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# Prolog: logic programming

Created in France by Alain Colmerauer & co. at Marseille, France in the '70 for AI and computational linguistics

(facts)

- **Declarative style of:**
- representing <u>data/relations</u>
- representing how to solve a problem (rules/clauses)
- Used for:
- AI: natural language parsing, planning, natural language generation, theorem proving, ...
- meta-programming (programs that create programs)

#### Data types and program elements

- Integers 42 Float 3.14 Strings "Hello world"
- Atoms and rea Lists [one, 2, 3.14, "four"]
- Terms height(andrea, 186)
- Variables are NOT typed, and start with Capital or \_underscore the assignment is UNDONE on backtrack!!!
- describe relations that are <u>always true</u> Facts
  - parent(maurizio, andrea). % Maurizio is parent of Andrea

**Predicates/rules/clauses** describe conditional relations

ancestor(Kid, Ancestor):-% Ancestor is ancestor of Kid IF parent( Somebody, Kid ), % there exists Somebody parent of Kid ancestor (Somebody, Ancestor). % that has Ancestor as an ancestor

#### Program execution = query for a proof

A program execution is the response to a <u>query</u> asking the system to find a proof that something (a fact) is true

The system looks for a way to prove your query by searching:

- if a fact is directly available to satisfy your query
- or else if there exists a predicate that would satisfy your query:
  - then to prove it all its preconditions must be proved

If more than one ways exists to satisfy a query, all are tried in order (by backtracking/undoing last choice if some of the subqueries fails)

The order of search is the order of the facts/clauses in the program

Values assigned to the variables to satisfy the query are returned

### Example: a small genealogy problem



If we want teresa's ancestors we could climb the parent relation

## **Representing facts AND relations (deduction rules)**

#### FACTS

parent(mario, maurizio). parent(mario, carla). parent(maurizio, andrea). parent(maurizio, gianluca). parent(andrea, teresa). parent(andrea, davide). parent(dina, nicoletta). parent(roberto, nicoletta). parent(nicoletta, teresa). parent(nicoletta, davide).

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#### RULES

ancestor(Kid, Ancestor): parent(Ancestor, Kid).
ancestor(Kid, Ancestor): parent(P, Kid),
 ancestor(P, Ancestor).

#### QUERY

?- ancestor( teresa, A ).
A = andrea; A = nicoletta;
A = maurizio; A = mario;
A = dina; A = roberto;
false (no more solutions)

#### Many queries from the same facts/rules

% find known dina's nephews

?- ancestor( N, dina).

N = nicoletta; N = teresa; N = davide; false (no more solutions)

% find known siblings

?- parent( Parent, Kid1), parent( Parent, Kid2 ), Kid1 \= Kid2.

Parent = mario,Kid1 = maurizio,Kid2 = carla;Parent = mario,Kid1 = carla,Kid2 = maurizio;Parent = maurizio,Kid1 = andrea,Kid2 = gianluca;Parent = maurizio,Kid1 = gianluca,Kid2 = andrea;Parent = andrea,Kid1 = teresa,Kid2 = davide;Parent = andrea,Kid1 = teresa,Kid2 = teresa;Parent = nicoletta,Kid1 = teresa,Kid2 = teresa;Parent = nicoletta,Kid1 = teresa,Kid2 = teresa;Parent = nicoletta,Kid1 = teresa,Kid2 = teresa;

## **Procedural interpretation of a Prolog program**

- You can see the rules/facts of your program as if they were a set of subroutines, each <u>possibly with multiple alternative implementations</u>
- When you query for a given term, you CALL the corresponding <u>set of</u> <u>clauses</u>, which are tried one at a time
- When a clause is called, its inner prerequisites are CALLED sequentially
- When it FAILS, another clause is tried for the same term (by backtracking to the most recent choice, undoing it and trying the next)
- This implies a DFS search of a solution in the execution tree
- The first solution found is returned with its variable assignments
- If you ask for another solution (tab or ;) Prolog bactracks and continues

# Multiple clauses as if-then-else? (not exactly)

When a predicate/rule has multiple clauses they are tried in the order of appearance in the file (by backtrack)

(this IS NOT an if-then-else, as they are ALL tried)

You could simulate if-then-else by using exclusive preconditions clause(...):- condition, then. clause(...):- not(condition), else.

OR you can commit (!) to one clause as soon the condition is met clause(...) :- condition, !, then. % no backtrack after '!' clause(...) :- else.

The '!' (cut) predicate removes all remaining choices and commits the execution to the only clause containing it (BUT BEWARE OF FAILURES AFTER THE CUT!)

## Unification = Matching between data-structures

A powerful term-matching mechanism is used to automatically <u>pack/unpack</u> terms and data structures used in clauses

E.g.

parent( Dad, andrea, male ) = parent( maurizio, andrea, Sex )
is true when Dad = maurizio AND Sex = male

When they contains variables, Prolog looks for a suitable assignment of the variables (<u>on both sides</u>) Notice that the term <u>functor</u> and arity (# of args) should match

(unification is way more powerful than Python multiple assignment used to pack/unpack, as unification goes both ways)

# Assignment .... normally through unification except for math computation

Unification is used to pack/unpack data structures (terms, lists, ...)
 term( X, two, three(X) ) = term( four, B, C )
 => X=four B=two C=three(four)

When some computation is required we use the 'is' predicate

A <mark>is</mark> max(3, 5)	=> A=5
B is A * 10	=> B=50
C is 12 mod 7	=> C=5

Functions available:

min, max, arithmetic, random, trigonometric, logarithms logical (bits), ascii, ...

# Lists (dynamic, heterogeneous)

List = [ one, two, three, four ]

[Head | Tail ] = List Head = one

Tail = [two, three, four]

[First, Second | Rest] = List

First = one

- Second = two
- Rest = [ three, four ]

EmptyList = []

is\_empty([]).

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% extracting first and second element

% list syntax

% fails if the list has less than 2 elements

% how to extract the first element

% fails if the list is empty

% the empty list

% test for empty list through unification

length([], 0). % recursively compute the list length
length([H|T], N1) :- length(T,N), N1 is N + 1.

# Predicates are relations and works in many ways/directions

member( a, [a, b, c] )
member( A, [a, b, c] )
member( a, B)

=> true

## **Functional programming**

Predicates can be used as if they were functions or to test values square( X, Result ) :- Result is X \* X. % function is\_odd(X) :- 1 is X mod 2. % test

You can map functions over lists (with the apply library) List = [ 1, 2, 3, 4 ], maplist( square, List, List1 ). => List1 = [ 1, 4, 9, 16 ]

Or get all elements satisfying some property List = [1, 2, 3, 4], include(is\_odd, List, Odd). => Odd = [1, 3] List = [1, 2, 3, 4], partition(is\_odd, List, Odd, Even). => Odd = [1, 3] Even = [2, 4]

# **Repeating a query N times**

Repeating N times is normally done through recursion repeat\_something(0). % base case repeat\_something(N) :-N > 0,% we are in the recursive case do\_something, N1 is N-1, repeat\_something(N1). NOTICE: in this case you CAN collect results through the predicate variables Else you can repeat some operation by failing, backtracking and retrying repeat\_something(N) :between(1, N, X), % X=1, 2, 3, 4, 5 ... N by backtracking do\_something, fail. % to avoid failure of the predicate % add a default "always true" clause repeat\_something(\_). NOTICE: in this case you CANNOT collect results (unless you use side-effects)

## Or else you could collect all solutions by:

Collect all solutions of a Predicate with bagof(Term, Predicate, ListOfTerms) ?- bagof( odd(X), (member(X, [3, 2, 3, 4]), 1 is X mod 2), Odd) => Odd = [ odd(3), odd(3) ]

Or all <u>unique</u> solutions with predicate setof(Term, Predicate, Set) ?- setof( odd(X), (member(X, [3, 2, 3, 4]), 1 is X mod 2), Odd) => Odd = [ odd(3) ]

Or just repeat DoSomething for each of the solutions of a Predicate with forall( Predicate, DoSomething )

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?- forall( member(El, [1, 2, 3]), writeln(El) ).
```

```
1
2
3
```

# Meta-programming and alternative syntax (DCG)

You can build terms from lists and viceversa term( 1, two, three ) =.. [ term, 1, two, three ]

You can call/prove predicates built from data call( Term )

You can add/remove new facts or clauses to the program asserta(Head :- Body) assertz(Head :- Body) asserta(Fact) assertz(Fact) retract(FactOrClause)

You can use an alternative syntax (e.g. Definite Clause Grammars) sentence --> subject, verb, complement. % automatically transformed to sentence(Words, R3):subject(Words, R1), verb(R1, R2), complement(R2, R3). verb --> [run]. % is transformed to verb([run | Rest], Rest).

## **Common extensions**

#### Grammars

grammar rules map easily to Prolog predicates, both for parsing and for text generation

#### Constraints

the domain of the possible values of a variable can be constrained in many ways (e.g. the sudoku game)

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terms could represent objects and their properties rules could represent methods

#### GUI

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widgets, events, callbacks and so on

#### Grammar example

Sentence	> subject, verb, o	bject.	
subject	> article(Gender), actor(Gender).		
object	> article(Gender), object(Gender).		
article(female)	>[la].	article(male)	>[ il ].
actor(_)	>[ chirurgo ].		
actor(female)	>[elefantessa].	actor(male)>	[elefante].
verb	>[mangiava].		
verb	>[guardava].		
object( female )> [ insalata ].			
object( male )	>[cavolfiore].		

# Constraint example (Sudoku)

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## **Programming styles**

#### Single threaded

- Declarative: data AND rules
  - declarative data => relational data representation (SQL-like)
- Functional: rules as functions transforming data
- Meta-programming: programs that BUILD programs
- Predicate/Relations can be used in many directions
- **Recursion, recursion everywhere!**
- Parallelism in some particular Prolog (Sicstus, Parlog, GHC)
- Simple multiprocessing with the 'spawn' library

# **Prolog Pro/Cons for teaching**

#### PRO

- Natural Language processing and generation
- Symbolic manipulation (Math, Algebra, Physics, ...)
- Recursion everywhere!

#### CONS

- Not typed (but you can use terms for dynamic typing)
- There is no nice IDE
- Recursion everywhere!



DEMO

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