

Problem Description

- Facts: $A \leftarrow$
- Rules: $A \leftarrow B_1, \dots, B_n$
- Queries: $\leftarrow B_1, \dots, B_n$

Meet the Royal Family



Example: Family Relations

- Facts: $\text{mother}(\text{juliana}, \text{beatrix}) \leftarrow$
constant
- Rules:
 $\text{parent}(X, Y) \leftarrow \text{mother}(X, Y)$
 $\text{parent}(X, Y) \leftarrow \text{father}(X, Y)$
variable
- Query: $\leftarrow \text{parent}(\text{juliana}, \text{beatrix})$

Logic Program

```

mother(juliana, beatrix) ←
mother(beatrix, alexander) ←
father(claus, alexander) ←

parent(X, Y) ← mother(X, Y)
parent(X, Y) ← father(X, Y)

■ Queries:
  ← parent(claus, alexander)
  ← parent(beatrix, juliana)
  
```

Prolog

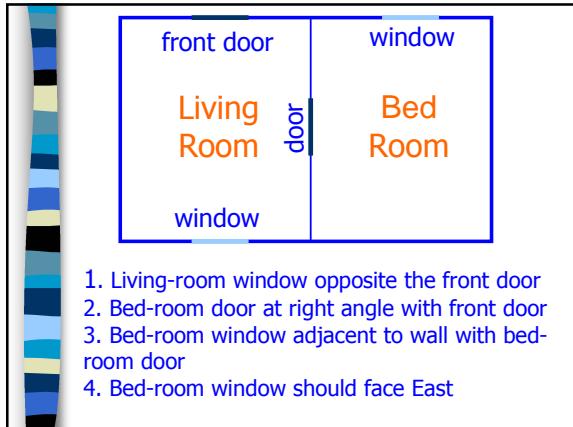
- Prolog: practical realisation of LP
- Prolog clause:

$$A \leftarrow B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n.$$
 head body
- Example: $\text{mother}(\text{juliana}, \text{beatrix}).$
 $\text{parent}(X, Y) :-$
 $\quad \text{mother}(X, Y).$
 $\quad :- \text{parent}(\text{juliana}, \text{beatrix}).$

Why is Prolog so Handy?

Hotel suite design:





C-like

```

type dir = (north, south, east, west);
livrm(fd, lw, bd : dir) : boolean;
{
  livrm = opposite(fd, lw) and adjacent(fd, bd)
}
bedrm(bd, bw : dir) : boolean;
{
  bedrm = adjacent(bd, bw) and (bw = east)
}
suite(fd, lw, bd, bw : dir) : boolean;
{
  suite = livrm(fd, lw, bd) and bedrm(bd, bw)
}
  
```

Continued

```

for fd = north to west do
  for lw = north to west do
    for bd = north to west do
      for bw = north to west do
        if suite(fd, lw, bd, bw) then
          print(fd, lw, bd, bw)
  
```

In Prolog

```

livrm(Fd, Bd, Lw) :-
  opposite(Fd, Lw), adjacent(Fd, Bd).
bedrm(Bd, Bw) :-
  adjacent(Bd, Bw), Bw = east.
suite(Fd, Lw, Bd, Be) :-
  livrm(Fd, Lw, Bd), bedrm(Bd, Bw).
:- suite(Fd, Lw, Bd, Bw).
  
```

Declarative Semantics

- Prolog clause: $A :- B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n$
- *Meaning:* A is true if
 $-B_1$ is true, and
 $-B_2$ is true, ..., and
 $-B_n$ is true

Procedural Semantics

- Prolog as a procedural language
- Prolog clause = **procedure**

- Query = procedure **call**

$:- B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n.$

More General Programs

- Use often lists:
 $[a, b, c, d] = [a | [b, c, d]]$
head tail
- Element is first element (fact):
 $\text{member}(a, [a | [b, c, d]]).$
- In general:
 $\text{member}(X, [X|_]).$

Set Membership

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

- Queries:

```
: - member(a,[b,a,c])  
: - member(d,[b,a,c])
```

Example 1

```
/*1*/ member(X, [X|_]). procedure entry  
/*2*/ member(X, [_|Y]) :- procedure entry  
    member(X, Y).  
/*3*/ :- member(a, [a, b, c]). call
```

Step 1

```
:- member(a, [a, b, c]).  
/*1*/ member(X, [X|_]).
```

*Instantiation: X = a match with /*1*/*

Example 2

```
/*1*/ member(X, [X|_]). procedure entry  
/*2*/ member(X, [_|Y]) :- procedure entry  
    member(X, Y).  
/*3*/ :- member(a, [b, a, c]). call
```

Step 1

```
:- member(a, [b, a, c]).  
/*1*/ member(X, [X|_]).
```

*Instantiation: X = a no match with /*1*/*

Example 2 (continued)

```
/*1*/ member(X, [X|_]). procedure entry  
/*2*/ member(X, [_|Y]) :- procedure entry  
    member(X, Y).  
/*3*/ :- member(a, [b,a,c]). call
```

Step 2

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

Match: X = a; Y = [a, c]

Example 2 (continued)

```
/*1*/ member(X, [X|_]). procedure entry  
/*2*/ member(X, [_|Y]) :- procedure entry  
    member(X, Y).  
/*3*/ :- member(a, [b,a,c]). call
```

Step 3

```
:- member(a, [a, c]). subcall  
/*1*/ member(X, [X|_]).
```

Match: X = a

Matching

- A call and procedure head **match** if:
 - predicate symbols are equal
 - arguments in corresponding positions are equal
- Example:**

```
: - member(a, [a, c]).  
/*1*/ member(a, [a|_]).
```

Variables & Atoms

mother(juliana, beatrix).

Calls:

```
: - mother(X, Y).  
  X = juliana  
  Y = beatrix
```

```
: - mother(_, _). /* anonymous variable */  
yes
```

```
: - mother(juliana, juliana).  
no
```

Left-right Selection Rule

```
q.  
r.  
s.  
p :- q, r, s.
```

Call:

```
: - p.  
  :- q, r, s.  
  :- r, s.  
  :- s.
```

Top-bottom Selection Rule

```
p(a).  
p(b).  
p(c).  
p(X) :- q(X).  
q(d).  
q(e).
```

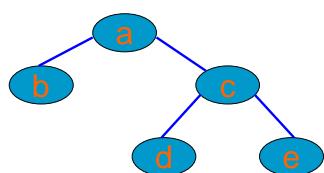
Call:

```
: - p(Y).  
  Y = a;  
  Y = b;  
  Y = c;  
  Y = d;  
  Y = e;  
no
```

Backtracking

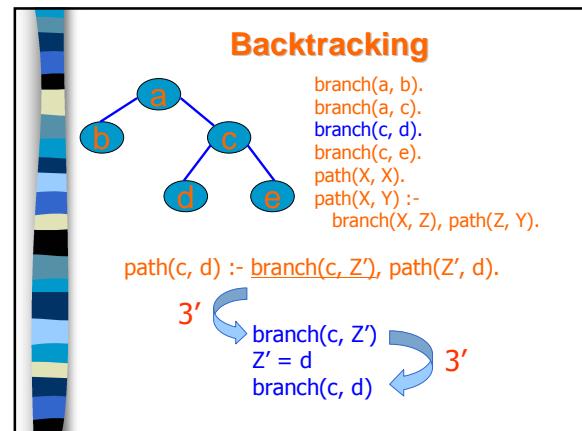
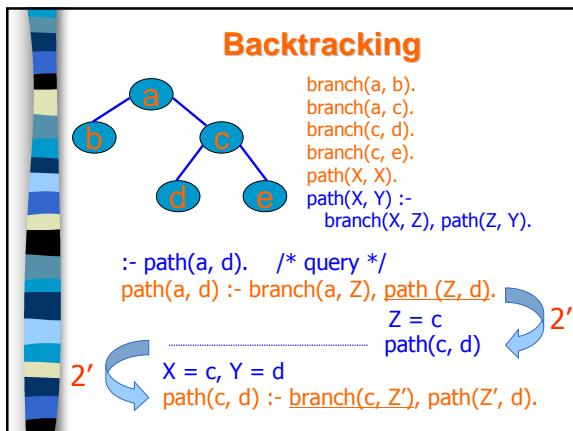
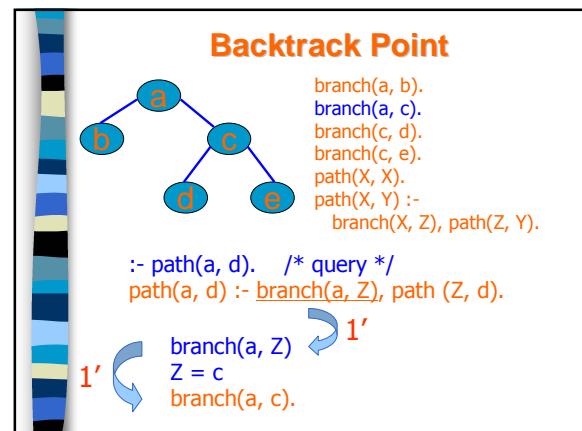
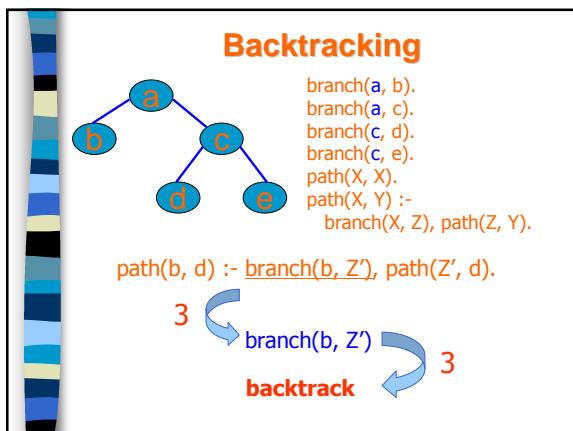
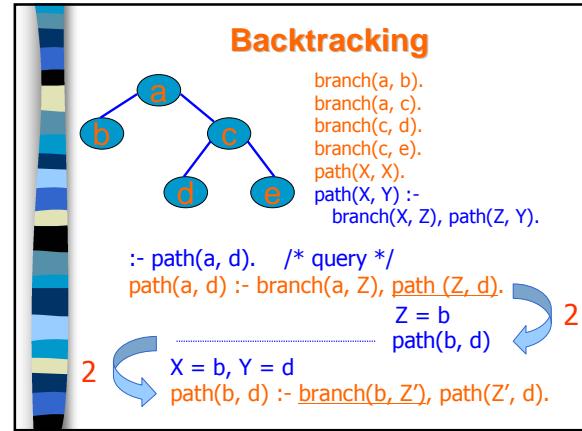
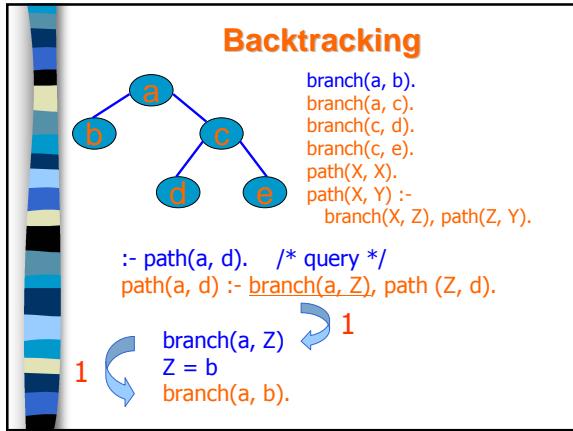
Backtracking: systematic search for alternatives

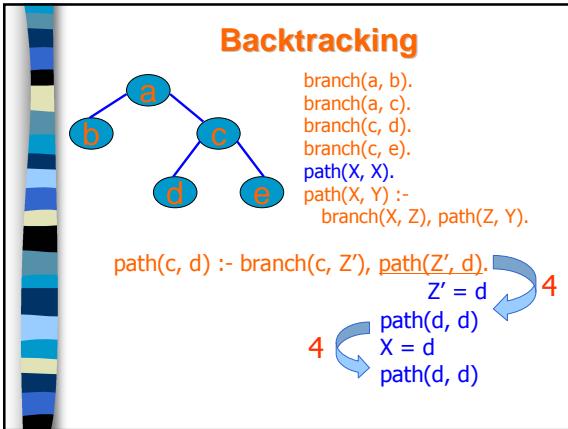
Example: search for paths in tree T



Backtracking

```
branch(a, b).  
branch(a, c).  
branch(c, d).  
branch(c, e).  
path(X, X).  
path(X, Y) :-  
  branch(X, Z), path(Z, Y).
```





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

- ### Inversion of Computation (2)
- Prolog concatenation of lists:
`concat([], U, U).`
`concat([X|U], V, [X|W]) :- concat(U, V, W).`
 - concat** as constructor:
`?- concat([a, b], [c, d], X).`
`X = [a, b, c, d]`
 - concat** used for decomposition:
`?- 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 fail 1, match 2  
 X = b; backtracking  
 X = a match 2  
 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  
 :  
 Stack overflow !



### 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];
```

Stack overflow !

### Order of Conditions (3)

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

- Trace:
 

```
?- 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)

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

- Trace:
 

```
?- 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'). subcall
 s(0) = s(M). ...
```

### 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];

no ↲
```

### 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

### Enforcing Backtracking: **fail**

- ```
?- fail.  
no
```

 (no match)
- Program:


```
p(a).  
p(b).
```

 Query:


```
?- p(X).  
X = a
```

 (match)


```
yes
```

The diagram illustrates the execution of a Prolog program. On the left, there is a vertical decorative bar with horizontal stripes in various colors (blue, green, yellow, red). The main content is centered and organized into two main sections:

- Fail - no Recursion** (in orange)
- Program:** (in blue)
 - p(a).
 - p(b).
 - p(X) :- q(X).
 - q(c).
- Query:** (in blue)
 - ?- p(X), write(X), nl, fail.

Below the query, the possible values for X are listed: **a**, **b**, **c**, and **no**. A large blue curved arrow originates from the word **fail.** and points to the word **backtracking** at the bottom center. The word **backtracking** is written in red text.



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

■ Query/call:
?- member(Z,[a,b]), write(Z), nl, fail.
Z = X, X = a match 1
?- write(a), nl, fail.
a **backtracking**
?- member(Z,[a,b]), write(Z), nl, fail.
Z = X, Y = [b] match 2



Controlling Backtracking: !

- Procedural meaning of the **cut** !:
 $A :- B1, B2, !, B3, B4.$
 Search for alternatives
 Search for alternatives
 !
 Stop searching

The diagram illustrates the execution of a Prolog program. On the left, a vertical stack of colored bars (blue, red, green, yellow) represents the stack or environment. To its right, the word "Cut" is written in large orange letters. Below these, the word "Program:" is in blue, followed by the program code:

```

Program:
p(a).
p(b).
q(X) :- p(X), r(X).
r(Y) :- !, t(Y).
r(a).
t(c).

```

To the right of the program, the word "Execution:" is in blue, followed by the execution trace:

```

Execution:
?- q(Z).
Z = X
?- p(X), r(X).
X = a
?- r(a).
Y = a
?- t(a).
fail, no
! backtracking
to r(a).
Try X = b

```

A large blue curved arrow points from the program to the execution trace, indicating the flow of execution. A small orange exclamation mark icon is placed near the bottom of the arrow.



Various Applications of !

- Cut as commitment operator:

if $X < 3$ then $Y = 0$

if $X \geq 3$ and $X < 6$ then $Y = 2$

if $X \geq 6$ then $Y = 4$
- Prolog:

```
t(X, 0) :- X < 3.  
t(X, 2) :- X >= 3, X < 6.  
t(X, 4) :- X >= 6.
```

Commitment Operator

- Cut as commitment operator:

```
/*1*/ t(X, 0) :- X < 3.  
/*2*/ t(X, 2) :- X >= 3, X < 6.  
/*3*/ t(X, 4) :- X >= 6.
```

- Execution trace:

?- <u>t(1, Y)</u> , Y > 2.	match 1
?- <u>1 < 3</u> , 0 > 2.	
?- <u>0 > 2</u> .	fail 1
?- <u>1 >= 3</u> , 1 < 6, 1 > 2.	match 2
?- ...	fail 2
?- <u>1 >= 6</u> , 4 > 2.	match 3, fail 3

⑧

Commitment Operator

- Cut as commitment operator:

```
/*1*/ t(X, 0) :- X < 3, !.  
/*2*/ t(X, 2) :- X >= 3, X < 6, !.  
/*3*/ t(X, 4) :- X >= 6.
```

- Execution trace:

?- <u>t(1, Y)</u> , Y > 2.	match 1
?- <u>1 < 3</u> , !, 0 > 2.	
?- !, <u>0 > 2</u> .	fail 1
no	😊

Various Applications of !

- Cut used for removal of conditions:

```
min(X, Y) is X if X ≤ Y  
min(X, Y) is Y if X > Y
```

- Prolog:

```
min(X, Y, X) :- X =  
min(X, Y, Y) :- X > Y.
```

- Execution:

?- min(3, 5, Z).	
?- 3 = Z = 3	match 1
	yes

Removal of Conditions

- Cut used for removal of conditions:

```
min(X, Y, Z) :-  
    X =  
    Z = X,  
    min(X, Y, Y).
```

- Execution:

?- min(3, 5, W).	
?- 3 = W = 3.	match 1
W = 3	yes

Removal of Conditions

- Cut used for removal of conditions:

```
min(X, Y, Z → X) :-  
    X =  
    Z = X.      why included?  
    min(X, Y, Y).
```

- Execution:

?- min(3, 5, 5).	
	fail 1, match 2
yes	

Change in Meaning?

- Cut used for removal of conditions:

```
min(X, Y, Z) :-  
    X =  
    (! omitted)  
    Z = X,  
    min(X, Y, Y).
```

- Execution:

?- min(3, 5, W), W = 5.	
?- 3 = W = 5.	match 1
?- 5 = 3, W = 5.	fail
?- W = 5.	match 2 (with Y = 5 = W)
W = 5	
yes	

Negation by Failure

- Simulation of negation: `not(p)` is true if `p` is false (fails):
`not(X) :- call(X), !, fail.`
`not(X).`

- **Example:**

```
p(a).  
q(X) :- p(X), not(r(X)).  
r(c).  
?- q(Y).  
yes
```

Single Solution

- Circumvention of double search:
`/*1*/ member(X, [X|_]) :- !.`
`/*2*/ member(X,[_|Y]) :- member(X,Y).`

- **Example:**

```
?- member(a, [a, b, a]).  
yes  
?- member(X, [a, b]).  
X = a;  
no
```

Green and Red Cuts

- **Green cut:**

- when omitted, does not change declarative (logical) meaning of program
- used to increase efficiency

- **Red cut:**

- when omitted, declarative meaning of program is changed
- used for efficiency
- used to enforce termination

Green and Red Cuts

- **Green cut:**

- commitment operator

- **Red cut:**

- removal of conditions
- cut-fail combination (see notes)
- single solution

Prolog Database

- The working environment of Prolog, containing all loaded Prolog programs is called: the 'database'
- The database can be manipulated by the programs themselves
- Compare: Pascal program that modifies itself during execution

Prolog 'Database'

