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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

- **Declarative** style of:
- representing <u>data/relations</u>
- representing how to solve a problem
- representing data structures

(facts) (rules/clauses) (built through <u>unification</u>)

Used for:

- ...

- AI: <u>natural language parsing and generation</u>, planning, theorem proving, math, <u>symbolic manipulation</u>, ...
- meta-programming (programs that create programs)

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SWI-Prolog

Implementation for Windows/OsX/Linux at https://swi-prolog.org

- OOP, GUI programming, Web programming, Semantic web ...
- **IDE**, editor and Web-based:
 - Browser-based interface at https://swish.swi-prolog.org
 - available also as a Docker image (swipl/swish)
 - SwiPrologEditor/IDE at Hessen University
 - Eclipse plugin (<u>ProDT</u>) at Bonn University

Interactive books to learn Prolog:

- Learn Prolog Now! at http://lpn.swi-prolog.org
- Simply Logical at https://book.simply-logical.space

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Data types and program elements

Integers Atoms Terms			[one, 2, 3.14, "four"]	U	"Hello world"
Variables are <u>NOT typed</u> , and start with Capital or _underscore the assignment is UNDONE on backtrack!!!					
Facts	describe relations that are <u>always true</u>				
parent(maurizio, andrea).		% M	% Maurizio is Andrea's parent		
Predicat	es/rules/clauses describ	oe con	ditional relations based o	on other fac	cts/rules
ancestor(Kid, Parent) :- parent(Parent, Kid).		•	base case of the recursive ancestor relation) all parents are ancestors of Kid		
ancestor(Kid, Grandpa) <mark>:-</mark> parent(Somebody, Kid), ancestor(Somebody, Grandpa).		% t ł	Grandpa is ancestor of Kid IF here exists Somebody in the system, parent of Kic hat has Grandpa as an ancestor		, parent of Kid

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Example: Facts as database records, rules as complex queries

weather(monday, rain).
weather(tuesday, sun).
weather(wednesday, drizzle).
weather(thursday, sun).
weather(friday, snow).
weather(saturday, clouds).
weather(sunday, sun).

?- weather(X, sun).
X = tuesday;
X = thursday;
X = sunday;
false.

likes(joan, ben). likes(mary, robert). likes(robert, joan).

jealous(X,Y):-likes(X,Z), likes(Z,Y).

?- jealous(X, Y).
X = mary, Y = joan;
X = robert, Y = ben;
false.

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Declarative style

- Facts can be considered as a database of known data
- Could be used to teach data normalization
- 1NF: values are atomic/there is a unique key/reduced form
- 2NF: + no partial dependencies (create other tables)
- 3NF: + no transitive dependencies (create other tables)
- To retrieve a record with <u>simple WITH constraints</u> just <u>QUERY with partial arguments</u> and get variable values filled with found data
- To use more complex WITH constraints use rules.
- To get table JOINS just AND queries (that must be all true)

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Unification = Matching between data-structures

Unification: its powerful term-matching mechanism can be used to automatically <u>pack/unpack</u> terms and data structures

When they contains variables, Prolog looks for a suitable assignment of the variables (<u>on</u> <u>both sides!</u>)

Notice that the term functor (name) and arity (# of args) should match

E.g.

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

Unification is way more powerful than Python multiple assignment used to pack/unpack, as unification goes <u>both ways</u> and <u>inside terms</u> and <u>variable assignments are propagated</u>

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Examples: unification

?- 42 = 42.0 .
false. (integers are different than floats)
?- donald_duck = minnie.
false. (they should be the same atom)

?- mickey = A.
A = mickey (a variable unifies)

?- friend(mickey, X) = friend(Y, goofy).
X = goofy, Y = mickey

?- friend(mickey, X) = friend(X, goofy).
false. (X cannot be coherent)

:- father(X) = X.
X = father(father(father(...)))

Infinite terms arise if the variable <u>occurs</u> in the term she is unifying with. Proper unification must do the occurs_check.

Prolog for efficiency reasons DOES NOT DO the occur_check. But a specific predicate is available when needed.

:- unify_with_occurs_check(father(X),X). false.

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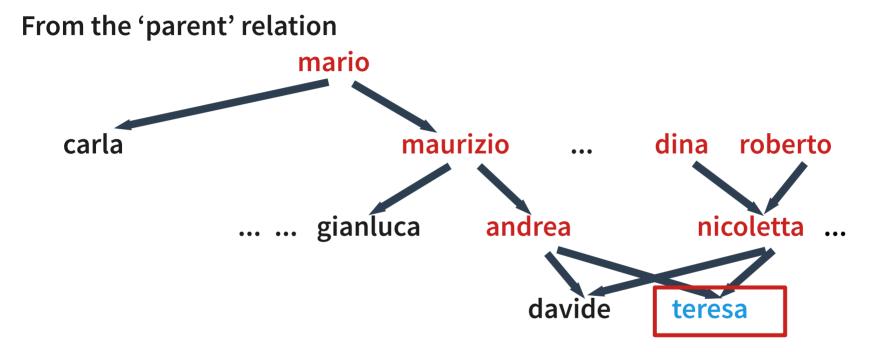
Program execution = query for a proof

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

- The system looks for a way to prove your query by searching:
- for <u>a fact</u> that directly satisfies your query
- or else for <u>a predicate/rule</u> that would be able to satisfy your query:
 - if the head matches (unifies), then recursively proves all its preconditions (body)
- If more than one ways exists to satisfy a query, all are tried in order (by backtracking, undoing last choice if some of the sub-queries fails)
- Facts/clauses are searched in their textual order in the program
- Values assigned to the variables to satisfy the query are returned

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Example: a small genealogy problem



To find all teresa's ancestors we must to recursively climb the parent relation

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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).

RULES

ancestor(Kid, Parent) :- % base case
 parent(Parent, Kid).
ancestor(Kid, Grandpa) : parent(Somebody, Kid),
 ancestor(Somebody, Grandpa).

QUERY (find all ancestors)

?- ancestor(teresa, A).

A = andrea; A = nicoletta;

A = maurizio; A = mario;

A = dina; A = roberto;

false (no more solutions)

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So many different queries from the same facts/rules!

% find known Dina's nephews (at any level)

?- ancestor(N, dina), not(parent(dina, N)).

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

% find known sibling pairs

?- parent(Parent, Kid1), parent(Parent, Kid2), Kid1 @< Kid2.

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

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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>with multiple alternative implementations</u> (the clauses)

When you query for a given term proof, you CALL the corresponding <u>set of clauses</u>, which are tried one at a time (in textual order)

When a clause is called, its inner prerequisites are CALLED <u>sequentially</u>

When one FAILS, another clause is tried for the same term by backtracking to the <u>most</u> <u>recent choice</u>, undoing it and trying the next (undoing var assignments if needed)

This implies a DFS search of a solution in the execution tree

The first solution found is returned with its variable assignments

When asked for another solution (;) Prolog bactracks on the last choice and continues

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Two different types of "assignment" term unification vs. math computation

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

NOTICE how the X value appears now in the term assigned to C

Unification CANNOT <u>compute</u> math expressions (but CAN do symbolic manipulation)

To do computation, instead, we use 'is' to evaluate expressions

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

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

(a third type of assignment as constraint over the variable domain is available in Constraint Logic Programming predicate libraries)

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Genealogy demo SWISH examples: kb, movies

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Lists (dynamic, heterogeneous)

List = [one, two, three, four]	% list syntax			
[Head Tail] = List	% how to extract the first element			
Head = one Tail = [two, three, four	% fails if the list is empty]			
[First, Second Rest] = List	% extracting first and second element			
First = one	% fails if the list has less than 2 elements			
Second = two				
Rest = [three, four]				
EmptyList = []	% the empty list			
is_empty([]).	% test for empty list through unification			
length([], 0).	% recursively compute the list length: base case with empty list			
length([H T], N1) :-	% a list with at least 1 element			
length(T,N), N1 is N + 1.	% is long 1 more than the rest of the list			
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Predicates are relations and works in many ways/directions

append([a], [b, c], L) append(A, [b, c], [a, b	=> L = [a, b, c , c]) => A = [a]	2] % concatenation % split		
append(A, B, [a, b	o, c]) => A = [], A = [a], A = [a, b],	<pre>B = [a, b, c]; % find all possible splits B = [b, c]; B = [c];], B = []; fail</pre>		
member(a, [a, b, c])	=> true	% check membership		
member(A, [a, b, c])	=> A=a ; A=b	; A=c % find members		
member(a, B)	=> B = $[a _];$	% generate list starting with a		
	B = [_,a _];	% generate list with a in 2° place		
	B = [_,_,a _] ; (infinite soluti	% generate list with a in 3° place ions)		

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Predicates can be used as if they were functions or to test values You just add an argument to collect the result

square(X, Result) :- Result is X * X.% functionis_odd(X) :- 1 is X mod 2.% test = compute+unify

You can map functions over lists (with the apply library predicates) 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]

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There is no need for looping constructs Recursion, recursion everywhere!

```
NORMAL WAY: Repeating N times is 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 <u>you CAN collect results</u> through the predicate variables
FAILURE-DRIVEN-WAY: repeat by failing, backtracking and retrying
   repeat_something(N) :-
                                  % generate X=1, 2, 3, 4, 5 ... N by backtracking
      between(1, N, X),
      do something,
      fail.
                                  % to avoid failure of the predicate
   repeat_something(_).
                                  % add a default "always true" clause
NOTICE: in this case you CANNOT collect results (unless you use side-effects)
```

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More general ways to collect all solutions or to repeat

<u>All solutions</u> (with repetitions): bagof(Term, Predicate, ListOfTerms) ?- bagof(X, (member(X, [3, 2, 3, 4]), 1 is X mod 2), Odd

=> Odd = [3, 3]

All <u>unique solutions</u>: setof(Term, Predicate, SetOfTerms)

Repeat a call <u>for each solution</u> of a Predicate: forall(Predicate, DoSomething) ?- forall(member(El, [1, 2, 3]), writeln(El)).

```
   1

   2

   3

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   Prolog 1
```

Programming styles

Single threaded

Declarative:

data AND rules

- declarative data => relational data representation (SQL-like)

Functional: rules as functions transforming data

<u>Meta-programming</u>: 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

Events? YES in the XPCE library to build GUIs

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Prolog Pro/Cons for teaching

PRO

- Focus on data abstraction
- Focus on relations instead than procedures
- easy Natural Language processing and generation (next lessons)
- easy Symbolic manipulation (Math, Algebra, Physics, ...)
- Al

- Recursion everywhere!

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CONS

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



DEMO (to be continued)

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