Programming Languages 2nd edition Tucker and Noonan

Chapter 15 Logic Programming

Q: How many legs does a dog have if you call its tail a leg? A: Four. Calling a tail a leg doesn't make it one. Abraham Lincoln

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#### 15.1 Logic and Horn Clauses

A Horn clause has a head h, which is a predicate, and a body, which is a list of predicates  $p_1, p_2, ..., p_n$ . It is written as:

 $h \leftarrow p_1, p_2, ..., p_n$ This means, "*h* is true only if  $p_1, p_2, ...,$  and  $p_n$  are simultaneously true."

#### E.g., the Horn clause:

 $snowing(C) \leftarrow precipitation(C), freezing(C)$ says, "it is snowing in city C only if there is precipitation in city C and it is freezing in city C."

#### Horn Clauses and Predicates

Any Horn clause  $h \leftarrow p_1, p_2, ..., p_n$ can be written as a predicate:  $p_1 \land p_2 \land ... \land p_n \supset h$ or equivalently:  $\neg (p_1 \land p_2 \land ... \land p_n) \lor h$ 

But not every predicate can be written as a Horn clause. E.g.,  $literate(x) \supset reads(x) \lor writes(x)$ 

#### **Resolution and Unification**

If h is the head of a Horn clause

- $h \leftarrow terms$ and it matches one of the terms of another Horn clause:
- $t \leftarrow t_1, h, t_2$

then that term can be replaced by *h*'s terms to form:  $t \leftarrow t_1$ , terms,  $t_2$ 

During resolution, assignment of variables to values is called *instantiation*.

*Unification* is a pattern-matching process that determines what particular instantiations can be made to variables during a series of resolutions.

#### Example

The two clauses: speaks(Mary, English) $talkswith(X, Y) \leftarrow speaks(X, L), speaks(Y, L), X \neq Y$ 

can resolve to:  $talkswith(Mary, Y) \leftarrow speaks(Mary, English),$  $speaks(Y, English), Mary \neq Y$ 

The assignment of values Mary and English to the variables X and L is an instantiation for which this resolution can be made.

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# 15.2 Logic Programming in PrologIn logic programming the program declares the goals of the computation, not the method for achieving them.

Logic programming has applications in AI and databases.

- Natural language processing (NLP)
- Automated reasoning and theorem proving
- Expert systems (e.g., MYCIN)
- Database searching, as in SQL (Structured Query Language)

#### Prolog emerged in the 1970s. Distinguishing features:

- Nondeterminism
- Backtracking

### 15.2.1 Prolog Program Elements

Prolog programs are made from terms, which can be:

- Variables
- Constants
- Structures

Variables begin with a capital letter, like Bob.

- *Constants* are either integers, like 24, or atoms, like the, zebra, 'Bob', and '.'.
- Structures are predicates with arguments, like:
- n(zebra), speaks(Y, English), and np(X, Y)
- The *arity* of a structure is its number of arguments (1, 2, and 2 for these examples).

#### Facts, Rules, and Programs

A Prolog *fact* is a Horn clause without a right-hand side. Its form is (note the required period .):

term.

A Prolog *rule* is a Horn clause with a right-hand side. Its form is (note :- represents ← and the required period .):

term :- term<sub>1</sub>, term<sub>2</sub>, ... term<sub>n</sub>.

A Prolog program is a collection of facts and rules.

## Example Program

speaks(allen, russian). speaks(bob, english). speaks(mary, russian). speaks(mary, english). talkswith(X, Y) :- speaks(X, L), speaks(Y, L), X \= Y.

This program has four facts and one rule.

The rule *succeeds* for any instantiation of its variables in which all the terms on the right of := are simultaneously true. E.g., this rule succeeds for the instantiation X=allen, Y=mary, and L=russian.

For other instantiations, like X=allen and Y=bob, the rule fails.

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## Searching for Success: Queries

 A query is a fact or rule that initiates a search for success in a Prolog program. It specifies a search goal by naming variables that are of interest. E.g.,
 ?- speaks(Who, russian).

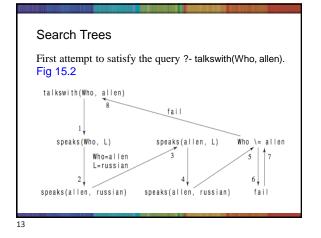
asks for an instantiation of the variable Who for which the query speaks(Who, russian) succeeds.

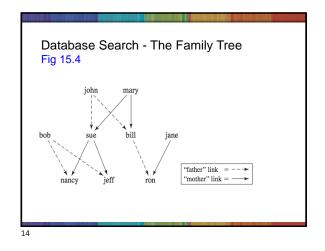
A program is loaded by the query **consult**, whose argument names the program. E.g., **?- consult(speaks)**.

loads the program named speaks, given on the previous slide.

Answering the Query: Unification To answer the query: ?- speaks(Who, russian). Prolog considers every fact and rule whose head is speaks. (If more than one, consider them in order.) Resolution and unification locate all the successes: Who = allen ; Who = mary ; No - Each semicolon (;) asks, "Show me the next success."

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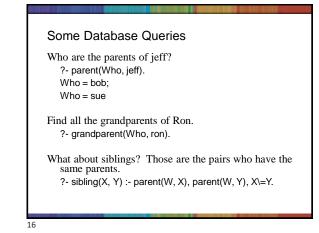


#### Prolog Program Fig 15.3

mother(mary, sue). mother(mary, bill). mother(sue, nancy). mother(sue, jeff). mother(jane, ron). father(john, sue). father(john, bill). father(bob, nancy). father(bob, jeff). father(bill, ron).

parent(A,B) :- father(A,B). parent(A,B) :- mother(A,B). grandparent(C,D) :- parent(C,E), parent(E,D).

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#### Lists

A *list* is a series of terms separated by commas and enclosed in brackets.

- The empty list is written [].
- The sentence "The giraffe dreams" can be written as a list: [the, giraffe, dreams]
- A "don't care" entry is signified by \_, as in
   [\_, X, Y]
- A list can also be written in the form: [Head | Tail]
- The functions append joins two lists, and member tests for list membership.

## append Function

append([], X, X). append([Head | Tail], Y, [Head | Z]) :append(Tail, Y, Z).

This definition says:

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 Appending the empty list to any list (X) returns an unchanged list (X again).
 If Tail is appended to Y to get Z, then a list one element larger [Head | Tail] can be appended to Y to get [Head | Z].

Note: The last parameter designates the result of the function. So a variable must be passed as an argument.

member Function
member(X, [X | \_]).
member(X, [\_ | Y]) :- member(X, Y).
The test for membership succeeds if either:
 1. X is the head of the list [X | \_]
 2. X is not the head of the list [\_ | Y], but X is a member of
 the list Y.
Notes: pattern matching governs tests for equality.
 Don't care entries (\_) mark parts of a list that aren't
 important to the rule.

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More List Functions
X is a *prefix* of Z if there is a list Y that can be appended to X to make Z. That is: prefix(X, Z) :- append(X, Y, Z).
Similarly, Y is a *suffix* of Z if there is a list X to which Y can be appended to make Z. That is: suffix(Y, Z) :- append(X, Y, Z).
So finding all the prefixes (suffixes) of a list is easy. E.g.: ?- prefix(X, [my, dog, has, fleas]).
X = []; X = [my]; X = [my, dog];

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