# Logic Programming 

Georg Moser

Department of Computer Science @ UIBK
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## Summary of Last Lecture

## 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 $G_{i}$


## Example (generate and test)

```
permutationsort(Xs,Ys) :- permutation(Xs,Ys), ordered(Ys).
permutation(Xs,[Z|Zs]) : - select(Z,Xs,Ys), permutation(Ys,Zs).
permutation([],[]).
ordered([X]).
ordered([X,Y|Ys]) : - X \leqslant Y, ordered([Y|Ys]).
```


## 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 (revisited), correctness proofs, meta-logical predicates, cuts nondeterministic programming, efficient programs, complexity

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

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Example
$:-\arg (2, f a t h e r(h a r a n, l o t), X)$
$\mathrm{X} \mapsto$ lot

## Example

```
subterm(Term,Term).
subterm(Sub,Term) : -
    compound(Term),
    functor(Term,F,N),
    subterm(N,Sub,Term).
```

subterm (N, Sub, Term) : -
$\mathrm{N}>1$,
N1 is N - 1,
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:- subterm(X,f(a,f(a,b))), X = a

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    arg(N,Term,Arg) ,
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:- subterm(X,f(a,f(a,b))), X = a
:- subterm(X,f(U,f(V,W))), X = f(V,W).
```


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## Remark

- programs written with functor and arg can also be written with univ
- 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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1 sometimes it is useful (easier) to think of a relation as a function
$\sqrt{2}$ use this definition for coding
3 afterwards see, if alternative uses make declarative sense

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delete([X|Xs],Z,?) :- X = Z
delete([X|Xs],Z,?) :- dif(X,Z)
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\begin{array}{ll}
\operatorname{delete}([X \mid X s], Z, Y s) & :-X=Z, \operatorname{delete}(X s, Z, Y s) . \\
\operatorname{delete}([X \mid X s], Z, ?) & :-\operatorname{dif}(X, Z)
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```


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## Example

```
delete2([X|Xs],X,Ys) :- delete2(Xs,X,Ys).
delete}\mp@subsup{2}{2}{([X|Xs],Z,[X|Ys]) :- delete2(Xs,Z,Ys).
delete
:- delete. ([a,b,c,b],b,[a,c])
true
:- delete.([a,b, c,b],b,[a,b,c,b])
true
```

Example (Select $\approx$ Delete $_{2}$ )
select (X, [X|Xs],Xs).
select(X,[Y|Ys],[Y|Zs]) :- select(X,Ys,Zs)
:- delete ${ }_{2}([\mathrm{a}], \mathrm{b},[\mathrm{a}])$
true
:- select(b,[a],X)
false

## Example (non termination)

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## Example (again, but different)

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Example (non termination, yet again)
\% hinfinte <- not strongly terminating, weakly terminating hinfinite. hinfinite :- hinfinite.
:- hinfinite.

## Termination Analysis

Fact

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- let's remove non-recursive rules


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    child_of(Descendant, Ancestor),
ancestor_of_2(Ancestor, Descendant) :-
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- last goal has no effect $\rightarrow$ let's remove (generalisation)


## Example

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\begin{gathered}
\text { ancestor_of_2(Ancestor, Descendant) :- } \\
\quad \text { ancestor_of_2(Person, Descendant), } \\
\text { child_of(Person, Ancestor). }
\end{gathered}
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- no influence on termination behaviour
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## Example (specialised and generalised)

\% ancestor_of_2 <- uniform nontermination

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ancestor_of_2(Ancestor, Descendant) :- } \\
& \quad \text { ancestor_of_2(Person, Descendant), false, } \\
& \quad \text { child_of(Person, Ancestor). }
\end{aligned}
$$

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:- Goal, false.
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## Example (ancestor_of specialised)

```
ancestor_of(Ancestor, Descendant) :-
``` child_of(Person, Ancestor), ancestor_of(Person, Descendant).
\(:-\quad\) + child_of \((X, X)\).
:- ancestor_of(Ancestor, Descendant), false. \% terminates
:- false, ancestor_of(Ancestor, Descendant). \% remark order

\section*{Termination Domains}

\section*{Example (recall)}
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Observation
due to selection strategy Prolog may fail to find a solution to a goal, even though the goal has a finite computation

\section*{Example}
```

married (X,Y) :- married (Y,X).
parent_of(X,Y) :- child_of(Y,X).
child_of(X,Y) :- parent_of(Y,X).

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Definitions
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- a termination domain of a program \(P\) is a domain \(D\) such that \(P\) terminates on all goals in \(D\)

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\section*{Example (domain)}
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { is_list }([]) . & \text { is_list }([\mathrm{X} \mid \mathrm{Xs}]):- \text { is_list(Xs). } \\
:- \text { is_list }([\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{X}, \mathrm{~b}]) .
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recursive (grammar) rules which have the recursive goal as the first goal in the body are called left recursive

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are_married(X,Y) :- married(X,Y).
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consider append/3, where the fact comes after the rule
1 append terminates if the first argument is a complete list
2 append terminates if the third argument is complete
3 append terminates iff the first or third argument is complete

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- as soon as we know the termination domain of a program, we can ask about the complexity (= efficiency) of the program
- in general resource analysis is even more difficult than termination analysis; in particular this holds for automation

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time time time
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space/time time
time time time
- size of terms
- full cost of SLD resolution

\author{
space \\ space/time
}

\section*{Example (ancestor_of, specialised)}
ancestor_of(Ancestor, Descendant) :child_of(Descendant, Ancestor). ancestor_of(Ancestor, Descendant) :child_of(Person, Ancestor), ancestor_of(Person, Descendant).
:- ancestor_of(joseph_II, Descendant).
:- ancestor_of(Ancestor, joseph_ll).

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\section*{Example (cont'd)}
we can ignore Descendant as it has no effect on the number of steps:
```

ancestor_of'(Ancestor) :-
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\section*{Example (reversed search)}
ancestor_of_3(Ancestor, Descendant) :child_of(Descendant, Ancestor).
ancestor_of 3(Ancestor, Descendant) :child_of(Descendant, Person), ancestor_of_3(Ancestor, Person).
:- ancestor_of(Ancestor, joseph_ll).```

