

## Declarative Programming in Prolog and Beyond

- Declarative (logic) programming:
  - inherent power of Prolog
  - when not (properly) used: lengthy, buggy programs result
- Procedural programming, needed for:
  - efficiency reasons
  - termination guarantee

## Logic programming



## Imperative programming

## Terminology (1)

- From logic (Prolog as declarative language):
  - nat(0).
  - nat(s(X)) :- nat(X).
  - predicate symbol: nat (unary)
  - function symbol: s (unary)
  - term: 0, s(X), X
  - constant: 0 (= nullary function symbol)
  - variable: X
  - (positive) literal = atom: nat(0), nat(s(X)), nat(X)

## Terminology (2)

- From programming languages (Prolog as procedural language):
  - nat(0).
  - nat(s(X)) :- nat(X).
  - term: nat(0), nat(s(X)), nat(X), :- (nat(s(X))), nat(X), s(X), 0, X
  - functor: s, nat, :-
  - principal functor: nat in nat(s(X)), :- in :- (nat(s(X))), nat(X), s in s(X)
  - number: 0
  - variable: X

## Inversion of Computation (1)

- Example: concatenation of lists  
 $\mathbf{U = V \circ W}$   
 with U, V, W lists and  $\circ$  concatenation operator
- Usage:
  - $[a, b] = [a] \circ W \Rightarrow W = [b]$
  - $[a, b] = V \circ [b] \Rightarrow V = [a]$
  - $\mathbf{U = [a] \circ [b]} \Rightarrow \mathbf{U = [a, b]}$
  - $[a, b] = V \circ W?$

## Inversion of Computation (2)

- Prolog concatenation of lists:  
 $\text{concat}([], U, U).$   
 $\text{concat}([X|U], V, [X|W]) :- \text{concat}(U, V, W).$
- concat as constructor:  
 $?- \text{concat}([a, b], [c, d], X).$   
 $X = [a, b, c, d]$
- concat used for decomposition:  
 $?- \text{concat}(X, Y, [a, b, c, d]).$   
 $X = []$   
 $Y = [a, b, c, d]$

### Inversion of Computation (3)

- concat used for decomposition:

```
?- concat(X, Y, [a, b, c, d]).  
X = []  
Y = [a, b, c, d];  
X = [a]  
Y = [b, c, d];  
X = [a, b]  
Y = [c, d];  
...  
...
```

### Order of Clauses (1)

- LP: order is irrelevant
- Prolog: order may be relevant
- Example:

```
member(X, [_|Y]) :-  
    member(X, Y).  
member(X, [X|_]).  
:- member(a, [b,a,c]).
```

### Order of Clauses (2)

```
/*1*/ member(X, [_|Y]) :-  
    member(X, Y).  
/*2*/ member(X, [X|_]).
```

?- member(a, [a,b]).  
 X = a, Y = [b]      match with 1  
 ?- member(a, [b]).    next call  
 X' = a, Y' = []      match with 1  
 ?- member(a, []).    fail 1 and 2  
 fail 1 and 2  
 fail 1, backtracking to 2  
 X = a                match 2  
 yes! (but not efficient)

### Order of Clauses (3)

```
/*1*/ member(X, [_|Y]) :-  
    member(X, Y).  
/*2*/ member(X, [X|_]).
```

?- member(X, [a, b]).  
 X' = X, Y = [b]      match with 1  
 ?- member(X', [b]).    next call  
 X'' = X', Y' = []    match with 1  
 ?- member(X'', []).   fail 1 and 2  
 X' = b  
 X = b;                fail 1, match 2  
 X = a                backtracking  
 yes! (but not efficient)

### Order of Clauses (4)

```
/*1*/ member(X, [_|Y]) :-  
    member(X, Y).  
/*2*/ member(X, [X|_]).
```

?- member(a, Z).  
 X = a, Z = [\_|Y]      match 1  
 ?- member(a, Y).       next call  
 X' = a, Y = [\_|Y']    match 1  
 ?- member(a, Y').     next call  
 ...

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### Conclusions Order of Clauses

- LP: order clauses is irrelevant
- Prolog:
  - Order has effect on efficiency of program
  - Order may affect termination: terminating program + order change ≠ terminating program

## Order of Conditions (1)

- Length of list with successor function  
 $s : N \rightarrow N$ , with  $s(x) = x + 1$

- Program:

```
/*1*/ length([], 0).
/*2*/ length([_|X], N) :-  
    length(X, M),  
    N = s(M).
```

- Use:

```
?- length([a, b], N).  
N = s(s(0))
```

## Order of Conditions (2)

- Program:

```
/*1*/ length([], 0).
/*2*/ length([_|X], N) :-  
    length(X, M),  
    N = s(M).
```

- Use:

```
?- length(L, s(0)).  
L = [_A];
```

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## Order of Conditions (3)

- Trace: /\*1\*/ length([], 0).
/\*2\*/ length([\_|X], N) :-  
 length(X, M),  
 N = s(M).
- ?- length(L, s(0)).  
 $L = [_A|X]$ ,  $N = s(0)$  match 2  
?- length(X, M),  $s(0) = s(M)$ . subcall  
 $X = []$ ,  $M = 0$  match 1  
?-  $s(0) = s(0)$ . match  
 $L = [_A]$ ; backtracks  
... (1 fails)

## Order of Conditions (4)

- Trace: /\*1\*/ length([], 0).
/\*2\*/ length([\_|X], N) :-  
 length(X, M),  
 N = s(M).
- ?- length(L, s(0)).  
 $L = [_A|X]$ ,  $N = s(0)$  match 2  
?- length(X, M),  $s(0) = s(M)$ . subcall  
 $X = [_B|X']$ ,  $N = M$  match 2  
?- length(X', M'),  $M = s(M')$ ,  $s(0) = s(M)$ . subcall  
... (1 fails)

## Order of Conditions (5)

- Program:
- ```
/*1*/ length([], 0).
/*2*/ length([_|X], N) :-  
    N = s(M),  
    length(X, M).
```

- Use:

```
?- length(L, s(0)).  
L = [_A];
```



## Declarative vs Procedural

- Order of clauses and conditions in clauses in Prolog programs may be changed, but
- This may be at the expense of:
  - loss of termination
  - compromised efficiency
- Schema for procedural programming:
  - special case first (top, left)
  - general case (e.g. including a recursive call) last (bottom, right)



## Fail & Cut

- Notation: fail and !
- Control predicates: affect backtracking
- Used for:
  - efficiency reasons
  - implementing tricks