

CS5201: Advanced Artificial Intelligence

Prolog programming



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What is Prolog?

- Invented early seventies by Alain Colmerauer in France and Robert Kowalski in Britain
- Prolog = Programmation en Logique (Programming in Logic).
- Prolog is a declarative programming language unlike most common programming languages.
- In a declarative language
 - The programmer specifies a goal to be achieved
 - The Prolog system works out how to achieve it
- In purely declarative languages, the programmer only states what the problem is and leaves the rest to the language system

Relations

- Prolog programs specify relationships among objects and properties of objects
- When we say, "Ayesha owns the pen", we are declaring the ownership relationship between two objects: Ayesha and the pen.
- When we ask, "Does Ayesha own the pen?" we are trying to find out about a relationship
- Relationships can also be rules such as:
 - Two people are sisters if – they are both female AND they have the same parents.
- In traditional programming relationship may be defined as
 - A and B are sisters if – A and B are both female AND they have the same father AND they have the same mother AND A is not the same as B
- A rule allows us to find out about a relationship even if the relationship is not explicitly stated as a fact

Programming prolog

- Declare **facts** describing explicit relationships between objects and properties objects might have (e.g. Subodh likes pizza, sky has_colour blue)
- Declare **rules** defining implicit relationships between objects and/or rules defining implicit object properties (e.g. X is a parent if there is a Y such that Y is a child of X).
- Then the system can be used by:
 - Asking questions about relationships between objects, and/or about object properties (e.g. does Subodh like pizza? is Ayesha a parent?)

Prolog & Predicate logic

- Prolog is a programming language based on predicate logic.
 - A Prolog program attempts to prove a goal, such as `brother(Barney,x)`, from a set of facts and rules.
 - In the process of proving the goal to be true, using substitution and the other rules of inference, Prolog substitutes values for the variables in the goal, thereby "computing" an answer.
- How does Prolog know which facts and which rules to use in the proof?
 - Prolog uses **unification** to determine when two clauses can be made equivalent by a substitution of variables.
 - The unification procedure is used to instantiate the variables in a goal clause based on the facts and rules in the database.

Tools

- **GNU prolog** - `gplc`, `gprolog`
- **SWI-Prolog** - <https://swi-prolog.org>
- **Online tool**
 - <https://swish.swi-prolog.org/>
 - https://www.onlinegdb.com/online_prolog_compiler

A simple Prolog program

```
male(albert).  
male(edward).  
female(alice).  
female(victoria).  
parent(albert,edward).  
parent(victoria,edward).  
father(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y), male(X).      %  $\forall X \forall Y ((parent(X, Y) \wedge male(X)) \rightarrow father(X, Y))$   
mother(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y), female(X).    %  $\forall X \forall Y ((parent(X, Y) \wedge female(X)) \rightarrow mother(X, Y))$ 
```

- A fact/rule (statement) ends with "." and white space ignored
- Read ':-' after RULE HEAD as "if"
- Read comma in body as "and"
- Comment a line with % or use /* */ for multi-line comments

Facts & Rules

- The Prolog environment maintains a set of facts and rules in its database.
 - Facts are axioms; relations between terms that are assumed to be true.
 - Rules are theorems that allow new inferences to be made.

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 - Facts are axioms; relations between terms that are assumed to be true.
 - Rules are theorems that allow new inferences to be made.
- Example facts & rules:
 - `male(adam).`
 - `female(anne).`
 - `parent(adam,barney).`
 - `son(X,Y) :- parent(Y,X) , male(X).`
 - `daughter(X,Y) :- parent(Y,X) , female(X).`
- The first rule is read as follows: for all X and Y, X is the son of Y if there exists X and Y such that Y is the parent of X and X is male. $\forall X \forall Y ((parent(Y, X) \wedge male(X)) \rightarrow son(X, Y))$
- The second rule is read as follows: for all X and Y, X is the daughter of Y if there exists X and Y such that Y is the parent of X and X is female. $\forall X \forall Y ((parent(Y, X) \wedge female(X)) \rightarrow daughter(X, Y))$

Horn clauses

- To simplify the resolution process in Prolog, statements must be expressed in a simplified form, called Horn clauses.
 - Statements are constructed from terms.
 - Each statement (clause) has (at most) one term on the left hand side of an implication symbol (:-).
 - Each statement has a conjunction of zero or more terms on the right hand side.
 - **Example:** $p_1 \wedge p_2 \wedge \dots \rightarrow q \equiv \neg p_1 \vee \neg p_2 \vee \dots \vee q$
- Prolog has three kinds of statements, corresponding to the structure of the Horn clause used.
 - A **fact** is a clause with an empty right hand side.
 - A **question (or goal)** is a clause with an empty left hand side.
 - A **rule** is a clause with terms on both sides.

Execution of Prolog program

```
male(albert).
male(edward).
female(alice).
female(victoria).
parent(albert,edward).
parent(victoria,edward).
father(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y), male(X).
mother(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y), female(X).
```

Query:

```
male(X).           %  $\exists X$  male(X)
father(F,edward).  %  $\exists F$  father(F, edward)
father(F,C).       %  $\exists F \exists C$  father(F, C)
```

```
$> gplc family.pl
$> ./family
?- male(albert).
yes
?- male(victoria).
no
?- male(subodh).
no
?- male(X).
X = albert ? ;
X = edward
?- father(F,C).
F=albert, C=edward ? ;
no
```

Observation about Prolog rules

- The implication is from right to left
- The scope of a variable is the clause in which it appears.
- Variables whose first appearance is on the left hand side of the clause have implicit universal quantifiers.
- Variables whose first appearance is on the right hand side of the clause have implicit existential quantifiers.

Basic syntax of Prolog: Terms

- Constants:
 - Identifiers - sequences of letters, digits, or "_" that start with lower case letters.
 - Numbers - 1.001
 - Strings enclosed in single quotes
 - Can start with upper case letter or can be a number now treated as a string
- Variables:
 - Sequence of letters digits or "_" that start with an upper case letter or the _
 - Underscore by itself is the special "anonymous" variable
- Structures (like function applications)
 - <identifier>(Term-1,...,Term-k)
 - date(20, April, 2020), point(X, Y, Z)
 - Definition can be recursive, so each term can itself be a structure
 - date(+ (5, 15), April, + (2000, - (140, 120)))
 - Structures can be represented as tree

Arithmetic and logical operators

- Arithmetic operations: +, -, *, /
 - The "is" operator forces arithmetic evaluation
 - ?- X is 3 + 8.
- Logical operators: >, <, >=, <=
 - $x =:= y$ (equality check)
 - $x \neq y$ (inequality check)

Syntax of Prolog: Lists

- Lists are a very useful data structure in Prolog
- Lists are structured terms represented in a special way - `[a, b, c, d]`
 - This is actually structured term - `[a | [b | [c | [d | []]]]]`
 - In the above `[]` denotes empty list
 - Each list is thus of the form `[<head> | <tail>]`
 - `<head>` is an element of the list (not necessary a list itself)
 - `<tail>` is a list / sublist
 - Also, `[a,b,c,d] = [a | [b,c,d]] = [a,b | [c,d]] = [a,b,c | [d]]`
- This structure has important implications when it comes to matching variables against lists!

Syntax of Prolog: Predicates

- Predicates are syntactically identical to structured items – <identifier>(Term-1,...,Term-k)
 - male(edward)
 - parent(edward,albert)
 - taller_than(subodh,shyam)
 - likes(X)
 - Note that X is a variable. X can take on any term as value so that this fact asserts
- Facts make assertion

Syntax of Prolog: Facts and Rules

- Rules: `PredicateH :- predicate-1, ..., predicate-k.`
 - First predicate is *rule head*. Terminated by a period
 - Rules encode ways of deriving or computing a new fact
 - `animal(X) :- elephant(X).` - X can be concluded to be animal if it shown that X is elephant
 - `taller_than(X,Y) :- height(X,H1), height(Y,H2), H1 > H2.`
 - `father(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y), male(X).`

Operation of Prolog

- A query is a sequence of predicates: predicate-1, predicate-2, ..., predicate-k
- Prolog tries to prove that this sequence of predicates is true using the facts and rules in the Prolog Program.
- In proving the sequence it performs the computation you want.
- Example:
 - elephant(fred).
 - elephant(mary).
 - elephant(joe).
 - animal(fred) :- elephant(fred).
 - animal(mary) :- elephant(mary).
 - animal(joe) :- elephant(joe).
 - QUERY: animal(fred), animal(mary), animal(joe).

Operation

- Starting with the first predicate P1 of the query Prolog examines the program from TOP to BOTTOM.
- It finds the first RULE HEAD or FACT that matches P1
- Then it replaces P1 with the RULE BODY.
- If P1 is matched a FACT, we can think of FACTs as having empty bodies (so P1 is simply removed).
- The result is a new query.
- Example
 - P1 :- Q1, Q2, Q3.
 - QUERY: P1, P2, P3.
 - P1 matches with the rule, therefore, new QUERY: Q1, Q2, Q3, P2, P3.

Execution of Prolog program

```
elephant(fred).  
elephant(mary).  
elephant(joe).  
animal(fred) :- elephant(fred).  
animal(mary) :- elephant(mary).  
animal(joe) :- elephant(joe).  
QUERY: animal(fred), animal(mary), animal(joe).
```

```
1. elephant(fred), animal(mary), animal(joe).  
2. animal(mary), animal(joe).  
3. elephant(mary), animal(joe).  
4. animal(joe).  
5. elephant(joe).  
6. EMPTY QUERY
```

Operation

- If this process reduces the query to the empty query, Prolog returns "yes".
- However, during this process each predicate in the query might match more than one fact or rule head
 - Prolog always choose the first match it finds. Then if the resulting query reduction did not succeed (i.e., we hit a predicate in the query that does not match any rule head of fact), Prolog backtracks and tries a new match.

Execution of Prolog program

```
ant_eater(fred).  
animal(fred) :- elephant(fred).  
animal(fred) :- ant_eater(fred).  
QUERY: animal(fred)
```

```
1. elephant(fred).  
2. FAIL BACKTRACK  
3. ant_eater(fred).  
4. EMPTY QUERY
```

Operation

- Backtracking can occur at every stage as the query is processed

p(1) :- a(1).

p(1) :- b(1).

a(1) :- c(1).

c(1) :- d(1).

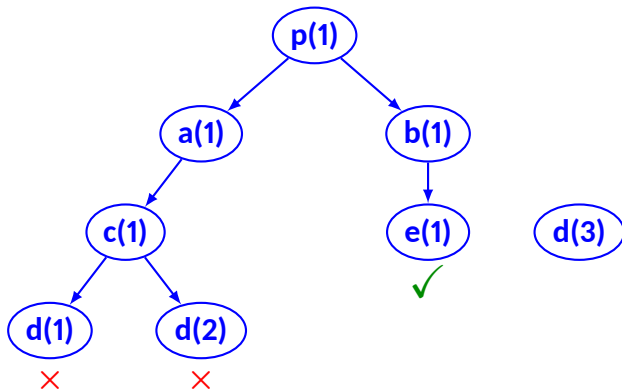
c(1) :- d(2).

b(1) :- e(1).

e(1).

d(3).

QUERY: p(1)



Operation

- With backtracking we can get more answers by using ";"

p(1) :- a(1).

p(1) :- b(1).

a(1) :- c(1).

c(1) :- d(1).

c(1) :- d(2).

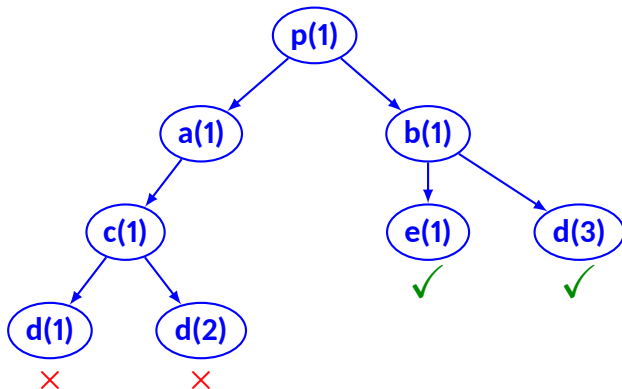
b(1) :- e(1).

b(1) :- d(3).

e(1).

d(3).

QUERY: p(1)



Variables and Matching

- Variables allow us to
 - Compute more than yes/no answer, compress the program
- Example:
 - elephant(fred).
 - elephant(mary).
 - elephant(joe).
 - animal(fred) :- elephant(fred).
 - animal(mary) :- elephant(mary).
 - animal(joe) :- elephant(joe).
- The three rules can be replaced by the single rule animal(X) :- elephant(X).
- When matching queries against rule heads (of facts) variables allow many additional matches.

Example

```
elephant(fred).  
elephant(mary).  
elephant(joe).  
animal(X) :- elephant(X).  
QUERY: animal(fred), animal(mary), animal(joe)
```

1. X=fred, elephant(X), animal(mary), animal(joe)
2. animal(mary), animal(joe)
3. X=mary, elephant(X), animal(joe)
4. animal(joe)
5. X=joe, elephant(X)
6. EMPTY QUERY

Operation with Variables

- Queries are processed as before (via rule and fact matching and backtracking), but now we can use variables to help us match rule heads or facts.
- A query predicate matches a rule head or fact (either one with variables) if
 - The predicate name must match. So `elephant(X)` can match `elephant(joe)`, but can never match `ant_eater(joe)`.
 - Then, the arity of the predicates are matched (number of terms). So `foo(X,Y)` can match `foo(joe,mary)`, but cannot match `foo(joe)` or `foo(joe,mary,fred)`.
 - If the predicate names and arities match then each of the k-terms match. So for `foo(t1, t2, t3)` to match `foo(s1, s2, s3)` we must have that `t1` matches `s1`, `t2` matches `s2`, and `t3` matches `t3`.
 - During this matching process we might have to "bind" some of the variables to make the terms match.
 - These bindings are then passed on into the new query (consisting of the rule body and the left over query predicates).

Variable matching (Unification)

- Two terms with variables match if :
 - If both are constants (identifiers, numbers, or strings) and are identical
 - If one or both are bound variables then they match if what the variables are bound to match
 - X and mary where X is bound to the value mary will match
 - X and Y where X is bound to mary and Y is bound to mary will match
 - X and ann where X is bound to mary will not match
 - If one of the terms is an unbound variable then they match and we bind the variable to the term
 - X and mary where X is unbound match and make X bound to mary.
 - X and Y where X is unbound and Y is bound to mary match and make X bound to mary.
 - X and Y where both X and Y are unbound match and make X bound to Y (or vice versa).

Solving queries

- Prolog work as follows
 - Unification
 - Goal directed reasoning
 - Rule ordering
 - DFS and backtracking

List processing in Prolog

- Much of prolog's computation is organized around lists. Two key things we do with a list is iterate over them and build new ones.
- Checking membership: `member(X,Y)` - X is a member of list Y

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

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- Much of prolog's computation is organized around lists. Two key things we do with a list is iterate over them and build new ones.
- Checking membership: `member(X,Y)` - X is a member of list Y
 - `member(X,[X|_]).`
 - `member(X,[_|T]) :- member(X,T).`
- Building a list of integers in range [i,j] (`build(from, to, NewList)`)
 - `build(I,J,[]) :- I > J.`
 - `build(I,J,[I | Rest]) :- I <= J, N is I+1, build(N,J,Rest).`

List examples

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 - `concatenation([], L, L).`
 - `concatenation([X|L1], L2, [X|L3]) :- concatenation(L1, L2, L3).`

List examples

- Concatenation: `concatenation(X, Y, Z)`
 - `concatenation([], L, L).`
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- Example:
 - `concatenation([a,b], [c,d], Y).`

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 - `concatenation([], L, L).`
 - `concatenation([X|L1], L2, [X|L3]) :- concatenation(L1, L2, L3).`
- Example:
 - `concatenation([a,b], [c,d], Y).`
 - `X=a, concatenation([X|b], [c,d], [X|Y1]).`
 - `concatenation([b], [c,d], Y1).`
 - `X=b, concatenation([X|[]], [c,d], [X|Y2]).`
 - `concatenation([], [c,d], Y2).`

List examples

- Adding in front: $\text{add}(X, Y, Z)$ – add X in front of Y and result into Z
 - $\text{add}(X, L, [X|L])$.

List examples

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- Deletion: $\text{del}(X, Y, Z)$ – delete X from Y and store result in Z

List examples

- Adding in front: $\text{add}(X, Y, Z)$ – add X in front of Y and result into Z
 - $\text{add}(X, L, [X|L])$.
- Deletion: $\text{del}(X, Y, Z)$ – delete X from Y and store result in Z
 - $\text{del}(X, [X|\text{Tail}], \text{Tail})$.
 - $\text{del}(X, [Y|\text{Tail}], [Y|\text{Tail1}]) \text{ :- } \text{del}(X, \text{Tail}, \text{Tail1})$.

List examples

- Adding in front: $\text{add}(X, Y, Z)$ – add X in front of Y and result into Z
 - $\text{add}(X, L, [X|L])$.
- Deletion: $\text{del}(X, Y, Z)$ – delete X from Y and store result in Z
 - $\text{del}(X, [X|\text{Tail}], \text{Tail})$.
 - $\text{del}(X, [Y|\text{Tail}], [Y|\text{Tail1}]) :- \text{del}(X, \text{Tail}, \text{Tail1})$.
- Sublist: $\text{sublist}(S, L)$ – check whether S is sublist of L

List examples

- Adding in front: $\text{add}(X, Y, Z)$ – add X in front of Y and result into Z
 - $\text{add}(X, L, [X|L])$.
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 - $\text{del}(X, [X|\text{Tail}], \text{Tail})$.
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- Sublist: $\text{sublist}(S, L)$ – check whether S is sublist of L
 - $\text{sublist}(S, L) \text{ :- } \text{concatenation}(L1, L2, L), \text{concatenation}(S, L3, L2)$.

List examples

- Adding in front: `add(X, Y, Z)` – add X in front of Y and result into Z
 - `add(X, L, [X|L]).`
- Deletion: `del(X, Y, Z)` – delete X from Y and store result in Z
 - `del(X, [X|Tail], Tail).`
 - `del(X, [Y|Tail], [Y|Tail1]) :- del(X, Tail, Tail1).`
- Sublist: `sublist(S, L)` – check whether S is sublist of L
 - `sublist(S, L) :- concatenation(L1, L2, L), concatenation(S, L3, L2).`
- GCD: `gcd(X, Y, Z)`
 - `gcd(X,X,X).`
 - `gcd(X,Y,Z) :- X < Y, Y1 is Y-X, gcd(X,Y1,Z).`

List examples

- Permutation:
 - `permutation([], []).`
 - `permutation([X|L], P) :- permutation(L, L1), insert(X, L1, P).`

8-queens

- **Solution:**
 - `solution(Queens):- permutation([1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8], Queens), safe(Queens).`

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- **Solution:**
 - `solution(Queens):- permutation([1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8], Queens), safe(Queens).`
- **Permutation:**
 - `permutation([],[]).`
 - `permutation([Head | Tail], PermList) :-
permutation(Tail, Permtail), del(Head, PermList, Permtail).`

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- **Solution:**
 - `solution(Queens):- permutation([1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8], Queens), safe(Queens).`
- **Permutation:**
 - `permutation([],[]).`
 - `permutation([Head | Tail], PermList) :-
 permutation(Tail, Permtail), del(Head, PermList, Permtail).`
- **Safe:**
 - `safe([]).`
 - `safe([Queen | Others]) :- safe(Others), noattack(Queen, Others, 1).`

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- **Solution:**
 - `solution(Queens):- permutation([1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8], Queens), safe(Queens).`
- **Permutation:**
 - `permutation([],[]).`
 - `permutation([Head | Tail], PermList) :-
 permutation(Tail, Permtail), del(Head, PermList, Permtail).`
- **Safe:**
 - `safe([]).`
 - `safe([Queen | Others]) :- safe(Others), noattack(Queen, Others, 1).`
- **No-attack:**
 - `noattack(_,[],_).`
 - `noattack(Y,[Y1 | Ylist],Xdist) :-
 Y-Y1 =\= Xdist, Y1-Y =\= Xdist, Dist is Xdist+1, noattack(Y, Ylist, Dist).`

Cuts – controlled backtracking

$C :- P, Q, R, \text{!}, S, T, U.$

$C :- V.$

$A :- B, C, D.$

$?- A.$

- Backtracking within the goal list P, Q, R
- As soon as the cut is reached:
 - All alternatives of P, Q, R are suppressed
 - The clause $C :- V$ will also be discarded
 - Backtracking is possible within S, T, U .
 - No effect for rule A , that is backtracking within B, C, D remains active.

Cuts

- `del_duplicates([], []).`
- `del_duplicates([Head | Tail], Result) :-`
 `member(Head, Tail), !, del_duplicates(Tail, Result). % R1`
- `del_duplicates([Head | Tail], [Head | Result]) :- del_duplicates(Tail, Result). % R2`

Cuts - Example

- If $X \geq Y$ then $\text{Max}=X$, otherwise $\text{Max}=Y$
 - $\text{max}(X, Y, X) :- X \geq Y, !.$
 - $\text{max}(X, Y, Y).$
- Adding an element into a list without duplication
 - $\text{add}(X, L, L) :- \text{member}(X, L), !.$
 - $\text{add}(X, L, [X|L]).$

Thank you!