

Logic Programming

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Outline of the Lecture

Logic Programs

introduction, basic constructs, database and recursive programming, theory of logic programs

The Prolog Language

programming in pure prolog, arithmetic, structure inspection, meta-logical predicates, cuts, extra-logical predicates, how to program efficiently

Advanced Prolog Programming Techniques

nondeterministic programming, incomplete data structures, definite clause grammars, meta-programming, constraint logic programming

ummary of Last Lecture

Summary of Last Lecture

Execution

- Prolog programs are executed using SLD resolution
 - leftmost and topdown selection
 - depth-first search with backtracking
- unification without occur check

Some Observations

- 1 goal invocation corresponds to procedure invocation
- 2 differences show when backtracking occurs
- **3** like LISP, Prolog is a declaration free, typeless language
- 4 data manipulation is achieved via unification

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Arithmetic

Arithmetic

Numbers

- integers
- floating point numbers

Definition

Prolog provides an arithmetical interface

Value is Expression

Example			1
X is 3+5	8 is 3+5	N is N+1	
$X \mapsto 8$	false	nonsensical	

Arithmetic Operations

- + * // (integer division) / (float division)
- • •

Arithmetic Comparison Relations

- < =< > >=
- =:= (equality)
- =\= (disequality)

Non Standard Predicates

- between(Low, High, Value) is true when
 - **1** Value is an integer, and $Low \leq Value \leq High$
 - **2** Value is a variable, and Value \in [Low, High]
- succ(Int1,Int2) ...

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Transforming Recursion into Iteration

Transforming Recursion into Iteration

Definitions

- a Prolog clause is called iterative if
 - 1 it has one recursive call, and
 - 2 zero or more calls to system predicates, before the recursive call
- a Prolog procedure is iterative if contains only unit clauses and iterative clauses

Example (Factorial Iterative, Version 1)

```
factorial(N,F) \leftarrow factorial(0,N,1,F).
```

```
factorial(I,N,T,F) ←
```

```
I < N, I1 is I + 1, T1 is T*I1, factorial(I1,N,T1,F).
factorial(N,N,F,F).
```

hmetic

Example (Fibonacci Numbers)

```
fibonacci(0,1).
fibonacci(1,1).
fibonacci(N,X) :-
    N > 1,
    N1 is N-1, fibonacci(N1,Y),
    N2 is N-2, fibonacci(N2,Z),
    X is Y+Z.
?- fibonacci(3,X).
X ↦ 2
true
```

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```
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```

Transforming Recursion into Iteration

```
Example (Factorial Iterative, Version 2)
factorial(N,F) ← factorial(N,1,F).
factorial(N,T,F) ←
N > 0, T1 is T * N, N1 is N-1, factorial(N1,T1,F).
factorial(0,F,F).
```

Example

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Example

```
sumlist(Is,Sum) ← sumlist(Is,0,Sum).
sumlist([I|Is],Temp,Sum) ←
Temp1 is Temp + I,sumlist(Is,Temp1,Sum).
sumlist([],Sum,Sum).
```

Example

```
\begin{array}{ll} \max imum([X|Xs],M) & \leftarrow \ \max imum(Xs,X,M) \, .\\ \\ maximum([X|Xs],Y,M) & \leftarrow \\ & X \leqslant Y, \ maximum(Xs,Y,M) \, .\\ \\ maximum([X|Xs],Y,M) & \leftarrow \\ & X > Y, \ maximum(Xs,X,M) \, .\\ \\ maximum([],M,M) \, . \end{array}
```

Example

```
length([X|Xs],N) ←
    N > 0, N1 is N - 1, length(Xs,N1).
length([],0).
length([X|Xs],N) ←
    length(Xs,N1), N is N1 + 1.
length([],0).
```

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Type Predicates

```
Example
flatten([X|Xs],Ys) ←
    flatten(X,Ys1), flatten(Xs,Ys2),
    append(Ys1,Ys2,Ys).
flatten(X,[X]) ← constant(X), X ≠ [].
flatten([],[]).
?- flatten([[a],[b,[c,d]],e],[a,b,c,d,e])
true
```

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Example

```
flatten(Xs,Ys) \leftarrow flatten(Xs,[],Ys).
flatten([X|Xs],S,Ys) \leftarrow
    list(X), flatten(X,[Xs|S],Ys).
flatten([X|Xs],S,[X,Ys]) \leftarrow
    constant(X), X \neq [], flatten(Xs,S,Ys).
flatten([],[X|S],Ys) \leftarrow flatten(X,S,Ys).
flatten([],[],[]).
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```

Type Predicates

Type Predicates

Recall

type predicates are unary relations concerning the type of a term

Definition

- integer: type check for an integer
- atom: type check for an atom
- compound: type check for a compound term

Example

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Accessing compound terms

Accessing compound terms

Definition

- functor(*Term*,*F*,*Arity*) is true, if *Term* is a compound term, whose principal functor is *F* with arith *Arity*
- $\arg(N, Term, Arg)$ is true, if Arg is the Nth argument of Term

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Example

- ← functor(father(haran,lot),F,A)
- $\texttt{F} \ \mapsto \ \texttt{father}$
- $A \mapsto 2$

Example

 \leftarrow arg(2,father(haran,lot),X)

 $X \mapsto lot$

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Accessing compound terms

Example

```
subterm(Term,Term).
subterm(Sub,Term) ←
    compound(Term),
    functor(Term,F,N),
    subterm(N,Sub,Term).
subterm(N,Sub,Term) ←
    N > 1,
    N1 is N - 1,
    subterm(N1,Sub,Term).
subterm(N,Sub,Term) ←
    arg(N,Term,Arg),
    subterm(Sub,Arg).
```

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Meta-logical Predicates

Meta-logical Predicates

Definition

• meta-logical predicates are extensions of the first-order theory of logic programming

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- meta-logical predicates can
 - **1** query the state of the proof
 - 2 treat variables as objects
 - 3 allow conversion of data structures to goals

Remark

meta-logical type predicates allow us to overcome two difficulties:

- **1** variables in system predicates do not behave as intended
- 2 (logical) variables can be accidentally instantiated

Definition

- *Term* = . . *List* is true if *List* is a list whose head is the principal functor of *Term*, and whose tail is the list of arguments of *Term*
- the operator = . . is also called univ

Example

- \leftarrow father(haran,lot) =.. Xs
- $X \mapsto [father, haran, lot]$

Remark

 programs written with functor and arg can also be written with univ

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- programs using univ are typically simpler
- programs using functor and arg are more efficient
- univ can be built from functor and arg

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Meta-logical Predicates

Meta-logical Type Predicates

Definition

- var(Term) is true if Term is at present an uninstantiated variable
- nonvar(*Term*) is true if *Term* is at present not a variable
- ground(*Term*) is true if *Term* does not contain variables

Example

```
plus(X,Y,Z) \leftarrow
nonvar(X), nonvar(Y), Z is X + Y.
plus(X,Y,Z) \leftarrow
nonvar(X), nonvar(Z), Y is Z - X.
plus(X,Y,Z) \leftarrow
nonvar(Y), nonvar(Z), X is Z - Y.
```

Example unify(X,Y) \leftarrow var(X), var(Y), X = Y. unify(X,Y) \leftarrow var(X), nonvar(Y), X = Y. unify(X,Y) \leftarrow nonvar(X), var(Y), Y = X. unify(X,Y) \leftarrow nonvar(X), nonvar(Y), constant(X), constant(Y), X = Y. unify(X,Y) \leftarrow nonvar(X), nonvar(Y), compound(X), compound(Y), term_unify(X,Y). term_unify(X,Y) \leftarrow functor(X,F,N), functor(Y,F,N), unify_args(N,X,Y). unify_args(N,X,Y) \leftarrow N > 0, unify_arg(N,X,Y), N1 is N - 1, unify_args(N1,X,Y). unify_args(0,X,Y).

```
unify_arg(N,X,Y) \leftarrow
```

```
arg(N,X,ArgX), arg(N,Y,ArgY), unify(ArgX,ArgY).
```

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Comparing nonground terms

Unification with Occurs Check

Example not_occurs_in(X,Y) var(Y), X \== Y. not_occurs_in(X,Y) not_occurs_in(X,Y) not_occurs_in(X,Y) not_occurs_in(X,Y) not_occurs_in(N,X,Y) N > 0, arg(N,Y,Arg), not_occurs_in(X,Arg), N1 is N - 1, not_occurs_in(0,X,Y). unify(X,Y) var(X), nonvar(Y), not_occurs_in(X,Y), X = Y. unify(X,Y) not_occurs_in(Y, var(Y), not_occurs_in(Y,X), Y = X.

Comparing nonground terms

Definition

- X == Y is true if X and Y are identical constants, variables, or compound terms
- X = Y is true if X and Y are **not** identical

Example

 \leftarrow X == 5

false

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