



Logic programming



Imperative programming

Prolog

- Prolog: 'Programmation en Logique'
- 1974 - R.A. Kowalski: 'Predicate logic as a programming language', Proc IFIP 1974, pp. 569-574:
 - First-order predicate logic for the specification of data and relationships
 - Computation = logical deduction
- 1972 - A. Colmerauer, P. Roussel: first Prolog-like interpreter

Logic Programming (LP)

- R.A. Kowalski (Imperial College):

Algorithm = Logic + Control

- Imperative languages (C++, Java):
 - data (**what**)
 - operations on data (**how**)
 - no separation between 'what' and 'how'

LP: Logic + Control

what

Logical
Formulas

$$\forall x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$$

how

Logical
Deduction

$$\frac{\neg \psi, \phi \rightarrow \psi}{\neg \phi}$$



What: Problem Description

- *Horn clause: $A \leftarrow B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n$*
- Equivalent to: $A \vee \neg B_1 \vee \neg B_2 \vee \dots \vee \neg B_n$
- Meaning: A is true if
 - B_1 is true, and
 - B_2 is true, ..., and
 - B_n is true



What: Problem Description

$$A \leftarrow B_1, \dots, B_n$$

- specification of **facts** concerning *objects* and *relations* between objects
- specification of **rules** concerning *objects* and *relations* between objects
- specification of **queries** concerning *objects* and *relations*



Problem Description

- Facts: $A \leftarrow$
- Rules: $A \leftarrow B_1, \dots, B_n$
- Queries: $\leftarrow B_1, \dots, B_n$

Meet the Royal Family



Example: Family Relations

■ Facts: $\text{mother}(\text{juliana}, \text{beatrix}) \leftarrow$



constant

■ Rules:

$\text{parent}(X, Y) \leftarrow \text{mother}(X, Y)$

$\text{parent}(X, Y) \leftarrow \text{father}(X, Y)$



variable

■ Query: $\leftarrow \text{parent}(\text{juliana}, \text{beatrix})$

Logic Program

mother(juliana, beatrix) ←
mother(beatrix, alexander) ←
father(claus, alexander) ←

parent(X, Y) ← mother(X, Y)
parent(X, Y) ← father(X, Y)

- Queries:

← parent(claus, alexander)
← parent(beatrix, juliana)

Prolog

- Prolog: practical realisation of LP
- Prolog clause:

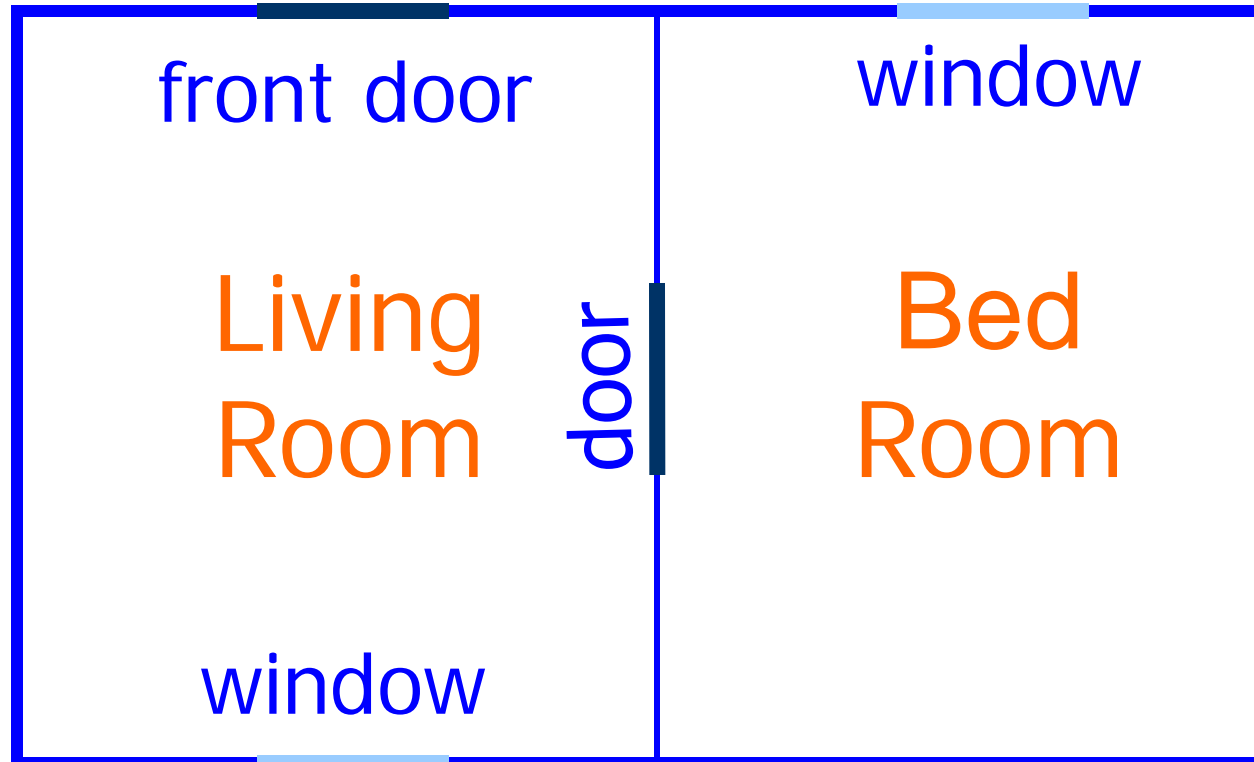
$A :- \underbrace{B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n}_{\text{body}}$

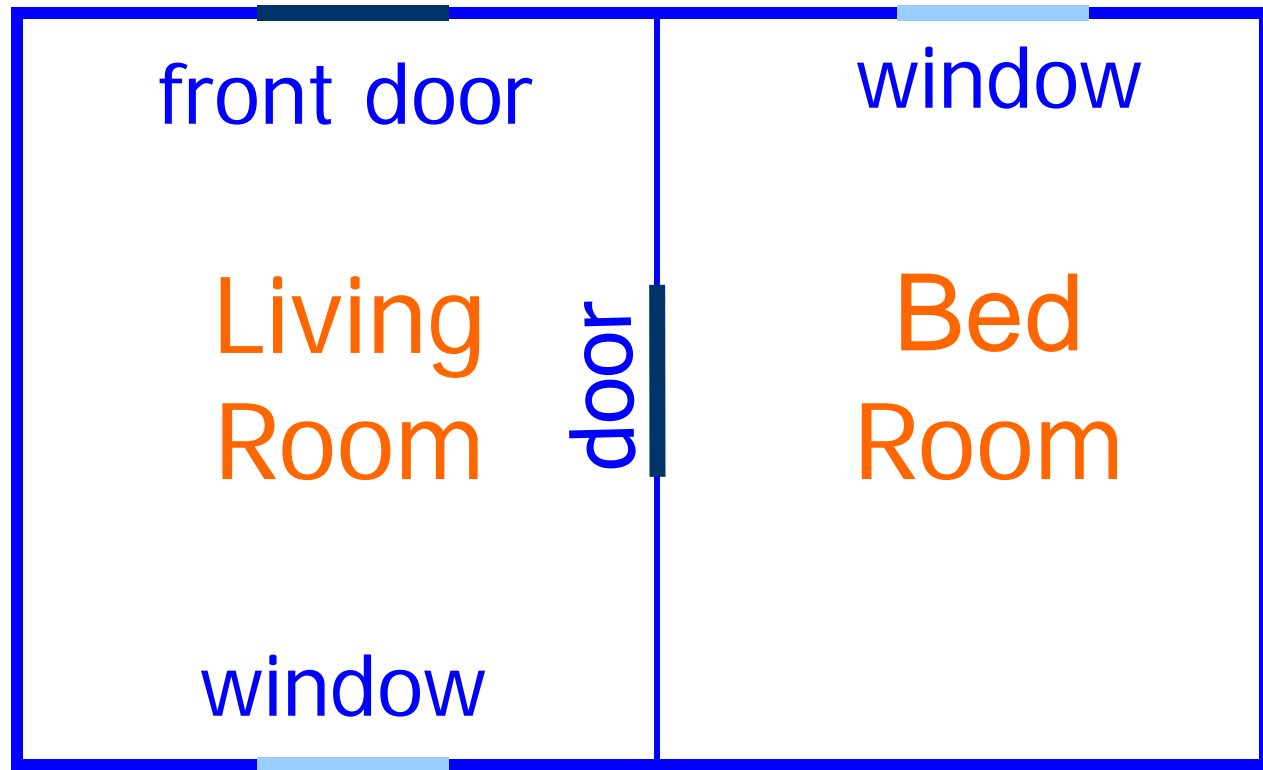
head

- Example:
mother(juliana, beatrix).
parent(X, Y) :-
 mother(X, Y).
:- parent(juliana, beatrix).

Why is Prolog so Handy?

Hotel suite design:





1. Living-room window opposite the front door
2. Bed-room door at right angle with front door
3. Bed-room window adjacent to wall with bed-room door
4. Bed-room window should face East

C-like

```
type dir = (north, south, east, west);  
livrm(fd, lw, bd : dir) : boolean;  
{  
    livrm = opposite(fd, lw) and adjacent(fd, bd)  
}  
bedrm(bd, bw : dir) : boolean;  
{  
    bedrm = adjacent(bd, bw) and (bw = east)  
}  
suite(fd, lw, bd, bw : dir) : boolean;  
{  
    suite = livrm(fd, lw, bd) and bedrm(bd, bw)  
}
```


Continued

```
for fd = north to west do
  for lw = north to west do
    for bd = north to west do
      for bw = north to west do
        if suite(fd, lw, bd, bw) then
          print(fd, lw, bd, bw)
```

In Prolog

livrm(Fd, Bd, Lw) :-

opposite(Fd, Lw), **adjacent**(Fd, Bd).

bedrm(Bd, Bw) :-

adjacent(Bd, Bw), Bw = east.

suite(Fd, Lw, Bd, Be) :-

 livrm(Fd, Lw, Bd), bedrm(Bd, Bw).

:- suite(Fd, Lw, Bd, Bw).

Declarative Semantics

- Prolog clause: $A :- B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n.$
- *Meaning*: A is true if
 - B_1 is true, and
 - B_2 is true, ..., and
 - B_n is true

Procedural Semantics

- Prolog as a procedural language
- Prolog clause = **procedure**

A $:-$ $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n.$

procedure
head

procedure body

- Query = procedure **call**

$:- B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n.$

More General Programs

- Use often lists:

$[a, b, c, d] = [a \mid [b, c, d]]$

head tail

- Element is first element (fact):

$\text{member}(a, [a \mid [b, c, d]])$.

- In general:

$\text{member}(X, [X \mid _])$.

Set Membership

```
member(X, [X|_]).  
member(X, [_|Y]) :-  
    member(X, Y)
```

- Queries:

```
:- member(a, [b, a, c])
```

```
:- member(d, [b, a, c])
```


Example 1

```
/*1*/ member(X, [X|_]).      procedure entry
/*2*/ member(X, [_|Y]) :-   procedure entry
    member(X, Y).
/*3*/ :- member(a, [a, b, c]).      call
```

Step 1

```
:- member(a, [a, b, c]).
/*1*/ member(X, [X|_]).
```

*Instantiation: X = a match with /*1*/*

Example 2

```
/*1*/ member(X, [X|_]).      procedure entry  
/*2*/ member(X, [_|Y]) :-  procedure entry  
    member(X, Y).  
/*3*/ :- member(a, [b, a, c]).      call
```

Step 1

```
    :- member(a, [b, a, c]).  
/*1*/ member(X, [X|_]).
```

Instantiation: $X = a$ *no match* with /*1*/

Example 2 (continued)

```
/*1*/ member(X, [X|_]).      procedure entry  
/*2*/ member(X, [_|Y]) :- procedure entry  
    member(X, Y).  
/*3*/ :- member(a, [b,a,c]).      call
```

Step 2

```
    :- member(a, [b, a, c]).  
/*2*/ member(X, [_|Y]) :- member(X, Y).
```

Match: $X = a$; $Y = [a, c]$

Example 2 (continued)

`/*1*/ member(X, [X|_]).` procedure entry
`/*2*/ member(X, [_|Y]) :-` procedure entry
 `member(X, Y).`
`/*3*/ :- member(a, [b,a,c]).` call

Step 3

`:- member(a, [a, c]).` subcall
`/*1*/ member(X, [X|_]).`

Match: $X = a$

Matching

- A call and procedure head **match** if:
 - predicate symbols are equal
 - arguments in corresponding positions are equal

- Example:

```
:- member(a, [a, c]).  
/*1*/ member(a, [a|_]).
```

Variables & Atoms

mother(juliana, beatrix).

Calls:

`:- mother(X, Y).`

`X = juliana`

`Y = beatrix`

`:- mother(_, _).` /* anonymous variable */

yes

`:- mother(juliana, juliana).`

no

Left-right Selection Rule

q.

r.

s.

p :- q, r, s.

Call:

:- p.

:- q, r, s.

:- r, s.

:- s.



Top-bottom Selection Rule

```
p(a).  
p(b).  
p(c).  
p(X) :- q(X).  
q(d).  
q(e).
```

Call:

:- p(Y).



Y = a;



Y = b;



Y = c;



Y = d;

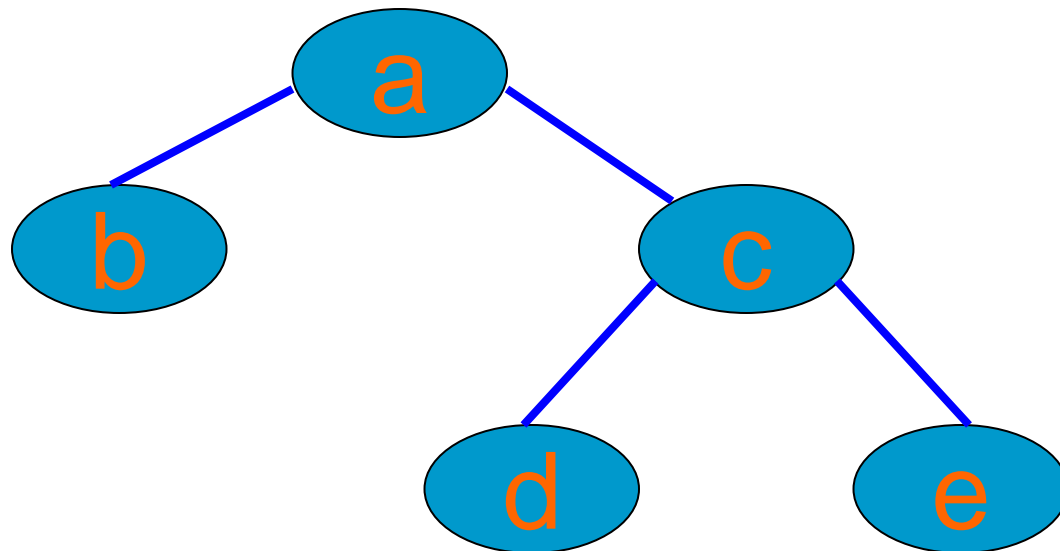
Y = e;

no

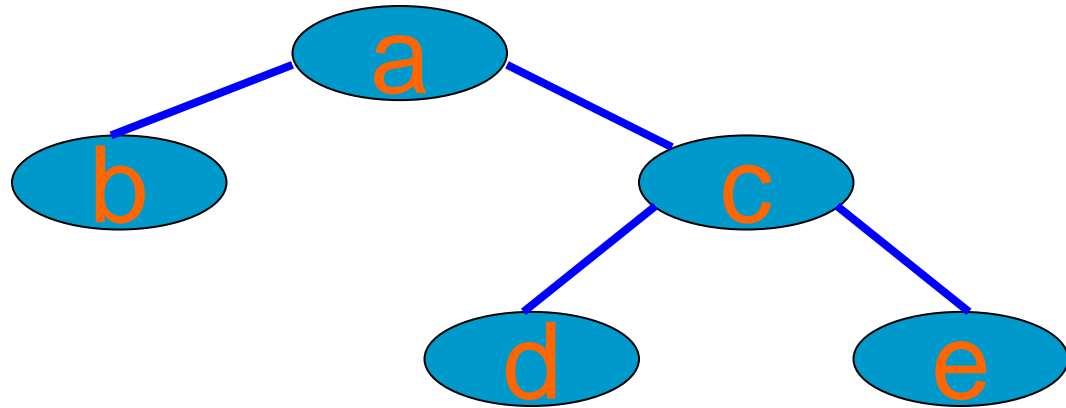
Backtracking

Backtracking: systematic search for alternatives

Example: search for paths in tree T



Backtracking



branch(a, b).

branch(a, c).

branch(c, d).

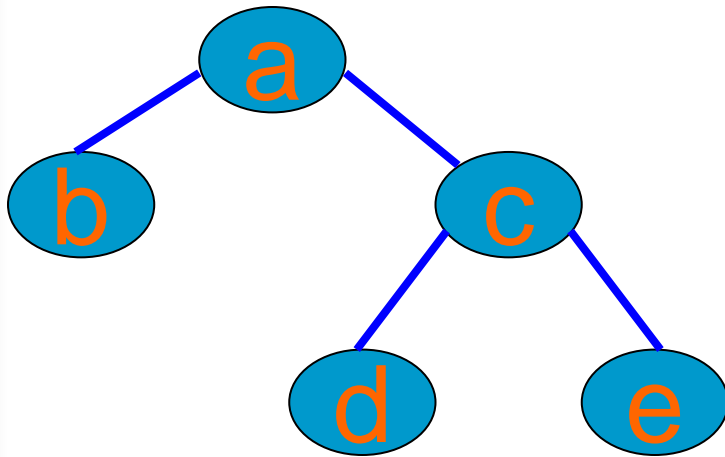
branch(c, e).

path(X, X).

path(X, Y) :-

branch(X,Z), path(Z,Y).

Backtracking



```
branch(a, b).  
branch(a, c).  
branch(c, d).  
branch(c, e).  
path(X, X).  
path(X, Y) :-  
    branch(X, Z), path(Z, Y).
```

```
:- path(a, d). /* query */  
path(a, d) :- branch(a, Z), path(Z, d).
```

1

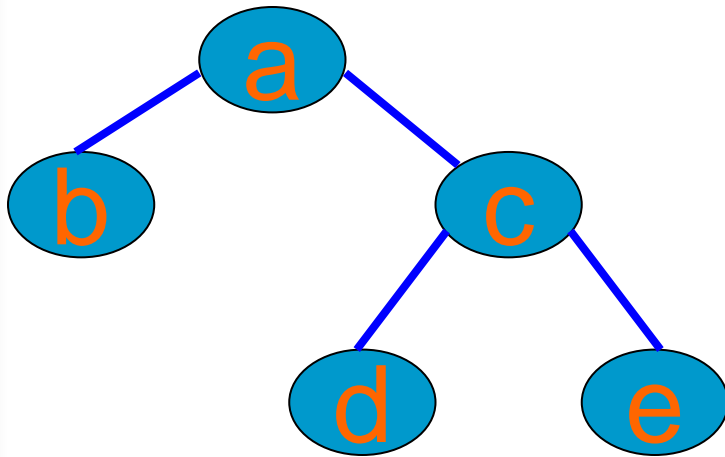


```
branch(a, Z)  
Z = b  
branch(a, b).
```



1

Backtracking



branch(a, b).
branch(a, c).
branch(c, d).
branch(c, e).
path(X, X).
path(X, Y) :-
 branch(X, Z), path(Z, Y).

`:- path(a, d). /* query */`

`path(a, d) :- branch(a, Z), path(Z, d).`

$Z = b$

`path(b, d)`

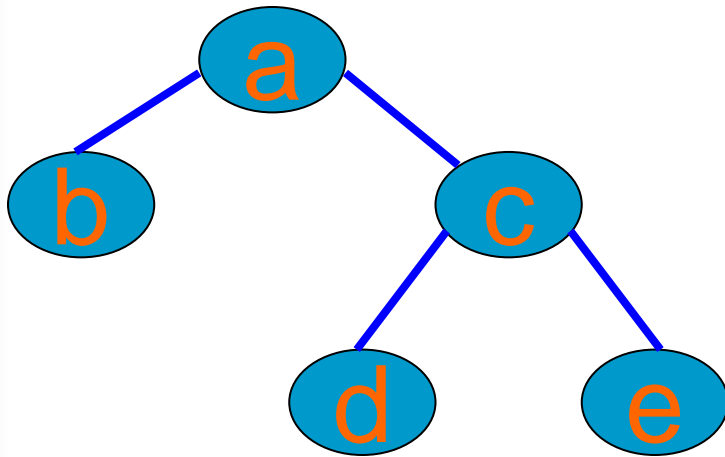
2

$X = b, Y = d$

`path(b, d) :- branch(b, Z'), path(Z', d).`

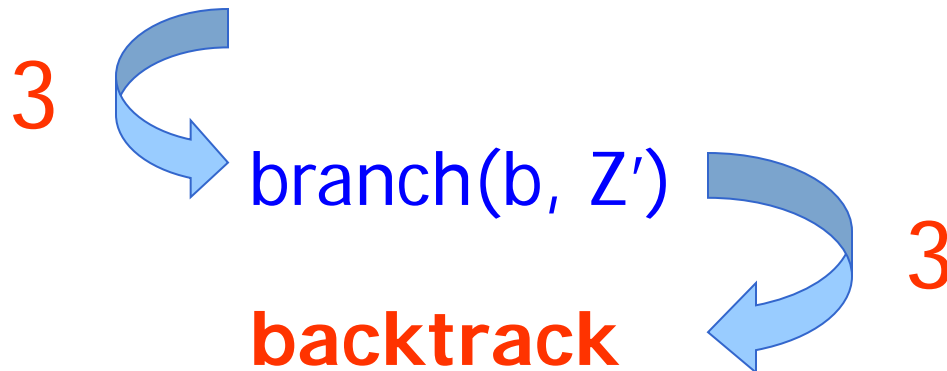
2

Backtracking

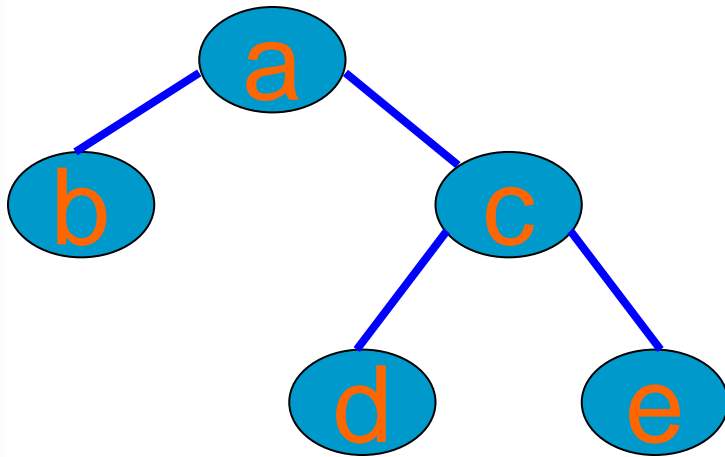


branch(a, b).
branch(a, c).
branch(c, d).
branch(c, e).
path(X, X).
path(X, Y) :-
 branch(X, Z), path(Z, Y).

path(b, d) :- branch(b, Z'), path(Z', d).





Backtrack Point

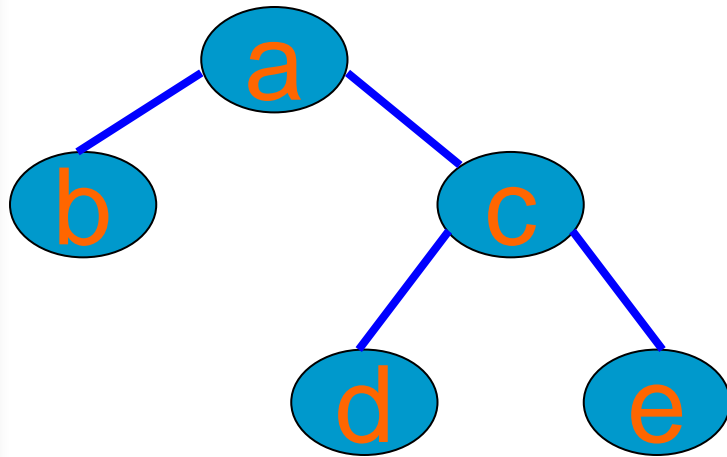


branch(a, b).
branch(a, c).
branch(c, d).
branch(c, e).
path(X, X).
path(X, Y) :-
 branch(X, Z), path(Z, Y).

`:- path(a, d). /* query */`
`path(a, d) :- branch(a, Z), path(Z, d).`

1'  branch(a, Z)
Z = c
branch(a, c).  1'

Backtracking



branch(a, b).
branch(a, c).
branch(c, d).
branch(c, e).
path(X, X).
path(X, Y) :-
 branch(X, Z), path(Z, Y).

`:- path(a, d). /* query */`

`path(a, d) :- branch(a, Z), path(Z, d).`

$Z = c$

`path(c, d)`

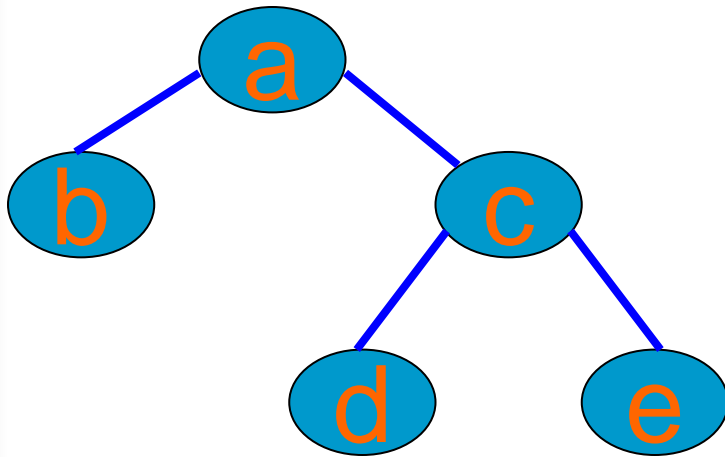
2'

$X = c, Y = d$

`path(c, d) :- branch(c, Z'), path(Z', d).`

2'

Backtracking



branch(a, b).

branch(a, c).

branch(c, d).


branch(c, e).

path(X, X).


path(X, Y) :-

branch(X, Z), path(Z, Y).

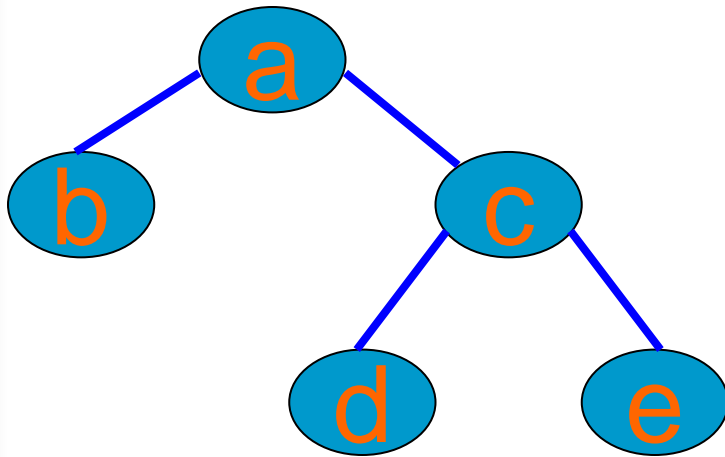
path(c, d) :- branch(c, Z'), path(Z', d).

3'  branch(c, Z')

Z' = d

branch(c, d)  3'

Backtracking



branch(a, b).

branch(a, c).

branch(c, d).

branch(c, e).

path(X, X).

path(X, Y) :-

branch(X, Z), path(Z, Y).

path(c, d) :- branch(c, Z'), path(Z', d).

Z' = d

path(d, d)

X = d

path(d, d)

4

4

Terminology

- From programming languages (Prolog as procedural language):

nat(0).

nat(s(X)) :- nat(X).

- term: nat(0), nat(s(X)), nat(X), :- (nat(s(X)), nat(X)), s(X), 0, X
- functor: s, nat, :-
- principal functor: nat in nat(s(X)), :- in :- (nat(s(X)), nat(X)), s in s(X)
- number: 0
- variable: X

Inversion of Computation (1)

- **Example:** concatenation of lists

$$\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{V} \circ \mathbf{W}$$

with U, V, W lists and \circ concatenation operator

- Usage:

- $[a, b] = [a] \circ \mathbf{W} \Rightarrow \mathbf{W} = [b]$

- $[a, b] = \mathbf{V} \circ [b] \Rightarrow \mathbf{V} = [a]$

- $\mathbf{U} = [a] \circ [b] \Rightarrow \mathbf{U} = [a, b]$

- $[a, b] = \mathbf{V} \circ \mathbf{W}?$

Inversion of Computation (2)

- Prolog concatenation of lists:

```
concat([], U, U).
```

```
concat([X|U], V, [X|W]) :-  
    concat(U, V, W).
```

- concat as constructor:

```
?- concat([a, b], [c, d], X).
```

```
X = [a, b, c, d]
```

- concat used for decomposition:

```
?- concat(X, Y, [a, b, c, d]).
```

```
X = []
```

```
Y = [a, b, c, d]
```


Inversion of Computation (3)

- concat used for decomposition:

?- concat(X, Y, [a, b, c, d]).

X = []

Y = [a, b, c, d];

X = [a]

Y = [b, c, d];

X = [a, b]

Y = [c, d];

...

Order of Clauses (1)

- LP: order is irrelevant
- Prolog: order may be relevant
- Example:

```
member(X,[_|Y]) :-  
    member(X,Y).  
member(X,[X|_]).  
:- member(a,[b,a,c]).
```

Order of Clauses (2)

```
/*1*/ member(X, [_|Y]) :-  
    member(X, Y).  
/*2*/ member(X, [X|_]).
```

?- member(a, [a,b]).

X = a, Y = [b] match with 1

?- member(a, [b]). next call

X' = a, Y' = [] match with 1

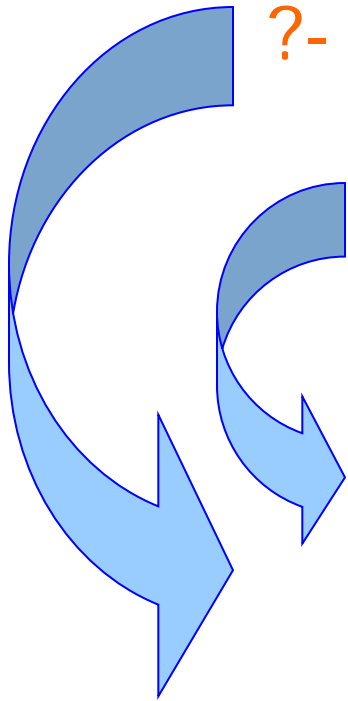
?- member(a, []). fail 1 and 2

fail 1 and 2

fail 1, backtracking to 2

X = a match 2

yes! (but not efficient)



Order of Clauses (3)

```
/*1*/ member(X, [_|Y]) :-  
    member(X, Y).  
/*2*/ member(X, [X|_]).
```

?- member(X, [a, b]).

$X' = X, Y = [b]$

match with 1
next call

?- member(X', [b]).

$X'' = X', Y' = []$

match with 1

?- member(X'', []).

fail 1 and 2

$X' = b$

fail 1, match 2

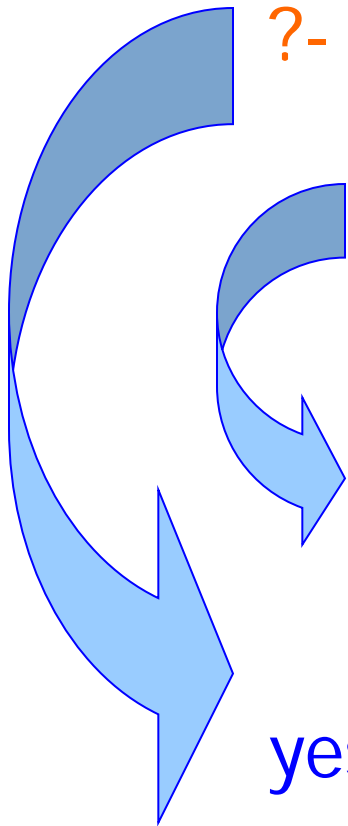
$X = b;$

backtracking

$X = a$

match 2

yes! (but not efficient)



Order of Clauses (4)

```
/*1*/ member(X, [_|Y]) :-  
    member(X, Y).  
/*2*/ member(X, [X|_]).
```

?- member(a, Z).

X = a, Z = [_|Y] match 1

?- member(a, Y). next call

X' = a, Y = [_|Y'] match 1

?- member(a, Y'). next call

⋮

Stack overflow 



Conclusions Order of Clauses

- LP: order clauses is irrelevant
- Prolog:
 - Order has effect on efficiency of program
 - Order may affect termination:
terminating program + order change
≠ terminating program

Order of Conditions (1)

- Length of list with successor function
 $s : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, with $s(x) = x + 1$

- Program:

```
/*1*/ length([], 0).
```

```
/*2*/ length([_|X], N) :-  
    length(X, M),  
    N = s(M).
```

- Use:

```
?- length([a, b], N).
```

```
N = s(s(0))
```

Order of Conditions (2)

- Program:

```
/*1*/ length([], 0).  
/*2*/ length([_|X], N) :-  
    length(X, M),  
    N = s(M).
```

- Use:

```
?- length(L, s(0)).  
L = [_A];
```

Stack overflow 

Order of Conditions (3)

```
/*1*/ length([], 0).
```

```
/*2*/ length([_|X], N) :-  
    length(X, M),  
    N = s(M).
```

■ Trace:

```
?- length(L, s(0)).
```

```
L = [_A|X], N = s(0)
```

match 2

```
?- length(X, M), s(0) = s(M).
```

subcall

```
X = [], M = 0
```

match 1

```
?- s(0) = s(0).
```

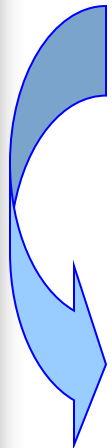
match

```
L = [_A];
```

backtracks

```
...
```

(1 fails)



Order of Conditions (4)

```
/*1*/ length([], 0).
```

```
/*2*/ length([_|X], N) :-  
    length(X, M),  
    N = s(M).
```

■ Trace:

```
?- length(L, s(0)).
```

```
L = [_A|X], N = s(0)           match 2
```

```
?- length(X, M), s(0) = s(M). subcall
```

```
X = [_B|X'], N = M           match 2
```

```
?- length(X', M'), M = s(M'), subcall
```

```
s(0) = s(M).
```

...


Order of Conditions (5)

- Program:

```
/*1*/ length([], 0).
```

```
/*2*/ length([_|X], N) :-
```

```
    N = s(M),  
    length(X, M).
```



- Use:

```
?- length(L, s(0)).
```

```
L = [_A];
```

```
no 
```



Declarative vs Procedural

- Order of clauses and conditions in clauses in Prolog programs may be changed, but
- This may be at the expense of:
 - loss of termination
 - compromised efficiency
- Schema for procedural programming:
 - special case first (top, left)
 - general case (e.g. including a recursive call) last (bottom, right)

Fail & Cut

- Notation: **fail** and **!**
- Control predicates: affect backtracking
- Used for:
 - efficiency reasons
 - implementing tricks

Enforcing Backtracking: fail

- ?- fail.

no

(no match)

- Program:

p(a).

p(b).

Query:

?- p(X).

(match)

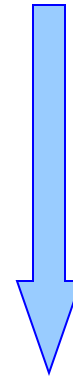
X = a

yes

Fail - no Recursion

- Program:

```
p(a).  
p(b).  
p(X) :- q(X).  
q(c).
```



- Query:

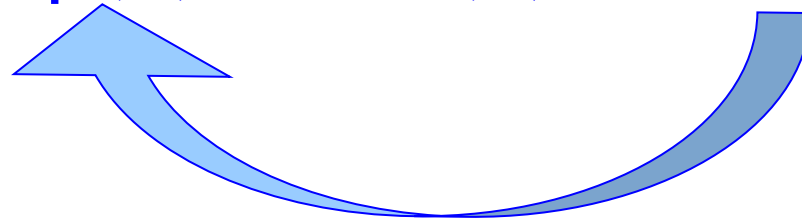
```
?- p(X), write(X), nl, fail.
```

a

b

c

no

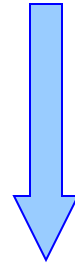


backtracking

Fail - with Recursion

- Program:

```
/*1*/ member(X, [X|_]).  
/*2*/ member(X, [_|Y]) :-  
    member(X,Y).
```



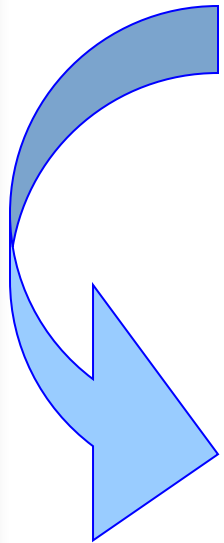
- Query/call:

?- member(Z,[a,b]), write(Z), nl, fail.
Z = X, X = a match 1

?- write(a), nl, fail.

a **backtracking**

?- member(Z,[a,b]), write(Z), nl, fail.
Z = X, Y = [b] match 2



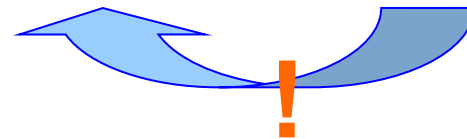
Controlling Backtracking: !

- Procedural meaning of the cut !:

A :- B1, B2, !, B3, B4.


Search for
alternatives


Search for
alternatives



Stop searching

Cut

Program:

p(a).

p(b).

q(X) :- p(X), r(X).

r(Y) :- !, t(Y).

r(a).

t(c).

Execution:

?- q(Z).

Z = X

?- p(X), r(X).

X = a

?- r(a).

Y = a

?- t(a).

fail, no



backtracking
to r(a).

Try X = b

State Space and !

a :- b, c.

a :- f, g.

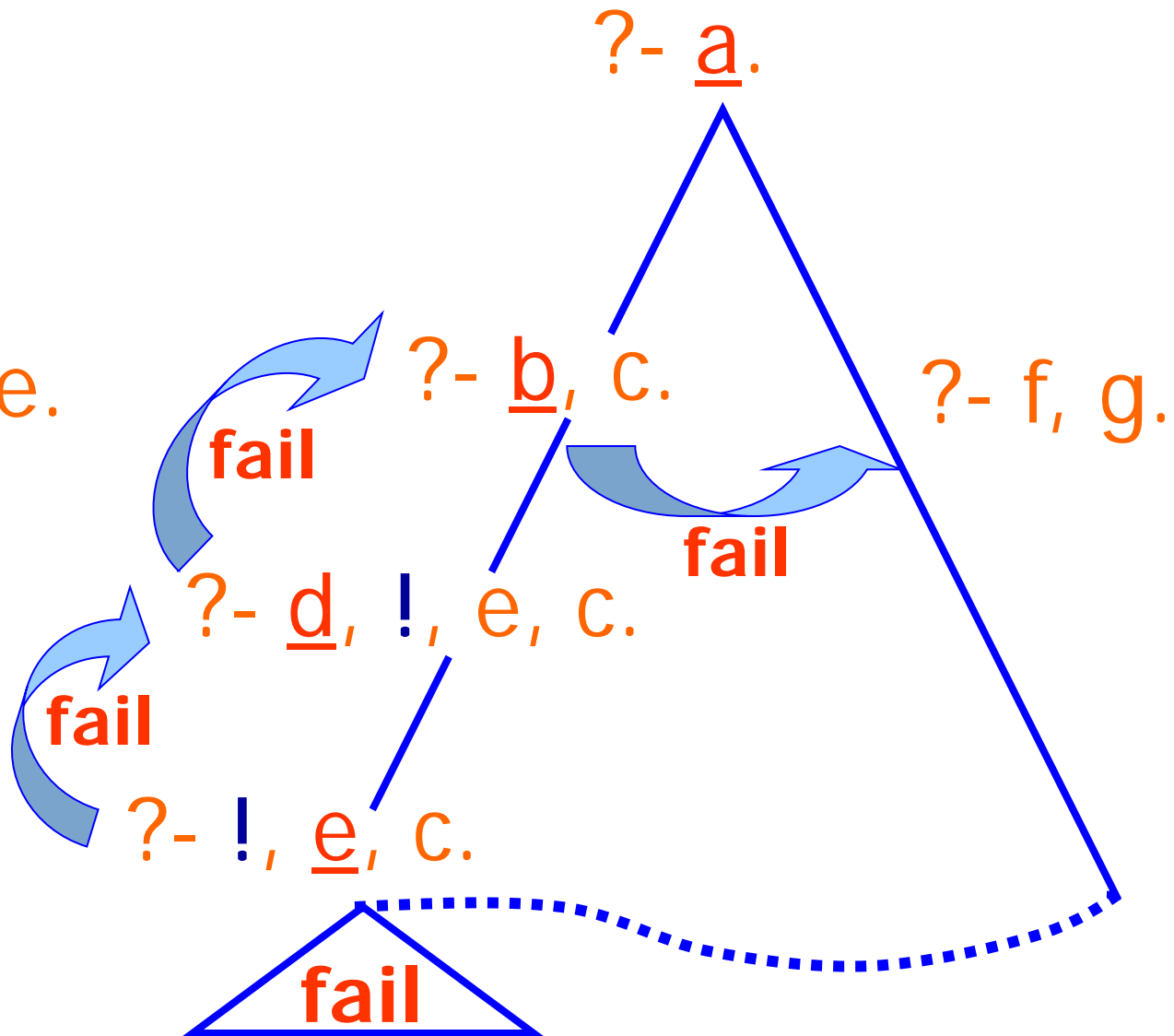
...

b :- d, !, e.

b :-

...

d.



Various Applications of !

- Cut as commitment operator:

```
if X < 3 then Y = 0
if X ≥ 3 and X < 6 then Y = 2
if X ≥ 6 then Y = 4
```

- Prolog:

```
t(X, 0) :- X < 3.
t(X, 2) :- X >= 3, X < 6.
t(X, 4) :- X >= 6.
```

Commitment Operator

- Cut as commitment operator:

*/*1*/* t(X, 0) :- X < 3.

*/*2*/* t(X, 2) :- X >= 3, X < 6.

*/*3*/* t(X, 4) :- X >= 6.

- Execution trace:

?- t(1, Y), Y > 2. match 1

?- 1 < 3, 0 > 2.

?- 0 > 2. fail 1

?- 1 >= 3, 1 < 6, 1 > 2. match 2

?- ... fail 2

?- 1 >= 6, 4 > 2. match 3, fail 3 ☹️

Commitment Operator

- Cut as commitment operator:

`/*1*/ t(X, 0) :- X < 3, !.`

`/*2*/ t(X, 2) :- X >= 3, X < 6, !.`

`/*3*/ t(X, 4) :- X >= 6.`

- Execution trace:

`?- t(1, Y), Y > 2.`

match 1

`?- 1 < 3, !, 0 > 2.`

`?- !, 0 > 2.`

fail 1

no



Various Applications of !

- Cut used for removal of conditions:

$\text{min}(X, Y)$ is X if $X \leq Y$
 $\text{min}(X, Y)$ is Y if $X > Y$

- Prolog:

$\text{min}(X, Y, X) :- X \leq Y.$

$\text{min}(X, Y, Y) :- X > Y.$

- Execution:

?- $\text{min}(3, 5, Z).$

?- $3 \leq 5.$

$Z = 3$

match 1

yes

Removal of Conditions

- Cut used for removal of conditions:

$\text{min}(X, Y, Z) :-$

$X = < Y, !,$

$Z = X.$

$\text{min}(X, Y, Y).$

- Execution:

?- $\text{min}(3, 5, W).$

?- $3 = < 5, !, W = 3.$

$W = 3$

match 1

yes

Removal of Conditions

- Cut used for removal of conditions:

$\text{min}(X, Y, Z \Rightarrow X) :-$

$X = < Y, !.$

$Z = X.$

why included?

$\text{min}(X, Y, Y).$

- Execution:

?- $\text{min}(3, 5, 5).$

fail 1, match 2

yes

Change in Meaning?

- Cut used for removal of conditions:

$\text{min}(X, Y, Z) :-$

$X = < Y, \quad (! \text{ omitted})$

$Z = X.$

$\text{min}(X, Y, Y).$

- Execution:

?- $\text{min}(3, 5, W), W = 5.$

?- $3 = < 5$, $5 = 3, W = 5.$ match 1

?- $5 = 3$, $W = 5.$ fail

?- $W = 5$. match 2 (with $Y = 5 = W$)

$W = 5$

yes

Negation by Failure

- Simulation of negation: `not(p)` is true if `p` is false (fails):

```
not(X) :- call(X), !, fail.  
not(X).
```

- **Example:**

```
p(a).  
q(X) :- p(X), not(r(X)).  
r(c).  
?- q(Y).  
yes
```

Single Solution

- Circumvention of double search:

```
/*1*/ member(X, [X|_]) :- !.
```

```
/*2*/ member(X,[_|Y]) :-  
    member(X,Y).
```

- **Example:**

```
?- member(a, [a, b, a]).
```

yes

```
?- member(X, [a, b]).
```

X = a;

no



Green and Red Cuts

■ Green cut:

- when omitted, does not change declarative (logical) meaning of program
- used to increase efficiency

■ Red cut:

- when omitted, declarative meaning of program is changed
- used for efficiency
- used to enforce termination



Green and Red Cuts

- **Green cut:**

- commitment operator

- **Red cut:**

- removal of conditions

- cut-fail combination (see notes)

- single solution

Prolog Database

- The working environment of Prolog, containing all loaded Prolog programs is called: the 'database'
- The database can be manipulated by the programs themselves
- Compare: Pascal program that modifies itself during execution

Prolog 'Database'

add new clauses →

remove clauses ←

Prolog Database

```
parent(jim, bob).
```

```
pred(X,Y) :-  
    parent(X,Y).
```

```
pred(X,Y) :-  
    parent(X,Z),  
    pred(Z,Y).
```


Prolog 'Database'

assertz: add to the end
of a definition

assertz(parent(bob,ann)).



Prolog Database

```
parent(jim, bob).  
parent(bob,ann).  
pred(X,Y) :-  
    parent(X,Y).  
pred(X,Y) :-  
    parent(X,Z),  
    pred(Z,Y).
```

Asserting Clauses

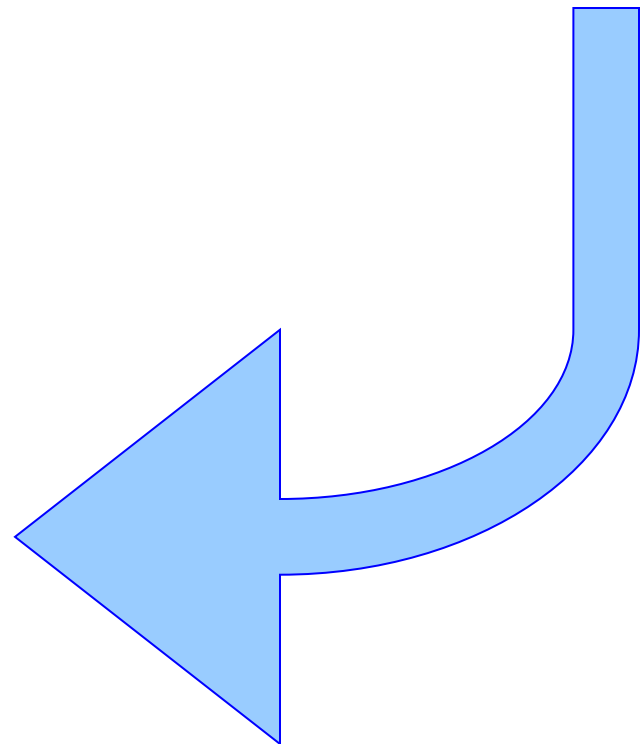
Database

```
collect_data(stop).  
collect_data(_) :-  
    write('Next item: '),  
    read(X),  
    assertz(X),  
    collect_data(X).
```

```
input_data :-  
    collect_data(start).
```

```
name(peter).  
age(35).  
stop.
```

```
?- input_data.  
Next item: name(peter).  
Next item: age(35).  
Next item: stop.
```



Database Manipulation

- Asserting (new) clauses:
 - `assert(C)`: position C unspecified
 - `asserta(C)`: at the beginning of the definition of the predicate
 - `assertz(C)`: at the end of the definition of the predicate
- Deleting clauses:
 - `retract(C)`: remove clause matching with C (top to bottom order)

Retracting Clauses

retract: remove from
the beginning of the
of definition

?- retract(parent(X,Y)).

X = jim

Y = bob

yes

Prolog Database

?- dynamic parent/2.

parent(jim, bob).
parent(bob, ann).
parent(john, pete).
parent(pete, linda).

Retracting Clauses

```
?- retract_all_facts(parent(X,Y)).  
yes
```

Prolog Database

```
?- dynamic parent/2.
```

```
parent(jim, bob).  
parent(bob, ann).  
parent(john, pete).  
parent(pete, linda).
```

```
retract_all_facts(X) :-  
    retract(X),  
    fail.  
retract_all_facts(_).
```