

# Principles of Programming Languages

## Lecture 3

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Acknowledgment: parts of these slides are based on material by Diane Horton & Eric Joanis @ UoT

References: Scheme by Dybvig

PL Concepts and Constructs by Sethi

Concepts of PL by Sebesta

ML for the Working Prog. By Paulson <sup>1</sup>

Prog. in Prolog by Clocksin and Mellish

PL Pragmatics by Scott

# Today

- **Logic Programming**
- **Prolog I**

# LP: resolution in predicate calculus

- We would like to infer new propositions (e.g. facts) from some existing set of propositions.

- An inference rule that can be applied atomically is called a *resolution*

– E.g.

**Given:**  $P1 \leftarrow P2$  ,  $Q1 \leftarrow Q2$

$P1 \equiv Q2$

**Alternatively:**  $T \leftarrow P2$  ,  $Q1 \leftarrow T$

**New fact:**  $Q1 \leftarrow P2$

**New Set of Rules:**  $P1 \leftarrow P2$  ,  $Q1 \leftarrow Q2$  ,  $Q1 \leftarrow P2$

- **Resolution gets more complex if variables/values are involved:**

– To use resolution with variables, we will need to find values for variables that allow matching to proceed.

– E.g.

**Given:**  $F(X,Y) \leftarrow P2(Y,X)$

$Q1(\text{foo}) \leftarrow F(\text{foo}, \text{bar})$

**New fact:**  $Q1(\text{foo}) \leftarrow P2(\text{bar}, \text{foo})$

**New Set of Rules:**  $F(X,Y) \leftarrow P2(Y,X)$  ,  $Q1(\text{foo}) \leftarrow F(\text{foo}, \text{bar})$  ,

$Q1(\text{foo}) \leftarrow P2(\text{bar}, \text{foo})$

# LP: horn clause

- **Logic programming is heavily based on horn clauses:**

$$c \leftarrow h_1 \wedge h_2 \wedge h_3 \wedge \dots \wedge h_n$$

- Antecedents (h's): conjunction of zero or more conditions which are atomic constructs in predicate logic.
  - Consequent(c): an atomic construct in predicate logic
- 
- **Meaning of a horn-clause:**
    - The consequent is true if the antecedents are all true
    - c is true if  $h_1, h_2, h_3, \dots$  are all true
- 
- **A horn clause can capture most, but not all, logical statements/implications, why?**
- 
- **Additional reading: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Horn\\_clause](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Horn_clause)**

# LP: horn clause made easy!

- **Horn clause can include more complex terms:**

$$p(X) \leftarrow q(X,Y) \wedge r(X,Y) \wedge s(X,Y)$$
$$p(X) \leftarrow K(M) \wedge i(T)$$
$$q(X,Y) \leftarrow \dots$$
$$r(X,Y) \leftarrow \dots$$
$$s(X,Y) \leftarrow \dots$$
$$k(M) \leftarrow \dots$$
$$i(T) \leftarrow \dots$$

.....

- **We can assume the following when writing horn-clauses:**
  - $p$  is the program name
  - $q,r,s$  are the subprogram names
  - $X$  is a parameter of the program
  - $Y$  is a local variable

# LP: horn clause

$$c \leftarrow h_1 \wedge h_2 \wedge h_3 \wedge \dots \wedge h_n$$

- Antecedents (h's): conjunction of zero or more conditions which are atomic constructs in predicate logic.
- Consequent(c): an atomic construct in predicate logic

- **Examples of horn clauses:**

- $\text{Father}(X, Y) \leftarrow \text{Child}(Y, X) \wedge \text{Male}(X)$ .
- $\text{Student}(X) \leftarrow \text{Undergraduate}(X)$ .

- **Example of Non-horn clauses:**

- $\text{Student}(X) \leftarrow \text{Undergraduate}(X) \vee \text{Graduate}(X)$
- $\neg(\text{Student}(X)) \leftarrow \text{Deregistered}(X)$ .

# LP: specifying non-horn rules

- Many non-horn rules can be transformed to horn form using one of two methods:
  - logical equivalence
  - Skolemization

- **Logical equivalence:**

- Uses the following logical laws:

- Negation  $\neg\neg A \equiv A$

- De Morgan's Law  $\neg(A \vee B) \equiv \neg A \wedge \neg B$

- $\neg(A \wedge B) \equiv \neg A \vee \neg B$

- Distributive Property  $A \vee (B \wedge C) \equiv (A \vee B) \wedge (A \vee C)$

- $A \wedge (B \vee C) \equiv (A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge C)$

- Absorption Law  $A \vee (A \wedge B) \equiv A$

- $A \wedge (A \vee B) \equiv A$

- Implication Laws  $A \leftrightarrow B \equiv (A \rightarrow B) \wedge (B \rightarrow A)$

- $A \leftarrow B \equiv A \vee \neg B$

# LP: specifying non-horn rules

- **Logical equivalence rules:**

- Negation  $\neg\neg A \equiv A$
- De Morgan's Law  $\neg(A \vee B) \equiv \neg A \wedge \neg B$   
 $\neg(A \wedge B) \equiv \neg A \vee \neg B$
- Distributive Property  $A \vee (B \wedge C) \equiv (A \vee B) \wedge (A \vee C)$   
 $A \wedge (B \vee C) \equiv (A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge C)$
- Absorption Law  $A \vee (A \wedge B) \equiv A$   
 $A \wedge (A \vee B) \equiv A$
- Implication Laws  $A \leftrightarrow B \equiv (A \rightarrow B) \wedge (B \rightarrow A)$   
 $A \leftarrow B \equiv A \vee \neg B$

- **Examples:**

- $\underline{\neg A \leftarrow \neg B} \equiv \neg A \vee \neg(\neg B)$   
 $\equiv \neg A \vee B$   
 $\equiv B \vee \neg A$   
 $\equiv \underline{B \leftarrow A}$  *(horn-clause)*

- $\underline{A \leftarrow (B \vee C)} \equiv A \vee \neg(B \vee C)$   
 $\equiv A \vee (\neg B \wedge \neg C)$   
 $\equiv (A \vee \neg B) \wedge (A \vee \neg C)$   
 $\equiv (A \leftarrow B) \wedge (A \leftarrow C)$  *(horn-clauses)*



# LP: specifying non-horn rules – cont'd

- **Logical equivalence rules:**

- Negation  $\neg\neg A \equiv A$
- De Morgan's Law  $\neg(A \vee B) \equiv \neg A \wedge \neg B$   
 $\neg(A \wedge B) \equiv \neg A \vee \neg B$
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 $A \wedge (B \vee C) \equiv (A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge C)$
- Absorption Law  $A \vee (A \wedge B) \equiv A$   
 $A \wedge (A \vee B) \equiv A$
- Implication Laws  $A \leftrightarrow B \equiv (A \rightarrow B) \wedge (B \rightarrow A)$   
 $A \leftarrow B \equiv A \vee \neg B$

- **Examples:**

- $\underline{A \leftarrow (B \leftarrow C)} \equiv A \vee \neg(B \leftarrow C)$   
 $\equiv A \vee \neg(B \vee \neg C)$   
 $\equiv A \vee (\neg B \wedge \neg\neg C)$   
 $\equiv A \vee (\neg B \wedge C)$   
 $\equiv (A \vee \neg B) \wedge (A \vee C)$   
 $\equiv (A \leftarrow B) \wedge (A \vee C) \quad (\text{non-horn})$

# LP: specifying non-horn rules – cont'd

- **Skolemization:**
  - Non horn formulas like  $(\exists X) A(X)$  can be converted to horn-clause by introducing a *skolem constant* and/or *skolem function*. The resulting clause is *almost* the same thing.
- **Why does skolemization works?**
  - We only need  $\exists X$  because we don't have have a name for X. By creating artificial names (*skolem names*), we can eliminate many  $\exists$ 's and convert many formulas to horn clause.

# LP: specifying non-horn rules – cont'd

- **Horn clause** 
$$c \leftarrow h_1 \wedge h_2 \wedge h_3 \wedge \dots \wedge h_n$$
  - What are we going to do about quantifiers? ( $\exists X$ ) and ( $\forall X$ )
- **Skolemization:**
  - Variables bound by existential ( $\exists X$ ) quantifiers which are not inside the scope of universal quantifiers can simply be replaced by constants:
    - ( $\exists X$ ) mother(john,X) becomes mother(john,m)
  - When the existential quantifier ( $\exists Y$ ) is inside a universal quantifier ( $\forall X$ ), the bound variable must be replaced by a *function* of the variables bound by universal quantifier ( $\forall X$ ).
    - ( $\forall X$ ) [person(X)  $\rightarrow$  ( $\exists Y$ ) mother(X,Y)]  
becomes  
( $\forall X$ ) [person(X)  $\rightarrow$  mother(X, m(X))]

# Prolog I

# Prolog:- Programmation en logique

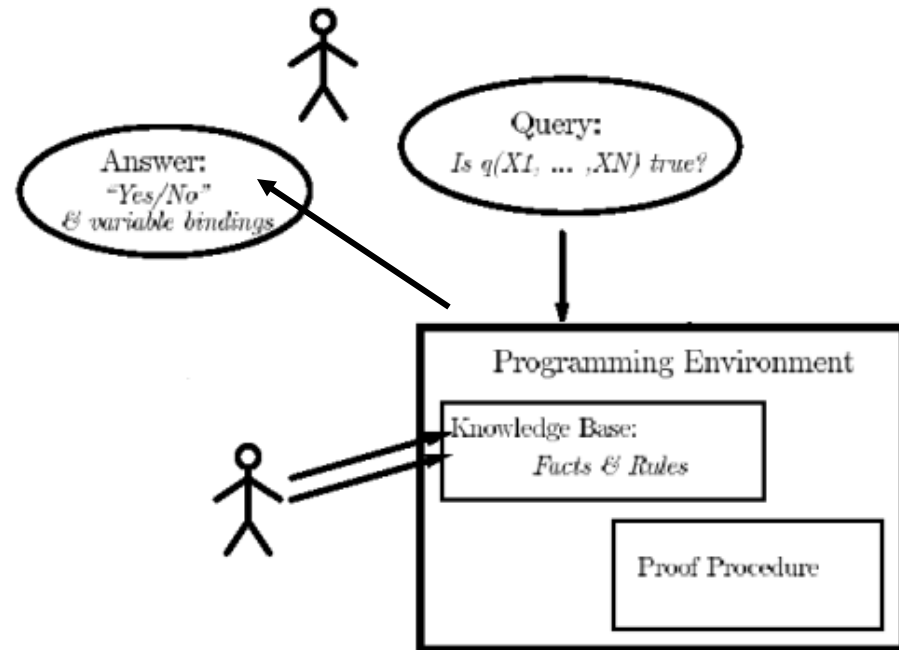
- **The first and most popular logic programming language**
  - Invented by Alain Colmerauer and Phillipe Roussel at the University of Aix-Marseille in 1971 (France)

- **Characteristics:**

- Is **very weakly typed**
- Has **no data abstraction**
- Has **no functional abstraction!**
- Has **no mutable state**
- Has **no explicit control flow**

- **So, how do you program?**

- Load facts/rules into interpreter
- Make queries to see if a fact is:
  - in the knowledge-base or
  - can be implied from existing facts or rules



- **Prolog is really an engine to *prove theorems***

# Prolog: data types – quick intro

- **Simple**
  - Constants :
    - Numbers: integer, floating point,...
    - Atoms: alphabetic sequence starting with a lower case letter (e.g. apple)
  - Variables:
    - Variables start with capital letters or underscore
- **Complex**
  - Lists
  - Structures

# Prolog: horn clauses

- **Recall**

$$c \leftarrow h_1 \wedge h_2 \wedge h_3 \wedge \dots \wedge h_n$$

- **Syntax:**

$\langle \text{head} \rangle \text{ :- } \langle \text{body} \rangle .$

- You can conclude that  $\langle \text{head} \rangle$  is true, if you can prove that  $\langle \text{body} \rangle$  is true
- The symbol  $\text{ :- }$  is read as *if*

- **3 types of clauses:**

- Facts
- Rules
- Queries

# Prolog: facts

- **A fact is a horn clause with an empty body (nothing to prove).**

- **Syntax**

<head>.

- **What makes a fact a fact?**

- **Examples**

- Exams exams.
- Assignments assignments.
- Taxes taxes.
- The earth is round. round(earth).
- The sky is blue. blue(sky).
- The sun is hot. hot(sun).
- Mary is a female. female(mary).
- Beethoven lived between 1770 & 1827. person(beethoven,1770,1827).



# Prolog: facts – cont'd

- **Facts about facts:**
  - Full stop “.” at the end of every fact.
  - The number of arguments in a fact is called **arity**.
    - E.g. `female(mary).` is an instance of `female/1` (functor `female`, arity 1)
  - Facts with different number of arguments are distinct
    - E.g. `female(mary,may).` is different from `female(mary).`

# Prolog: rules

- A rule in Prolog is a full horn clause:

$$c \leftarrow h_1 \wedge h_2 \wedge h_3 \wedge \dots \wedge h_n$$

- Syntax:

$$\underbrace{\text{rel}_1}_{\text{head}} \text{ :- } \underbrace{\text{rel}_2, \text{rel}_3, \dots, \text{rel}_n}_{\text{body}}.$$

- *If I know that all those RHS relations (those in the body) hold, then I also know that this LHS relation (in the head) holds.*

- Examples:

- If there is smoke there is fire

`fire :- smoke.`

- If the course is boring, I leave

`leave(i) :- boring(course).`

- Joe is going to kill the teacher if he fails CSC324.

`kills(joe, X) :- fails(joe,csc324), teaches(X,csc324).`

# Prolog: rules – cont'd

- **Examples:**

- X is female if X is the mother of anyone.

`female(X) :- mother(X,_).`

- X is the sister of Y, if X is female and X's parents are M and F, and Y's parents are M and F

`sister_of(X,Y):- female(X),parents(X,M,F),parents(Y,M,F).`

- **When to use rules?**

- Use rules to say that a particular fact depends on a group of facts.
- Use rules to deduce new facts from existing ones.

- **Rules of rules:**

- The head of the rule consist of at most one predicate
- The body of the rule is a finite sequence of literals separated by `,` or conjunction (*and*)
- Rules always end with a period `“.”`

# Prolog: queries

- A query is a clause with an empty head.

$$\leftarrow h_1 \wedge h_2 \wedge h_3 \wedge \dots \wedge h_n$$

- **Syntax**

|? <body>.

- Try to prove that <body> is true
- The goal is represented to the interpreter as a question.

- **Examples**

|?-round(earth).

- is it true that the earth is round?

(or simpler than that: is the earth round?)

|?-round(X).

- is it true that there are entities which are round?

(or simpler than that: what entities are round?)

# Prolog: queries – cont'd

- **Examples**

|?-composer(beethoven,1770,1827).

- is it true that beethoven was a composer who lived between 1770 and 1827

|?-owns(john,book).

- is it true that john owns a book?  
(simpler: does john own a book?)

|?-owns(john,X).

- is it true that john owns something?  
(simpler: does john own something?  
or  
what does John own?)

# Prolog: simple types - constants

- There are two types of constants: *atoms* and *numbers*.
- **Atoms:**
  - Alphanumeric atoms: *alphanumeric sequence starting with a lower case letter*
    - E.g.: apple a1 apple\_cart
  - Special atoms
    - E.g. ! ; [ ] { } ,
  - Symbolic atoms
    - E.g. & < > \* - + >>
  - Quoted atoms: *sequence of characters surrounded by single quotes*
    - Can make anything an atom by enclosing it in single quotes.
    - E.g. 'Apple' 'hello world'
- **Numbers:**
  - Integers and Floating Point numbers
    - E.g. 0 1 9821 -10 1.3 -1.3E102

# Prolog: simple types - variables

- Variables start with capital letters or underscore
- There are *no global variables* (*assert* and *retract*, will see them later...)
- **Instantiated vs. un-instantiated:**
  - if the object a variable stands for is already determined, var is *instantiated*
  - if the object a variable stands for is not yet determined, var is *un-instantiated*
- **An instantiated variable in Prolog cannot change its value**
- **Variables are limited in scope to the clause they appear in** (*local vars*)
  - E.g.

```
grandParent(X,Z) :- parent(X,Y), parent(Y,Z).    % The Xs here are the same var
sister_of(X,Y) :- female(X),parents(X,M,F),parents(Y,M,F). % But not the same
                                                         % as those here
```
- **There is a special anonymous variable “\_” which is used to denote “don’t care”**
  - E.g.

```
Parent(X) :- mother(X,_).
married(X) :- husband(X,_).
```
  - Note that every use of `_` is considered a separate variable

# Prolog: example 1

## Facts

```
likes(eve, pie).      food(pie).
likes(al, eve).       food(apple).
likes(eve, tom).      person(tom).
likes(eve, eve).
```

variable



query

```
?-likes(al, pie).
```

no

answer



```
?-likes(al, eve).
```

yes

```
?-likes(eve, al).
```

no

```
?-likes(person, food).
```

no

```
?-likes(al, Who).
```

Who=eve

```
?-likes(eve, W).
```

W=pie ;

W=tom ;

W=eve ;

no

answer with  
variable binding



force search for  
more answers