

Rule-based Programming, Logic Programming and Prolog

What is Logic Programming?

There are many (overlapping) perspectives on logic programming

- Computations as Deduction
- Theorem Proving
- Non-procedural Programming
- Algorithms minus Control
- A Very High Level Programming Language
- A Procedural Interpretation of Declarative Specifications

The Paradigm

- An important programming paradigm is to express a program as a set of rules
- The rules are independent and often unordered
- CFGs can be thought of as a rule based system
- We'll take a brief look at a particular sub-paradigm, [Logic Programming](#)
- And at Prolog, the most successful of the logic programming languages

History

- Logic Programming has roots going back to early AI researchers like John McCarthy in the 50s & 60s
- [Alain Colmerauer](#) (France) designed [Prolog](#) as the first LP language in the early 1970s
- [Bob Kowalski](#) and colleagues in the UK evolved the language to its current form in the late 70s
- It's been widely used for many AI systems, but also for systems that need a fast, efficient and clean rule based engine
- The prolog model has also influenced the database community – see [datalog](#)

Computation as Deduction

- Logic programming offers a slightly different paradigm for computation: *computation is logical deduction*
- It uses the language of logic to express data and programs.
Forall X, Y: *X is the father of Y if X is a parent of Y and X is male*
- Current logic programming languages use first order logic (FOL) which is often referred to as first order predicate calculus (FOPC).
- The *first order* refers to the constraint that we can quantify (i.e. generalize) over objects, but not over functions or relations. We can express "*All elephants are mammals*" but not
"for every continuous function f, if $n < m$ and $f(n) < 0$ and $f(m) > 0$ then there exists an x such that $n < x < m$ and $f(x) = 0$ "

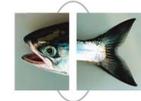
Theorem Proving

- Logic Programming uses the notion of an *automatic theorem prover* as an interpreter.
- The theorem prover derives a desired solution from an initial set of axioms.
- The proof must be a "constructive" one so that more than a true/false answer can be obtained
- E.G. The answer to
exists x such that $x = \text{sqrt}(16)$
- should be
 $x = 4$ or $x = -4$
- rather than
true

Non-procedural Programming

- Logic Programming languages are non-procedural programming languages
- A non-procedural language one in which one specifies **what** needs to be computed but not **how** it is to be done
- That is, one specifies:
 - the set of objects involved in the computation
 - the relationships which hold between them
 - the constraints which must hold for the problem to be solved
- and leaves it up to the language interpreter or compiler to decide **how** to satisfy the constraints

A Declarative Example



- Here's a simple way to specify what has to be true if X is the smallest number in a list of numbers L
 1. X has to be a member of the list L
 2. There can be list member X2 such that $X2 < X$
- We need to say how we determine that some X is a member of a list
 1. No X is a member of the empty list
 2. X is a member of list L if it is equal to L's head
 3. X is a member of list L if it is a member of L's tail.

A Simple Prolog Model

Think of Prolog as a system which has a database composed of two components:

- **facts:** statements about true relations which hold between particular objects in the world. For example:
parent(adam, able). % adam is a parent of able
parent(eve, able). % eve is a parent of able
male(adam). % adam is male.
- **rules:** statements about relations between objects in the world which use variables to express generalizations
% X is the father of Y if X is a parent of Y and X is male
father(X,Y) :- parent(X, Y), male(X).
% X is a sibling of Y if X and Y share a parent
sibling(X,Y) :- parent(P,X), parent(P,Y)

Nomenclature and Syntax

- A prolog rule is called a **clause**
- A clause has a head, a neck and a body:

```
father(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y), male(X) .
```

head neck body
- the **head** is a single predicate -- the rule's conclusion
- The **body** is a sequence of zero or more predicates that are the rule's premise or condition
- An empty body means the rule's head is a fact.
- **note:**
 - read :- as IF
 - read , as AND between predicates
 - a . marks the end of input

Prolog Database

```
parent(adam,able)
parent(adam,cain)
male(adam)
...
```

Facts comprising the
“extensional database”

```
father(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y),
               male(X).
sibling(X,Y) :- ...
```

Rules comprising the
“intensional database”

Queries

- We also have queries in addition to having facts and rules
- The Prolog REPL interprets input as queries
- A simple query is just a predicate that might have variables in it:
 - parent(adam, cain)
 - parent(adam, X)


```

?- [user].
| sibling(X,Y) :-
|   father(Pa,X),
|   father(Pa,Y),
|   mother(Ma,X),
|   mother(Ma,Y),
|   not(X=Y).

```

^Zuser consulted 152 bytes 0.0500008 sec.

```

yes
| ?- sibling(X,Y).
X = able
Y = cain ;
X = cain
Y = able ;

```

```

trace sibling(X,Y).
(2) 1 Call sibling_0_11 ?
(3) 2 Call father_65641_0 ?
(4) 3 Call parent_65641_0 ?
(4) 3 Exit parent(adam,able)
(5) 3 Call male(adam) ?
(5) 3 Exit male(adam)
(6) 2 Call father(adam,able)
(6) 2 Call father(adam,1) ?
(7) 3 Call parent(adam,1) ?
(7) 3 Exit parent(adam,able)
(8) 3 Call male(adam) ?
(8) 3 Exit male(adam)
(8) 3 Call male(adam)
(8) 3 Exit male(adam)
(9) 2 Call mother_65644_able ?
(9) 2 Call mother_65644_able ?
(10) 3 Call parent_65644_able ?
(10) 3 Exit parent(adam,able)
(11) 3 Call female(adam) ?
(11) 3 Fail female(adam)
(10) 3 Back to parent_65644_able ?
(10) 3 Exit parent_65644_able ?
(10) 3 Exit parent_65644_able ?
(10) 3 Exit parent_65644_able ?
(12) 3 Call female(eve) ?
(12) 3 Exit female(eve)
(9) 2 Exit mother(eve,able)
(14) 3 Call parent_65641_able ?
(14) 3 Exit parent_65641_able ?
(15) 3 Call female(eve) ?
(15) 3 Exit female(eve)
(13) 2 Exit mother(eve,able)
(16) 2 Call not_able_able ?
(17) 3 Call able_able ?
(17) 3 Exit able_able
(16) 2 Back to not_able_able ?
(16) 2 Fail not_able_able
(15) 3 Back to female(eve) ?
(15) 3 Exit female(eve)
(14) 3 Back to parent_65641_able ?
(14) 3 Fail parent_65641_able ?
(13) 2 Fail mother(eve,able)
(12) 3 Back to female(eve) ?
(12) 3 Exit female(eve)
(10) 3 Back to parent_65644_able ?
(10) 3 Exit parent_65644_able ?
(8) 3 Back to male(adam) ?
(8) 3 Fail male(adam)
(7) 3 Back to parent(adam,1) ?
(7) 3 Exit parent(adam,cain)
(6) 2 Call mother_65644_able ?
(6) 2 Exit mother_65644_able ?
(5) 3 Exit father(adam,cain)
(5) 3 Exit father(adam,cain)
(4) 3 Back to parent_65641_able ?
(4) 3 Fail parent_65641_able ?
(3) 2 Back to mother(eve,able) ?
(3) 2 Exit mother(eve,able)
(2) 1 Exit sibling_0_11
X = able
Y = cain
yes no
| ?

```

Program files

Typically you put your assertions (fact and rules) into a file and load it

```

[? : [genesis].
[consulting /afs/umbc.edu/users/f/i/finin/home/genesis.pl...
[afs/umbc.edu/users/f/i/finin/home/genesis.pl consulted, 0 msec 2720
bytes]
yes
| ?- male(adam).
yes
| ?- sibling(P1, P2).
P1 = cain,
P2 = cain ? ;
P1 = cain,
P2 = able ? ;
P1 = cain,
P2 = cain ? ;
P1 = cain,
P2 = able ? ;
P1 = able,
P2 = cain ? ;
P1 = able,
P2 = able ? ;
P1 = able,
P2 = cain ? ;
P1 = able,
P2 = able ? ;
no
| ?

```

```
[finin@linux2 ~]$ more genesis.pl
```

% prolog example

```

% facts
male(adam).
female(eve).
parent(adam,cain).
parent(eve,cain).
parent(adam,able).
parent(eve,able).

```

% rules

```

father(X,Y) :-
  parent(X,Y),
  male(X).
mother(X,Y) :-
  parent(X,Y),
  female(X).
sibling(X,Y) :-
  parent(P,X),
  parent(P,Y),
  child(X,Y) :- parent(Y,X).

```

How to Satisfy a Goal

Here is an informal description of how Prolog satisfies a goal (like father(adam,X)). Suppose the goal is G:

- if G = P,Q then first satisfy P, carry any variable bindings forward to Q, and then satisfy Q.
- if G = P;Q then satisfy P. If that fails, then try to satisfy Q.
- if G = not(P) then try to satisfy P. If this succeeds, then fail and if it fails, then succeed.
- if G is a simple goal, then look for a fact in the DB that unifies with G look for a rule whose conclusion unifies with G and try to satisfy its body

Note

- Two basic conditions are true, which always succeeds, and fail, which always fails.
- Comma (,) represents conjunction (i.e. and).
- Semi-colon represents disjunction (i.e. or):
grandParent(X,Y) :-
 grandFather(X,Y);
 grandMother(X,Y).
- No real distinction between rules and facts. A fact is just a rule whose body is the trivial condition true. These are equivalent:
-parent(adam,cain).
-parent(adam,cain) :- true.

Note

- Goals can usually be posed with any of several combination of variables and constants:
 - parent(cain,able) - is Cain Able's parent?
 - parent(cain,X) - Who is a child of Cain?
 - parent(X,cain) - Who is Cain a child of?
 - parent(X,Y) - What two people have a parent/child relationship?

Terms

- The term is the basic data structure in Prolog.
- The term is to Prolog what the s-expression is to Lisp.
- A term is either:
 - a constant - e.g.
 - john , 13, 3.1415, +, 'a constant'
 - a variable - e.g.
 - X, Var, _, _foo
 - a compound term - e.g.
 - part(arm,body)
 - part(arm(john),body(john))

Compound Terms

- A compound term can be thought of as a relation between one or more terms:
 - part_of(finger,hand)
- and is written as:
 - the relation name (called the principle functor) which must be a constant.
 - An open parenthesis
 - The arguments - one or more terms separated by commas.
 - A closing parenthesis.
- The number of arguments of a compound terms is called its arity.

Term	arity
f	0
f(a)	1
f(a,b)	2
f(g(a),b)	2

Lists

- Lists are so useful there is special syntax to support them, tho they are just terms
- It's like Python: [1, [2, 3], 4, foo]
- But matching is special
 - If $L = [1,2,3,4]$ then $L = [Head | Tail]$ results in Head being bound to 1 and Tail to [2,3,4]
 - If $L = [4]$ then $L = [Head | Tail]$ results in Head being bound to 4 and Tail to []

member

% member(X,L) is true if X is a member of list L.

```
member(X, [X|Tail]).
```

```
member(X, [Head|Tail]) :- member(X, Tail).
```

min

% min(X, L) is true if X is the smallest member
% of a list of numbers L

```
min(X, L) :-
```

```
member(X, L),
```

```
\+ (member(Y,L), Y>X).
```

- \+ is Prolog's negation operator
- It's really "negation as failure"
- \+ G is false if goal G can be proven
- \+ G is true if G can not be proven
- i.e., assume its false if you can not prove it to be true

Computations

- Numerical computations can be done in logic, but its messy and inefficient
- Prolog provides a simple limited way to do computations
- <variable> is <expression> succeeds if <variable> can be unified with the value produced by <expression>
 - ?- X=2, Y=4, Z is X+Y.
X = 2,
Y = 4,
Z = 6.
 - ?- X=2, Y=4, X is X+Y.
false.

From Functions to Relations

- Prolog facts and rules define *relations*, not *functions*
- Consider age as:
 - A function: calling *age(john)* returns 22
 - As a relation: querying *age(john, 22)* returns true, *age(john, X)* binds X to 22, and *age(john, X)* is false for every $X \neq 22$
- Relations are more general than functions
- The typical way to define a function **f** with inputs $i_1 \dots i_n$ and output **o** is as: **f(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n, o)**

A numerical example

- Here's how we might define the factorial relation in Prolog.

```
fact(1,1).  
fact(N,M) :-  
    N > 1,  
    N1 is N-1,  
    fact(N1,M1),  
    M is M1*N.
```

```
def fact(n):  
    if n==1:  
        return 1  
    else:  
        n1 = n-1  
        m1 = fact(n1)  
        m = m1 * n  
    return m
```

Another example:
square(X,Y) :- Y is X*X.

Prolog = PROgramming in LOGic

- Prolog is as much a programming language as it is a theorem prover
- It has a simple, well defined and controllable reasoning strategy that programmers can exploit for efficiency and predictability
- It has basic data structures (e.g., Lists) and can link to routines in other languages
- It's a great tool for many problems