

# Prolog

- **Language constructs**
  - Facts, rules, queries through examples
- **Horn clauses**
  - Goal-oriented semantics
  - Procedural semantics
- **How computation is performed?**
- **Comparison to logic programming**

# Logic Programming vs Prolog

- **Logic programming languages are not procedural or functional.**
- **Specify relations between objects**  
`larger(3,2)      father(tom,jane)`
- **Separate logic from control:**
  - Separate the **What** (logic) from the **How** (control)
  - Programmer declares what facts and relations are true  
`father(X,jane):- male(X),parent(X,jane).`
  - System determines how to use facts to solve problems
  - State relationships and query them as in logic

## Logic Programming vs Prolog

- **Computation engine: theorem-proving and recursion**
  - Uses unification, resolution, backward chaining, backtracking
- **Problem description is higher-level than imperative languages**

## Prolog

- **As database management**
  - Program is a database of facts
  - Simple queries with constants and variables (“binding”), conjunctions and disjunctions
  - Rules to derive additional facts
  - Two interpretations
    - Declarative: related to logic
    - Procedural: searching for answers to queries
      - Search trees and rule firings can be traced

## Facts

```
likes(eve, pie).    food(pie).
likes(al, eve).    food(apple).
likes(eve, tom).   person(tom).
likes(eve, eve).
```

predicates

constants

## Queries (Asking Questions)

```
likes(eve, pie).    food(pie).
likes(al, eve).    food(apple).
likes(eve, tom).   person(tom).
likes(eve, eve).
```

variable

```
?-likes(al, eve).
yes
?-likes(al, pie)
no
?-likes(eve, al).
no
?-likes(person, food).
no
```

query

answer

```
?-likes(al, Who).
Who=eve
?-likes(eve, W).
W=pie
W=tom
W=eve
no
```

answer with variable binding

force search for more answers

## Harder Queries

```
likes(eve, pie).    food(pie).
likes(al, eve).    food(apple).
likes(eve, tom).   person(tom).
likes(eve, eve).
```

```
?-likes(A,B).
A=eve,B=pie ; A=al,B=eve ; ...
?-likes(D,D).
D=eve ; no
?-likes(eve,W), person(W).
W=tom
?-likes(al,V), likes(eve,V).
V=eve ; no
```

*and* (with arrows pointing to the comma in the third query)

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## Harder Queries

```
likes(eve, pie).    food(pie).
likes(al, eve).    food(apple).
likes(eve, tom).   person(tom).
likes(eve, eve).
```

```
?-likes(eve,W), likes(W,V).
W=eve,V=pie ; W=eve,V=tom ; W=eve,V=eve
?-likes(eve,W), person(W), food(V).
W=tom,V=pie ; W=tom,V=apple
?-likes(eve,V), (person(V); food(V)).
V=pie ; V=tom ; no
?-likes(eve,W), \+likes(al,W).
W=pie ; W=tom ; no
```

*same binding* (with arrows pointing to the **W** in the first query and the **W** in the second query)

*or* (with an arrow pointing to the semicolon in the third query)

*not* (with an arrow pointing to the backslash and plus sign in the fourth query)

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## Rules

```
likes(eve, pie).    food(pie).
likes(al, eve).    food(apple).
likes(eve, tom).   person(tom).
likes(eve, eve).
```

- What if you want to ask the same question often?

Add a *rule* to the database:

```
[ rule1:-likes(eve,V),person(V). ]
```

```
?-rule1.
```

```
yes
```

## Rules

```
likes(eve, pie).    food(pie).
likes(al, eve).    food(apple).
likes(eve, tom).   person(tom).
likes(eve, eve).
```

```
[ rule1:-likes(eve,V),person(V).
  rule2(V):-likes(eve,V),person(V). ]
```

```
?-rule2(H).
```

```
H=tom ; no
```

```
?-rule2(pie).
```

```
no
```

Note rule1 and rule2 are just like any other predicate!

## Queen Victoria Example

```
male(albert). a fact
female(alice). Facts are put in a file.
male(edward).
female(victoria).
parents(edward,victoria,albert).
parents(alice,victoria,albert).
?- [family]. loads file
yes
?- male(albert). a query
yes
?- male(alice).
no
?- parents(edward,victoria,albert).
yes
?- parents(bullwinkle,victoria,albert).
no
```

cf Clocksin  
and Mellish

## Queen Victoria Example, cont.

- **Problem:** facts alone do not make interesting programs possible. Need variables and deductive rules.

---

```
?-female(X). a query or proposed fact
X = alice ; ; asks for more answers
X = victoria ; if user types <return> then no more
answers given
no when no more answers left, return no
```

- **Variable X** has been unified to all possible values that make `female(X)` true.
  - Performed by pattern match search
- **Variables capitalized, predicates and constants are lower case**

## Queen Victoria Example, cont.

```
?-sister_of(X,Y):-  
    female(X),parents(X,M,F),parents(Y,M,F).  
?- sister_of(alice,Y).           a rule ↗  
Y = edward  
?- sister_of(alice, victoria).  
no
```

- Prolog program consists of facts, rules, and queries
- A query is a proposed fact, needing to be proven
  - If query has no variables and is provable, answer is *yes*
  - If query has variables, proof process causes some variables to be bound to values which are reported (called a *substitution*)

## Horn Clauses

- A Horn Clause is:  $c \quad h_1 \wedge h_2 \wedge h_3 \wedge \dots \wedge h_n$ 
  - *Antecedents*(h's): conjunction of zero or more conditions which are atomic formulae in predicate logic
  - *Consequent*(c): an atomic formula in predicate logic
- **Meaning of a Horn clause:**
  - *The consequent is true if the antecedents are all true*
  - c is true if  $h_1, h_2, h_3, \dots, \text{ and } h_n$  are all true

```
sister_of(X,Y):-  
    female(X),parents(X,M,F),parents(Y,M,F).
```

"X is the sister of Y, if X is female, X's parents are M and F, and Y's parents are M and F."

## Horn Clauses

- In Prolog, a Horn clause  $c \quad h_1 \wedge \dots \wedge h_n$  is written  $c :- h_1, \dots, h_n$ .
- Horn Clause is a **Clause**
- Consequent is a **Goal** or a **Head**
- Antecedents are **Subgoals** or **Tail**
- Horn Clause with No Tail is a **Fact**

`male(edward).` *dependent on no other conditions*

- Horn Clause with Tail is a **Rule**

`father(albert,edward) :-  
male(edward),parents(edward,M,albert).`

## Horn Clauses

- Variables may appear in the antecedents and consequent of a Horn clause:

–  $c(X_1, \dots, X_n) :- h(X_1, \dots, X_m, Y_1, \dots, Y_k)$ .

*For all values of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , the formula  $c(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  is true if there exist values of  $Y_1, \dots, Y_k$  such that the formula  $h(X_1, \dots, X_m, Y_1, \dots, Y_k)$  is true*

- Call  $Y_i$  an auxiliary variable. Its value will be bound to make consequent true, but not reported by Prolog, because it doesn't appear in the consequent.



## Declarative Semantics

```
father(X, jane) :- male(X), parents(jane, Y, X).
```

- Scope of **X** is this rule
- **Y** is an auxiliary variable, **X** is a variable
- **jane** is a constant
- **Goal-oriented (declarative) semantics:**
  - **father(X, jane)** is true for those values of **X** which make subgoals **male(X)** and **parents(jane, Y, X)** true.
  - **Recursively apply this reasoning until reach rules that are facts; called *backwards chaining***

## Example

```
?-sister_of(X, Y):  
    female(X), parents(X, M, F), parents(Y, M, F).
```

```
?-sister_of(alice, Y).
```

```
Y = edward
```

```
?-sister_of(X, Y).
```

```
X = alice
```

```
Y = edward ;
```

```
X = alice
```

```
Y = alice ;
```

```
no
```

*What's wrong here?*

```
(1) male(albert).  
(2) female(alice).  
(3) male(edward).  
(4) female(victoria).  
(5) parents(edward, victoria, albert).  
(6) parent(alice, victoria, albert).
```

Example shows  
-subgoal order of evaluation  
-argument invertability  
-backtracking  
-computation in rule order

## Rule Ordering and Unification

- Rule ordering (from first to last) used in search
- Unification requires all instances of the same variable in a rule to get the same value
- Unification does not require differently named variables to get different values:  
`sister_of(alice, alice)`
- All rules searched if requested by successive typing of ;

## Example

```
sis(X,Y):-female(X),parents(X,M,F),
          parents(Y,M,F),\+(X==Y).
?-sis(X,Y). last subgoal disallows X,Y to have same value
X=alice
Y=edward ;
no
= means unifies with
== means same in value
```

## Negation as Failure

- $\neg(P)$  succeeds when P fails
  - Called **negation by failure**, defined:  
`not(X):-X,!,fail.`  
`not(_).`
- Which means
  - if X succeeds in first rule, then the rule is forced to fail by the last subgoal (`fail`). we cannot backtrack over the cut (!) in the first rule, and the cut prevents us from accessing the second rule.
  - if X fails, then the second rule succeeds, because “\_” (or `don't_care`) unifies with anything.

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## Procedural Semantics

```
?-sister_of(X,Y):  
  female(X),parents(X,M,F),parents(Y,M,F).
```

Semantics:

- First *find* an X to make `female(X)` true
- Second *find* an M and F to make `parents(X,M,F)` true for that X.
- Third *find* a Y to make `parents(Y,M,F)` true for those M, F
- This algorithm is recursive; each *find* works on a new “copy” of the facts+rules. eventually, each find must be resolved by appealing to facts.
- Process is called *backward chaining*.

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## Transitive Relations

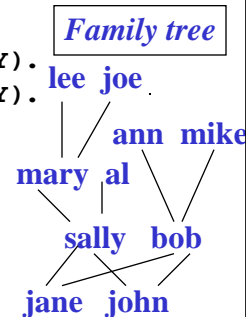
```
parents(jane,sally,bob). parents(john,sally,bob).
parents(sally,mary,al). parents(bob,ann,mike).
parents(mary,lee,joe).
```

*Y is ancestor of X*

```
ancestor(X,Y):- parents(X,Y,_).
ancestor(X,Y):- parents(X,_ ,Y).
ancestor(X,Y):- parents(X,Z,_),ancestor(Z,Y).
ancestor(X,Y):- parents(X,_ ,Z),ancestor(Z,Y).
?-ancestor(jane,X).
```

```
X= sally ;
X= bob ;
X= mary ;
X= al ;
X= lee ;
X= joe ;
```

```
X=ann ;
X=mike ;
no
```



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## Logic Programming vs Prolog

- **Logic Programming: Nondeterministic**
  - Arbitrarily choose rule to expand first
  - Arbitrarily choose subgoal to explore first
  - Results don't depend on rule and subgoal ordering
- **Prolog: Deterministic**
  - Expand first rule first
  - Explore first(leftmost) subgoal first
  - Results may depend on rule and subgoal ordering

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## Minimal Prolog Syntax

**<rule> ::= (<head> :- <body> .) | <fact> .**

**<head> ::= <predicate>**

**<fact> ::= <predicate>**

**<body> ::= <predicate> { , <predicate> }**

**<predicate> ::= <functor> ( <term> { , <term> } )**

**<term> ::= <integer> | <atom> | <variable> |  
<predicate>**

**<query> ::= ?- <predicate>**