with first two elements X and Y and remaining elements Z
- Example: Summing a list
 - `sum(L,S)` should succeed if S is the sum of the elements in list L

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 - `[X,Y|Z]` is a list with first two elements `X` and `Y` and remaining elements `Z`
- Example: Summing a list
 - `sum([],0).`
 - `sum([H|T],S) :- sum(T,S1), S is H+S1.`

More List Examples

- Appending to a list
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 - `append([H1|T1],L2,[H1|T3]) :- append(T1,L2,T3)`.
- List member selection
 - `pick(X,L1,L2)` succeeds when X is a member of list L1 and L2 is list L1 without X

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 - `pick(X,L1,L2)` succeeds when X is a member of list L1 and L2 is list L1 without X
 - `pick(X,[X|T],T)`.
 - `pick(X,[Y|T1],[Y|T2]) :- X \== Y, pick(X,T1,T2)`.

Logical Arithmetic

- Encode natural numbers as structures:
 - zero is 0
 - one is $s(0)$
 - two is $s(s(0))$
 - $\text{num}(0)$.
 - $\text{num}(s(N)) \text{ :- } \text{num}(N)$.
- Compute the sum of two logically encoded natural numbers

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- Compute the sum of two logically encoded natural numbers
 - $\text{lplus}(0,Y,Y)$.
 - $\text{lplus}(s(X),Y,s(Z)) \text{ :- lplus}(X,Y,Z)$.

Logical Arithmetic

- Logical subtraction

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 - $\text{lminus}(X,Y,Z) \text{ :- lplus}(Y,Z,X)$.
- Logical multiplication

Logical Arithmetic

- Logical subtraction
 - $\text{lminus}(X,Y,Z) \text{ :- lplus}(Y,Z,X)$.
- Logical multiplication
 - $\text{ltimes}(0,Y,0)$.
 - $\text{ltimes}(s(X),Y,Z) \text{ :- ltimes}(X,Y,XY), \text{lplus}(XY,Y,Z)$.

Negation

- $\setminus + P$
 - succeeds when predicate P terminates with failure
 - NOT the same as logical negation!
 - think of it more like “ P is disprovable”
 - loops when P loops
 - exacerbates order-sensitivity issues
 - avoid spurious uses

Misc. Operators

- semicolon is “or”
 - `parent(X,Y) :- (father(X,Y); mother(X,Y)), X \== Y`
 - never needed but can make rules shorter
- Underscore is a wildcard
 - `len([],0).`
 - `len([_ | T],X) :- len(T,Y), X is Y+1.`
 - If you write “[H|T]” instead of “[_ |T]”, you’ll get a warning because H is defined but never used.
 - Warnings are to help you identify typos (e.g., mistyped variable names).
- Other operators available as well
 - see online Prolog documentation (linked from website)
 - not needed for this class, but you can use them if you wish