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Logic Programming II

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Based on slides by Gerardo Schneider, Arild Torjusen and Martin
Giese, UiO.

Outline

◆ Repetition

- Facts, rules, queries and unification

◆ Today

- Lists in Prolog
- Different views of a Prolog program
- Arithmetic in Prolog
- Cut and negation

Facts and rules

- ◆ Remember: A declarative program admits two interpretations
 - Declarative interpretation, **What** is being computed.
 - Procedural interpretation, **How** computation takes place
- ◆ A Prolog program consists of a sequence of *clauses*
- ◆ clauses are *facts* (H) or *rules* (H :- A₁, ..., A_k)
 - `person(anne, sofia, martin, 1960)`
 - `child(X,Y) :- person(X,Z,Y,U)`
- ◆ Declaratively, the rule H:- A₁, A₂ is read as:
"H is implied by the conjunction A₁, A₂"
- ◆ Procedurally, the rule H:- A₁, A₂ is interpreted as
"To answer the query H, answer the conjunctive query A₁, A₂"

Queries and unification

- ◆ We initiate a computation by posing a *query* ($|?- A_1, \dots, A_k$
| $?- \text{child}(\text{paul}, \text{Parent})$)
- ◆ For queries without variables we will get a yes/no answer.
- ◆ For queries with variables the result is the substitutions for (assignment of) the variables which will make the query true.
- ◆ The process of matching a query with facts and rules is called *unification*. The result of the unification is a *substitution*.

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Lists in Prolog

- `[]` : the empty list
- `[a,b,c]` : a list with three elements
- `[a|[b,c]]` : another way of writing `[a,b,c]`
- `[a,b|[c]]` : the same
- `[X | Y]` represents a list with first element X and tail Y
- the member predicate:
 - `member(X, [X|Rest]).`
 - `member(X, [H | Tail]) :- member(X, Tail).`
- the append predicate:
 - `append([], Ys, Ys).`
 - `append([X | Xs], Ys, [X | Zs]) :- append(Xs, Ys, Zs).`

append

```
append([], Ys, Ys).                               /* 1 */
append([X | Xs], Ys, [X | Zs]) :- append(Xs, Ys, Zs). /* 2 */
```

| - ? append([a,b],[c,d],Res)

```
append([X | Xs], Ys, [X | Zs]) :- append(Xs, Ys, Zs).
                                   {X=a, Xs=[b], Ys=[c,d], Res=[a|Zs]}
```

append([b], [c,d], Zs)

```
append([X1 | Xs1], Ys1, [X1 | Zs1]) :- append(Xs1, Ys1, Zs1).
                                   {X1=b, Xs1=[], Ys1=[c,d], Zs=[b|Zs1]}
```

append([], [c,d], Zs1)

```
append([], Ys2, Ys2)
                                   {Ys2=[c,d], Zs1=Ys2=[c,d]}
```

```
Res = [a|Zs]
     = [a|[b|Zs1]]
     = [a|[b|[c,d]]] = [a,b,c,d] .
```

Different views of a Prolog program

◆ **For testing:**
| ?- member(wed, [mon, wed, fri]). *yes*

| ?- append([a,b],[c,d],[a,b,c,d]) . *yes*

◆ **For computing:**
| ?- member(X, [mon, wed, fri]).
X = mon ? ; X = wed ?; X = fri ?; no

| ?- append([a,b],[c,d],Zs) .
Zs = [a,b,c,d] ? ;

| ?- append(Xs, Ys, [a,b,c,d]).
Xs = [], Ys = [a,b,c,d] ? ;
Xs = [a], Ys = [b,c,d] ? ;
Xs = [a,b], Ys = [c,d] ? ;

...

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Arithmetic in Prolog

- ◆ Prolog programs presented so far were *declarative*: they admitted a dual reading as a formula
 - Operations of arithmetic are functional, not relational
- ◆ Arithmetic compromises Prolog's declarativeness
 - Solved in constraint logic programming languages

Arithmetic operators

- ◆ Built-in data structures:
 - Integers: 1,2,3,... (+, -, *, //)
 - Floating points: 2.3, 3.4456, 5.4e-13,... (+, -, *, /)
- ◆ Infix vs prefix notation*
 - 45+35
 - '+'(45,35)
- ◆ It is possible to have user-defined operators with specified priority, associativity, etc

*We will see later how to evaluate expressions

Arithmetic comparison relations

- ◆ Prolog allows comparison of **ground arithmetic expressions** (*gae*, i.e. expressions without variables). *gaes* have *values*
- ◆ Built-in comparison relations: $<$, $=<$, $:=$ ("equal"), \neq ("different"), $>=$ and $>$
- ◆ Queries
 - $| ?- 6*3 := 9*2.$
yes
 - $| ?- 8 > 5+3.$
no
 - $| ?- 34 >= X+4.$
uncaught exception: `error(instantiation_error,(>=)/2`
- ◆ Note difference between
 - $=$ (unifiability relation) $1+1=2$ gives no, $X = 1$ gives $X = 1$
 - $==$ (syntactic equality) $1+1 == 2$ gives no, $X == x$ gives no
 - \neq (syntactic inequality) $1+1 \neq 2$ gives yes.
 - $:=$ (value equality) $1+1 := 2$ gives yes
 - \neq (value inequality) $1+1 \neq 2$ gives no

Example: ordered lists

ordered([]).

ordered([X]).

ordered([X,Y|Ys]) :- X =< Y, ordered([Y|Ys]).

◆ Queries

- | ?- ordered([3,4,67,8]).

no

- | ?- ordered([3,4,67, 88]).

yes

- | ? - ordered([3,4,X,88]).

{INSTANTIATION ERROR: 4=<_30 - arg 2}

Evaluation of arithmetic expressions

- ◆ We need to introduce a way to evaluate expressions

- | ?- $X ::= 3+4$. yields an error

- | ?- $X = 3+4$.

$X = 3+4$

- ◆ Evaluation is done using "is"

- | ?- $X \text{ is } 3+4$.

$X = 7$

- "is" is a builtin predicate which has been defined as an operator for simpler syntax, we could also write:

| ?- $\text{is}(X, 3+4)$.

$X = 7$

Example: Factorial

factorial(0,1).

factorial(N,F) :-N>0, N1 is N-1,
factorial(N1,F1),
F is N*F1.

◆ Queries

- | ?- factorial(5,X).

X = 120

Yes

The following query gives an error however:

- | ?- factorial(X,120). "X>0" is not allowed!
uncaught exception: error(instantiation_error,(>)/2)

Example: Length of lists

- ◆ An intuitive definition **but wrong**

`length([],0).`

`length([_ | Ts], N+1) :- length(Ts,N).`

- ◆ Query

- `| ?- length([3,5,56,7],X).`

`X = 0+1+1+1+1`

Yes

- ◆ What's the problem?

Expressions are not automatically evaluated in Prolog!

Example: Length of lists

◆ A good definition

`length([],0).`

`length([_ | Ts], N) :- length(Ts,M), N is M+1.`

◆ Queries

- `| ?- length([3,5,56,7],X).`

`X = 4`

`Yes`

- `| ?- length(X,5).`

`X = [_,_,_,_,_]`

`yes`

length(X,5)

length([],0).

length([_ | Ts], N) :- length(Ts,M), N is M+1.

:- length(X,5)

:- length(Ts,M), 5 is M+1

1. :- 5 is 0+1 Ts/[], M/0 FAIL

2. :- length(Ts1,M1), M is M1+1, 5 is M+1 Ts/[_ ,Ts1]

2.1 :- M is 0+1, 5 is M+1 Ts1/[], M1/0, Ts/[_ ,Ts1]

2.1 :- 5 is 1+1 Ts1/[], M1/0, Ts/[_ ,Ts1], M/1 FAIL

2.2 :- length(Ts2,M2), M1 is M2+1, M is M1+1, 5 is M+1

 Ts1/[], M1/0, Ts/[_ ,Ts1], Ts1/[_ ,Ts2]

...

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cut

- ◆ *cut* is a built in system predicate which affects the procedural behaviour of a program
- ◆ its main function is to reduce the search space of Prolog computations by dynamically pruning the search tree.
- ◆ Ex:
 $p(\mathbf{s1}) :- A1$
 ...
 $p(\mathbf{si}) :- B, !, C$
 ...
 $p(\mathbf{sk}) :- Ak$
- ◆ When *cut* is encountered,
 - all alternative ways of computing B are discarded.
 - all computations of $p(\mathbf{t})$ are discarded as backtrackable alternatives.
- ◆ *cut* gives more control to the programmer, but compromises the declarative reading of the Prolog programs and makes it difficult to see what will happen in the computation.

rsiblings example

- ◆ Recall the rsiblings rule.

```
rsiblings(X,Y) :- child(X,Parent1),  
                  child(Y,Parent1),  
                  X \== Y,  
                  child(X,Parent2),  
                  child(Y,Parent2),  
                  Parent1 \== Parent2.
```

- ◆ | ?- rsiblings(anne,X).
- ◆ X = paul ? ;
- ◆ X = paul ? ;
- ◆ no

rsiblings with cut

◆ With cut

```
rsiblings(X,Y) :- child(X,Parent1),  
                  !,  
                  child(Y,Parent1),  
                  X \== Y,  
                  child(X,Parent2),  
                  child(Y,Parent2),  
                  Parent1 \== Parent2.
```

| ?- rsiblings(anne,X).

X = paul ? ;

no

| ?- rsiblings(X,anne).

no

rsiblings with cut, next try...

```
◆ rsiblings(X,Y) :- child(X,Parent1),  
                    child(Y,Parent1),  
                    X \== Y,  
                    !,  
                    child(X,Parent2),  
                    child(Y,Parent2),  
                    Parent1 \== Parent2.
```

```
| ?- rsiblings(anne,X).
```

```
X = paul
```

```
yes
```

```
| ?- rsiblings(X,anne).
```

```
X = paul
```

```
yes
```

But what if anne has more than one sibling? 23

Cut destroys declarativity

Cut makes it possible to control program execution
-> Added efficiency.

On the other hand:

- Programs become hard to understand.
- Need to document in which ways predicates can be called.
- Compromises the original intension of the language.

Negation as failure

- ◆ Negation can be defined by cut.
`not(X) :- X, !, fail .`
`not(_)` .
- ◆ The built-in negation operator is `\+`
`| ?- \+ person(haakon,sonja,harald,1973) .`
`yes`
- ◆ The query `\+ A` succeeds if and only if the query `A` fails.
- ◆ Corresponds to our “normal” notion of negation if the negated query always terminates and is ground.
Consider negation of non-ground term `X=1`:
`\+ (X=1)`
`no`

IO in Prolog

- Various predicates for input/output.
 - `print(f(a))` prints out a term.
 - `display('Hello World')` prints a string.

```
print_list([]) :- print(nothing).
```

```
print_list([X]):- write('only '), print(X).
```

```
print_list([X|Ys]) :- print(X), print_list_help(Ys).
```

```
print_list_help([]).
```

```
print_list_help([X|Xs]) :- write(' and '),print(X),  
    print_list_help(Xs).
```

Problem with IO

- ◆ The problem: does not work with backtracking:

`io_problem :- print(one), fail.`

`io_problem :- print(two).`

- ◆ Will print **onetwo**

`io_problem :- fail, print(one).`

`io_problem :- print(two).`

- ◆ Will print **two**

- ◆ even though conjunction should be commutative.

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Problems with Prolog

- No types
- No (standardized) module system
- Non-declarative arithmetic
- Need to use cut
- Cut makes automated optimization hard
- IO disagrees with backtracking

More Logic PLs

- Mercury
- Higher-order logic programming, Lambda-Prolog
 - Like Prolog, but lambda terms instead of first order
 - Higher-order unification
 - *Not* a functional language!
- Curry: <http://www-ps.informatik.uni-kiel.de/currywiki/start>
- Constraint Logic Programming languages
 - Prolog just gathers instantiations for variables.
 - Instead, gather **constraints** that need to be satisfied.

E.g. $X > 3$, $X < 6$, $X \neq 5$

System infers instantiation $X=4$