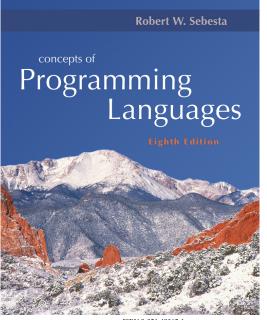
Chapter 16

Logic Programming Languages



ISBN 0-321-49362-1

Introduction

- Logic programming languages, sometimes called declarative programming languages
- Express programs in a form of symbolic logic
- Use a logical inferencing process to produce results
- Declarative rather that procedural:
 - Only specification of results are stated (not detailed procedures for producing them)

Chapter 16 Topics

- Introduction
- A Brief Introduction to Predicate Calculus
- Predicate Calculus and Proving Theorems
- An Overview of Logic Programming
- The Origins of Prolog
- The Basic Elements of Prolog
- Deficiencies of Prolog
- Applications of Logic Programming

Proposition

- A logical statement that may or may not be true
 - Consists of objects and relationships of objects to each other

Symbolic Logic

- Logic which can be used for the basic needs of formal logic:
 - Express propositions
 - Express relationships between propositions
 - Describe how new propositions can be inferred from other propositions
- Particular form of symbolic logic used for logic programming called predicate calculus

Object Representation

- Objects in propositions are represented by simple terms: either constants or variables
- Constant: a symbol that represents an object
- Variable: a symbol that can represent different objects at different times
 - Different from variables in imperative languages

Compound Terms

- Atomic propositions consist of compound terms
- Compound term: one element of a mathematical relation, written like a mathematical function
 - Mathematical function is a mapping
 - Can be written as a table

Parts of a Compound Term

- Compound term composed of two parts
 - Functor: function symbol that names the relationship
 - Ordered list of parameters (tuple)
- Examples:
 - student(jon)
 like(ubbo, OSX)
 like(nick, windows)
 like(jim, linux)

Forms of a Proposition

- Propositions can be stated in two forms:
 - Fact: proposition is assumed to be true
 - Query: truth of proposition is to be determined
- Compound proposition:
 - Have two or more atomic propositions
 - Propositions are connected by operators

Logical Operators

Name	Symbol	Example	Meaning
negation	7	¬ a	not a
conjunction	\cap	a∩b	a and b
disjunction	U	a ∪ b	a or b
equivalence	=	a = b	a is equivalent to b
implication		a⊃b a⊂b	a implies b b implies a

Quantifiers

Name	Example	Meaning
universal	∀X.P	For all X, P is true
existential	9.XE	There exists a value of X such that P is true

Clausal Form

- •Too many ways to state the same thing
- •Use a standard form for propositions
- Clausal form:
- $\mathbf{B}_1 \cup \mathbf{B}_2 \cup \ldots \cup \mathbf{B}_n \subset \mathbf{A}_1 \cap \mathbf{A}_2 \cap \ldots \cap \mathbf{A}_m$
- means if all the As are true, then at least one B is true
- Antecedent: right side
- Consequent: left side

Predicate Calculus and Proving Theorems

- A use of propositions is to discover new theorems that can be inferred from known axioms and theorems
- Resolution: an inference principle that allows inferred propositions to be computed from given propositions

Proof by Contradiction

- Hypotheses: a set of pertinent propositions
- Goal: negation of theorem stated as a proposition
- Theorem is proved by finding an inconsistency

Resolution

- Unification: finding values for variables in propositions that allows matching process to succeed
- Instantiation: assigning temporary values to variables to allow unification to succeed
- After instantiating a variable with a value, if matching fails, may need to backtrack and instantiate with a different value

Theorem Proving

- Basis for logic programming
- When propositions used for resolution, only restricted form can be used
- Horn clause can have only two forms
 - Headed: single atomic proposition on left side
 - Headless: empty left side (used to state facts)
- Most propositions can be stated as Horn clauses

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Overview of Logic Programming

- Declarative semantics
 - There is a simple way to determine the meaning of each statement
 - Simpler than the semantics of imperative languages
- Programming is nonprocedural
 - Programs do not state now a result is to be computed, but rather the form of the result

Example: Sorting a List

• Describe the characteristics of a sorted list, not the process of rearranging a list

sort(old_list, new_list) \subset permute (old_list, new_list) \cap sorted (new_list)

sorted (list) $\subset \forall_i$ such that $1 \le j < n$, list(j) \le list (j+1)

The Origins of Prolog

- University of Aix-Marseille
 - Natural language processing
- University of Edinburgh
 - Automated theorem proving

Terms

- Edinburgh Syntax
- Term: a constant, variable, or structure
- Constant: an atom or an integer
- Atom: symbolic value of Prolog
- Atom consists of either:
 - a string of letters, digits, and underscores beginning with a lowercase letter
 - a string of printable ASCII characters delimited by apostrophes

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Terms: Variables and Structures

- Variable: any string of letters, digits, and underscores beginning with an uppercase letter
- Instantiation: binding of a variable to a value
 - Lasts only as long as it takes to satisfy one complete goal
- Structure: represents atomic proposition

functor (parameter list)

Rule Statements

- Used for the hypotheses
- Headed Horn clause
- Right side: antecedent (if part)
 - May be single term or conjunction
- · Left side: consequent (then part)
 - Must be single term
- Conjunction: multiple terms separated by logical AND operations (implied)

Fact Statements

- Used for the hypotheses
- Headless Horn clauses
 - female(shelley).
 male(bill).
 father(bill, jake).

Example Rules

ancestor(mary,shelley):- mother(mary,shelley).

• Can use variables (universal objects) to generalize meaning:

Goal Statements

- For theorem proving, theorem is in form of proposition that we want system to prove or disprove - goal statement
- Same format as headless Horn man(fred)
- Conjunctive propositions and propositions with variables also legal goals

father(X,mike)

Approaches

- Bottom-up resolution, forward chaining
 - Begin with facts and rules of database and attempt to find sequence that leads to goal
 - Works well with a large set of possibly correct answers
- Top-down resolution, backward chaining
 - Begin with goal and attempt to find sequence that leads to set of facts in database
 - Works well with a small set of possibly correct answers
- Prolog implementations use backward chaining

Inferencing Process of Prolog

- Queries are called goals
- If a goal is a compound proposition, each of the facts is a subgoal
- To prove a goal is true, must find a chain of inference rules and/or facts. For goal Q:
 - B :- A C :- B
 - Q :- P
- Process of proving a subgoal called matching, satisfying, or resolution

Subgoal Strategies

- When goal has more than one subgoal, can use either
 - Depth-first search: find a complete proof for the first subgoal before working on others
 - Breadth-first search: work on all subgoals in parallel
- Prolog uses depth-first search
 - Can be done with fewer computer resources

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Backtracking

- With a goal with multiple subgoals, if fail to show truth of one of subgoals, reconsider previous subgoal to find an alternative solution: backtracking
- Begin search where previous search left off
- Can take lots of time and space because may find all possible proofs to every subgoal

Simple Arithmetic

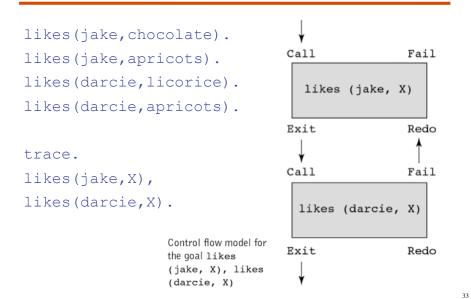
- Prolog supports integer variables and integer arithmetic
- is operator: takes an arithmetic expression as right operand and variable as left operand
 A is B / 17 + C
- Not the same as an assignment statement!

Example

Trace

- Built-in structure that displays instantiations at each step
- Tracing model of execution four events:
 - Call (beginning of attempt to satisfy goal)
 - Exit (when a goal has been satisfied)
 - Redo (when backtrack occurs)
 - Fail (when goal fails)

Example



Example	likes(darcie,apricots).				
(1) 1 Call:	<pre>likes(jake,_0)?</pre>	Ļ	P _ (1)		
(1) 1 Exit:	likes(jake,chocolate)	Call	Fail		
(2) 1 Call:	<pre>likes(darcie, chocolate)?</pre>	likes (jake, 1	X)		
(2) 1 Fail:	likes(darcie,chocolate)				
(1) 1 Redo:	<pre>likes(jake,_0)?</pre>	Exit	Redo		
(1) 1 Exit:	likes(jake,apricots)	↓ ↓	Î		
(3) 1 Call:	likes(darcie,apricots)?	Call	Fail		
(3) 1 Exit:	likes(darcie,apricots)	likes (darcie,	X)		
	Control flow model for 1 the goal likes (jake, X), likes (darcie, X)	Exit ↓	Redo 34		

likes(jake,chocolate).
likes(jake,apricots).

likes (darcie, licorice).

List Structures

- Other basic data structure (besides atomic propositions we have already seen): list
- · List is a sequence of any number of elements
- Elements can be atoms, atomic propositions, or other terms (including other lists)

[apple, prune, grape, kumquat]

[] (empty list)

[X | Y] (head X and tail Y)

Append Example

Example

```
append([], List, List).
append([Head|List_1],List_2,[Head|List_3]) :-
append(List 1, List 2, List 3).
```

Reverse Example

reverse([],[]).

reverse([Head|Tail],List) :reverse(Tail, Result),
append(Result,[Head],List).

Deficiencies of Prolog

- Resolution order control
- The closed-world assumption
- The negation problem
- Intrinsic limitations

Applications of Logic Programming

- Relational database management systems
- Expert systems
- Natural language processing

Summary

- Symbolic logic provides basis for logic programming
- Logic programs should be nonprocedural
- Prolog statements are facts, rules, or goals
- Resolution is the primary activity of a Prolog interpreter
- Although there are a number of drawbacks with the current state of logic programming it has been used in a number of areas