



Logic Programming

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Definitions

- a type is a (possible infinite) set of terms
- types are conveniently defined by unary relations
- a type is complete if closed under the instance relation
- with every complete type T one associates an incomplete type IT which is a set of terms with instances in T and instances not in T

Definitions

- a list is complete if every instances satisfies the above type for lists
- otherwise it is incomplete

Example

the lists [a,b,c] and [a,X,c] are complete; the list [a,b|Xs] is not

Summary of Last Lecture

Example (Search Tree) plus(0,s(0),s(0)) $U_3 \mapsto 0$ times(0,s(0), U_3), plus(U_3 ,s(0),s(0)) times(s(0),s(0),s(0)) $X_0 \mapsto 0, Y \mapsto 0$ $plus(X_0,Y,0),times(s(X_0),s(X_0),s(0))$ times(0,0,s(0)) $X \mapsto s(X_0)$ $X \mapsto 0, Y \mapsto s(0)$ plus(X,Y,s(0)), times(X,X,s(0))

NB: search trees are a tree representation of SLD-derivations

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Outline of the Lecture

Monotone Logic Programs

introduction, basic constructs, logic foundations, unification, semantics, database and recursive programming, termination, complexity

Incomplete Data Structures and Constraints

incomplete data structures, definite clause grammars, constraint logic programming, answer set programming

Full Prolog

semantics (revisted), correctness proofs, meta-logical predicates, cuts nondeterministic programming, efficient programs, complexity

Proof Tre

Proof Trees

Definitions

- a proof tree for a program *P* and a goal *G* is a tree, whose nodes are goals and whose edges represent reduction of goals
- the root is the query *G*
- the edges are labelled with (partial) answer substitutions
- a proof tree for a conjunction of goals G_1, \ldots, G_n is the set of proof trees for G_i

Remark

a proof tree is a different representation of one successful solution represented by a search tree combining all possible selection functions

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Database Programming

Structured Data and Data Abstraction

```
Example (Unstructured Data)
```

```
course(discrete_mathematics,tuesday,8,11,sandor,szedmak,
  victor_franz_hess,d).
```

Example (Structured Data)

```
course(discrete_mathematics,time(tuesday,8,11),
  lecturer(sandor,szedmak),location(victor_franz_hess,d)).
```

Example

```
lecturer(Lecturer, Course) : -
  course(Course, Time, Lecturer, Location).
duration(Course, Length) : -
  course(Course, time(Day, Start, Finish), Lecturer, Location),
  plus(Start, Length, Finish).
```

Example (Proof Tree)

```
\begin{array}{ll} plus(0,\textbf{X},\textbf{X})\,. & times(\textbf{0},\textbf{X},\textbf{0})\,. \\ plus(\textbf{s}(\textbf{X}),\textbf{Y},\textbf{s}(\textbf{Z})) :- plus(\textbf{X},\textbf{Y},\textbf{Z})\,. & times(\textbf{s}(\textbf{X}),\textbf{Y},\textbf{Z}) :- times(\textbf{X},\textbf{Y},\textbf{U})\,, \\ & plus(\textbf{U},\textbf{Y},\textbf{Z})\,. \end{array}
```

```
\begin{array}{c|c} \mathsf{times}(\mathtt{0}, \mathtt{X}_1, \mathtt{0}) & \mathsf{plus}(\mathtt{0}, \mathtt{s}(\mathtt{0}), \mathtt{s}(\mathtt{0})) \\ X_0 \mapsto \mathtt{0}, X_1 \mapsto \mathtt{0}, U_0 \mapsto \mathtt{0} & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ \mathsf{times}(\mathtt{X}_0, \mathtt{s}(\mathtt{X}_0), \mathtt{U}_0) & & \mathsf{plus}(\mathtt{U}_0, \mathtt{s}(\mathtt{X}_0), \mathtt{s}(\mathtt{0})) \\ & & & & & & \\ X \mapsto s(X_0) & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ \mathsf{times}(\mathtt{X}, \mathtt{X}, \mathtt{s}(\mathtt{0})) & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ \mathsf{times}(\mathtt{X}, \mathtt{X}, \mathtt{s}(\mathtt{0})) & & & \\ \end{array}
```

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Database Programming

Example (cont'd)

```
teaches(Lecturer,Day) : -
  course(Course,time(Day,Start,Finish),Lecturer,Location).
occupied(Location,Day,Time) : -
  course(Course,time(Day,Start,Finish),Lecturer,Location),
  Start 
  Time, Time 
  Finish.
```

NB: rules for comparision are as expected

Why structure Data?

- helps to organise data; databases are usually structured ...
- rules can be written abstractly, hiding irrelevant detail
- modularity becomes possible or is improved

Observation

the basic operations of relational algebras, namely:

- 1 union
- 2 difference
- 3 cartesian product
- 4 projection
- 5 selection
- 6 intersection

can easily be expressed within logic programming

Example

```
r_{\text{union}} = s(X_1, \dots, X_n) := r(X_1, \dots, X_n).
r_{union_s}(X_1, ..., X_n) := s(X_1, ..., X_n).
```

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Recursive Programming

Example

```
0 \leq X : - is_number(X).
s(X) \leq s(Y) : - X \leq Y.
minimum(N_1, N_2, N_1) : - N_1 \leq N_2.
minimum(N_1,N_2,N_2) :- N_2 \leq N_1.
```

Example

```
mod(X,Y,Z) := Z < Y, times(Y,Q,W), plus(W,Z,X).
mod(X,Y,X) : - X < Y.
mod(X,Y,Z) := plus(X1,Y,X), mod(X1,Y,Z).
```

Example

```
ackermann(0,N,s(N)).
ackermann(s(M), 0, Val) : - ackermann(M, s(0), Val).
ackermann(s(M), s(N), Val) : - ackermann(s(M), N, Val_1),
    ackermann(M, Val<sub>1</sub>, Val).
```

```
Arithmetic
```

```
Example (Type Condition)
 is_number(0).
 is_number(s(X)) : - is_number(X).
```

Example

```
plus(0,X,X) := is_number(X)..
plus(s(X),Y,s(Z)) := plus(X,Y,Z).
times(0,X,0).
times(s(X),Y,Z) : - times(X,Y,U), plus(U,Y,Z).
```

Example

```
factorial(0,s(0)).
factorial(s(N),F) := factorial(N,F_1), times(s(N),F_1,F).
```

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```
Example
```

```
member(X,[X|Xs]).
member(X,[Y|Xs]) := member(X,Xs). := member(X,[a,b,a]).
```

Example

```
append([],Ys,Ys).
append(Xs,Ys,Zs): -
    Xs = [],
                             append([H|Ts], Ys, [H|Zs]): -
    Zs = Ys.
                                  append(Ts, Ys, Zs).
append(Xs,Ys,Zs): -
    Xs = [H|Ts],
    append(Ts, Ys, Us),
    Zs = [H|Us].
```

Example

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```
prefix([],Xs).
                              suffix(Xs,Xs).
prefix([X|Xs],[X|Ys]) :-
                              suffix(Xs,[Y|Ys]) :-
    prefix(Xs,Ys).
                                  suffix(Xs,Ys).
```

Composition of Programs

five steps to implement relation R

- 1 look up existing definitions of relation R
 - family relations
 - train tables
- 2 define types of individual data
 - is_number
 - mainly for documentation
- 3 think up a suitable name
 - convert a verbose description into a name
 - child_of
- 4 write queries (use cases)
- 5 write the actual program

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Recursive Programming Revisited

```
Example (Permutation Sort)  \begin{array}{l} \text{permutationsort}(Xs,Ys) : - \text{ permutation}(Xs,Ys), \text{ ordered}(Ys).} \\ \text{permutation}(Xs,[Z|Zs]) : - \text{ select}(Z,Xs,Ys), \text{ permutation}(Ys,Zs).} \\ \text{permutation}([],[]). \\ \text{ordered}([X]). \\ \text{ordered}([X,Y|Ys]) : - X \leqslant Y, \text{ ordered}([Y|Ys]).} \\ \text{select}(X,[X|Xs],Xs). \\ \text{select}(X,[Y|Ys],[Y|Zs]) : - \text{ select}(X,Ys,Zs). \\ \end{array}
```

```
Example (Uses of append)
prefix(Xs,Ys) : - append(Xs,As,Ys).
suffix(Xs,Ys) : - append(As,Xs,Ys).
member(X,Ys) : - append(As,[X|Xs],Ys).
```

Example

```
reverse([],[]).
reverse([X|Xs],Zs) : - reverse(Xs,Ys), append(Ys,[X],Zs).
reverse([X|Xs],Acc,Ys) : - reverse(Xs,[],Ys).
reverse([X|Xs],Acc,Ys) : - reverse(Xs,[X|Acc],Ys).
reverse([],Ys,Ys).
```

Example

```
length([],0).
length([X|Xs],s(N)) : - length(Xs,N).
```

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Recursive Programming Revisited

```
Example (Quick Sort)

quicksort([X|Xs],Ys) : -
    partition(Xs,X,Littles,Bigs),
    quicksort(Littles,Ls), quicksort(Bigs,Rs),
    append(Ls,[X|Rs],Ys).

partition([X|Xs],Y,[X|Ls],Bs) : -
    X =< Y, partition(Xs,Y,Ls,Bs).
partition([X|Xs],Y,Ls,[X|Bs]) : -
    X > Y, partition(Xs,Y,Ls,Bs).
partition([],Y,[],[]).
```

Example

```
isotree(nil,nil).
isotree(tree(X,Left1,Right1),tree(X,Left2,Right2)) : -
    isotree(Left1,Left2), isotree(Right1,Right2).
isotree(tree(X,Left1,Right1),tree(X,Left2,Right2)) : -
    isotree(Left1,Right2), isotree(Right1,Left2).
```