

# Logic Programming, Prolog

In Text: Chapter 16

# Overview

- Logic programming
- Formal logic
- Prolog

# Logic Programming

- To express programs in a form of symbolic logic, and use a logic inferencing process to produce results
  - Symbolic logic is the study of symbolic abstractions that capture the formal features of logical inference
- Logic programs are declarative

# Formal Logic

- A **proposition** is a logical statement or query about the state of the "universe"
  - It consists of objects and the relationship between objects
- **Formal logic** was developed to describe propositions, with the goal of allowing those formally stated propositions to be checked for validity

# Symbolic Logic

- **Symbolic logic** can be used for three basic needs of formal logic
  - To express propositions,
  - To express the relationship between propositions, and
  - To describe how new propositions can be inferred from other propositions that are assumed to be true

# Formal logic & mathematics

- Most of mathematics can be thought of in terms of logic
- The fundamental axioms of number and set theory are the initial set of propositions, which are assumed to be true
- **Theorems** are the additional propositions that can be inferred from the initial set

# First-Order Predicate Calculus

- The particular form of symbolic logic that is used for logic programming is called **first-order predicate calculus**
- It contains **propositions** and **clausal form**

# Propositions

- The objects in propositions are represented by **simple terms**
  - Simple terms can be either **constants** or **variables**
  - A **constant** is a symbol that represents an object
  - A **variable** is a symbol that can represent different objects at different times



# Propositions (cont'd)

- The simplest propositions, which are called **atomic propositions**, consist of compound terms
- A **compound term** represents mathematical relation. It contains
  - a functor: the function symbol that names the relation, and
  - an ordered list of parameters

# Compound Terms

- A compound term with a single parameter is a 1-tuple
  - E.g. man(jake)
- A compound term with two parameters is a 2-tuple
  - E.g., like(bob, steak)

# Compound Terms

- All of the simple terms in the propositions, such as man, jake, like, bob, and steak, are constants
- They mean whatever we want them to mean
  - E.g., like(bob, steak) may mean
    - Bob likes steak, or
    - steak likes Bob, or
    - Bob is in some way similar to a steak, or
    - Does Bob like steak?
- Propositions can also contain variables, such as man(X)

# Compound Propositions

- Atomic proposition(s) are connected by logical connectors

<u>Name</u>	<u>Symbol</u>	<u>Example</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
negation	$\neg$	$\neg a$	not a
conjunction	$\cap$	$a \cap b$	a and b
disjunction	$\cup$	$a \cup b$	a or b
equivalence	$\equiv$	$a \equiv b$	a is equivalent to b
implication	$\supset$	$a \supset b$	a implies b
	$\subset$	$a \subset b$	b implies a

# Compound Propositions (cont'd)

- Quantifiers—used to bind variables in propositions
  - Universal quantifier:  $\forall$   
 $\forall X.P$  — means “for all  $X$ ,  $P$  is true”
  - Existential quantifier:  $\exists$   
 $\exists X.P$  — means “there exists a value of  $X$  such that  $P$  is true”
  - Examples
    - $\forall X.(\text{manager}(X) \supset \text{employee}(X))$
    - $\exists X.(\text{mother}(\text{mary}, X) \cap \text{male}(X))$

# Clausal Form

- **Clausal form** is a standard form of propositions
- It can be used to simplify computation by an automated system

# Clausal Form

- A proposition in clausal form has the following general syntax:

$$\underline{B1 \cup B2 \cup \dots \cup Bn} \subset \underline{A1 \cap A2 \cap \dots \cap Am}$$

consequent

antecedent

- Consequent is the consequence of the truth of the antecedent
- Meaning
  - If all of the A's are true, then at least one B is true

# Examples

- $\text{likes}(\text{bob}, \text{mcintosh}) \subset \text{likes}(\text{bob}, \text{apple}) \cap \text{apple}(\text{mcintosh})$
- $\text{father}(\text{john}, \text{alvin}) \cup \text{father}(\text{john}, \text{alice}) \subset \text{father}(\text{alvin}, \text{bob}) \cap \text{mother}(\text{alice}, \text{bob}) \cap \text{grandfather}(\text{john}, \text{bob})$



# Predicate Calculus

- **Predicate calculus** describes collections of propositions
- **Resolution** is the process of inferring propositions from given propositions
- Resolution can detect any inconsistency in a given set of proposition

# An Exemplar Resolution

- If we know:
  - $\text{older}(\text{terry}, \text{jon}) \subset \text{mother}(\text{terry}, \text{jon})$
  - $\text{wiser}(\text{terry}, \text{jon}) \subset \text{older}(\text{terry}, \text{jon})$
- We can infer the proposition:
  - $\text{wiser}(\text{terry}, \text{jon}) \subset \text{mother}(\text{terry}, \text{jon})$

# Horn Clauses

- When propositions are used for resolution, only **Horn clauses** can be used
- A proposition with zero or one term in the consequent is called a **Horn clause**
  - If there is only one term in the consequence, the clause is called a **Headed Horn clause**
    - E.g.,  $\text{person}(\text{jake}) \subset \text{man}(\text{jake})$
    - For stating **Inference Rules** in Prolog
  - If there is no term in the consequence, the clause is called a **Headless Horn clause**
    - E.g.,  $\text{man}(\text{jake})$
    - For stating **Facts and Queries** in Prolog

# Logic Programming Languages

- Logical programming languages are **declarative languages**
- **Declarative semantics**: It is simple to determine the meaning of each statement, and it does not depend on how the statement might be used to solve a problem
  - E.g., the meaning of a proposition can be concisely determined from the statement itself

# Logic Programming Languages (cont'd)

- Logical Programming Languages are **nonprocedural**
- Instead of specifying *how* a result is computed, we *describe* the desired result and let the computer figure out how to compute it

# An Example

- E.g., sort a list  
     $\text{sort}(\text{new\_list}, \text{old\_list}) \subset \text{permute}(\text{old\_list}, \text{new\_list}) \cap \text{sorted}(\text{new\_list})$   
     $\text{sorted}(\text{list}) \subset \forall j \text{ such that } 1 \leq j < n,$   
     $\text{list}(j-1) \leq \text{list}(j)$

where `permute` is a predicate that returns true if its second parameter is a permutation of the first one

# Key Points about Logic Programming

- Nonprocedural programming sounds like the mere production of concise software requirements specifications
  - It is a fair assessment
- Unfortunately, logic programs that use only resolution face the problems of execution efficiency

- The best form of a logic language has not been determined
- Good methods of creating programs in logic programming languages have not yet been developed