Logic Programming and Prolog [part 1]

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In part based on slides from Gerardo Schneider, which where in turn based on John C. Mitchell's

Prolog

Declarative programming language

Program: relations represented as facts and rules.

```
cat(tom).
animal(X) :- cat(X).
```

Computation: a query over these relations.

```
?- animal(tom).
yes
```

Leads to a form of interactive programming

Example

Facts and rules in a *database file*, often with .pl extension example001.pl

```
cat(tom).
animal(X) :- cat(X).
```

On the prolog prompt: import databases then make queries

```
?- [example001].
...
?- animal(tom).
yes
```

History

1930s, Gödel, Herbrand: Computation as deduction

- Computation: Computing f(x) and obtaining c
- Deduction: Proving that the equation f(x)=c holds

1965, Robinson: Resolution and unification

• (un)satisfiability of predicate and first-order logic

1970s, Kowalski: Logic programs with a restricted form of resolution

Applications of logic programming

- Theorem proving
- Expert systems (eg. IBM's Watson)
- Term rewriting
- Type systems
- Automated planning
 - For example: strategies for autonomous robots
- Natural language processing

Basics

Clauses

• facts, rules

Data types

• atoms, numbers, variables, compound terms

Impure predicates

- predicates with side effects
- for example: printing a value to the screen

Clauses

Facts: clauses with empty bodies

cat(tom).

cat(tom) :- true.

Rules: head is true if body is true

Head :- Body.

animal(X) := cat(X).

A rule's body consists of calls to predicates, which are called the rule's goals.

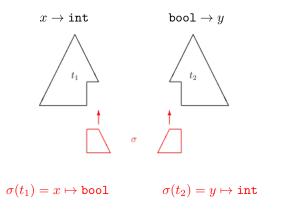
Queries

Variables: start with Upper case letter or _

```
?- cat(X).
X = tom
yes
```

Unification [ML lecture 3]

We have seen unification in the context of type inference.



Unification, Prolog

Unification for solving queries

• instantiate a query's variables to match facts/rules

Example

fact: child(anne,sofia)
query: child(X,sofia)

unification: X := anne.

Note: Syntactic equality. Meaning, 1+2 and 3 do not unify

Composite queries

```
Comma is the logical and
siblings(X,Y) :- child(X,Z), child(Y,Z), X \== Y.

Semicolon is the logical or
eitherMember(X,Y,L) :- member(X,L); member(Y,L).

eitherMember(a,b,[a,b,c,d]).
eitherMember(a,b,[b,c,d]).
eitherMember(a,b,[a,c,d]).
eitherMember(a,b,[a,c,d]).
```

Relations vs. Functions

In the previous example, we used a relation to represent "X is a child of Y":

as opposed to a function from parent to child:

$$child(Y) = X$$

Note: There are no functions in Prolog! Only relations.

A function can be turned into a relation:

$$f(a) = b$$
 becomes $f'(a, b)$

Recursive rules

```
descendant(X,Y) := child(X,Y).
descendant(X,Y) := child(X,Z), descendant(Z,Y).
```

Note the order of rule definitions:

- Non-recursive rule first
- Recursive goal after

Example:

Lists

- Unification
- Membership
- Append
 - append to split a list

Unification on lists

Question. If/How do the following terms unify?

$$[a,b,c] ?= [a | T]$$

$$[a,b,c] ?= [b | T]$$

Unification on lists

Assume the following fact:

Compute:

List membership

```
member(X, [X|Rest]).
member(X, [H | Tail]) :- member(X, Tail).

member(2,[1,2,3]) ? -> member(2,[2,3]) ? -> yes
```

Appending two lists

```
?- append([1,2,3],[4,5,6],Xs).
Xs = [1,2,3,4,5,6]
yes
```

Can use append to split a list in all possible ways: