

Prolog Download *Binaries and Source*

CSCI: 4500/6500 Programming Languages

Prolog & Logic Programming



Thanks to: William W. Clocksin, Oxford University, UK, Jason Eisner, Johns Hopkins University, James Lu & Jerud Mead, Bucknell University, Maria Hybinette, UGA

- SWI-prolog (swipl 5.10.4-6.0.2 depending on platform) website:
 - » <http://www.swi-prolog.org/>
 - » Mac OS X on Intel & PPC (Tiger, Leopard (46.3 MB), Snow Leopard and Lion binaries available)
 - » Linux RPMs.
 - » Windows NT, XP, Vista7, 2000, 64 Bit,
 - » Source Install
- XQuartz (X11) 2.5.0 for help & development tools.

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Great Prolog Tutorials

- JR Fisher's original tutorial :
http://www.csupomona.edu/~jrfisher/www/prolog_tutorial/contents.html
- Roman Barták's **interactive** tutorial:
<http://ktiml.mff.cuni.cz/~bartak/prolog/>
- Mike Rosner's crash course:
<http://www.cs.um.edu.mt/~mros/prologcc/>
- James Lu and Jerud Mead's tutorial:
<http://www.cse.ucsc.edu/classes/cmps112/Spring03/languages/prolog/PrologIntro.pdf>
- James Power's tutorial:
<http://www.cs.nuim.ie/~jpower/Courses/PROLOG/> (2012 not available - BUT let me know if you find it -it is a good one)



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What is Prolog?

- Alain Colmerauer & Philippe Roussel, 1971-1973
 - » With help from theorem proving folks such as Robert Kowalski
 - » Colmerauer & Roussel wrote 20 years later:

"Prolog is so simple that one has the sense that sooner or later someone had to discover it ... that period of our lives remains one of the happiest in our memories."

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What is Prolog?

- A **declarative** or **logic** programming language
 - » specifies the results (describes what the results look like)
 - in contrast to a "procedure" on *how* to produce the results.
- Based on first order **predicate** calculus
 - » consists of **propositions** that may or may not be true
- Prolog uses logical variables
 - » Not the same as variables in other languages
 - » Used as 'holes' in data structures that are gradually filled in as the computation processes (will see examples)

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Lets look at a sample session...

```
{saffron:ingrid:815} swipl
Welcome to SWI-Prolog (Multi-threaded, Version 5.6.9)
Copyright (c) 1990-2006 University of Amsterdam.
SWI-Prolog comes with ABSOLUTELY NO WARRANTY. This is free software,
and you are welcome to redistribute it under certain conditions.
Please visit http://www.swi-prolog.org for details.

For help, use ?- help(Topic). or ?- apropos(Word).

?- ['second'].
% first compiled 0.00 sec, 596 bytes

repeat_commands by traversing the command line
history
CTRL-p
moves up in command history
CTRL-n
next command
<- ->
edit command line history

{saffron:ingrid:817} ls -l second.pl
-rw-r--r-- 1 ingrid ingrid 43 Apr 10 12:06 second.pl
{saffron:ingrid:818}
```

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Look at a sample of code...

second.pl

```
elephant(kyle).    % this is a comment
elephant(kate).
panda(chi_chi).
panda(ming_ming).

dangerous(X) :- big_teeth(X).
dangerous(X) :- venomous(X).

guess(X,tiger) :- striped(X),big_teeth(X),isaCat(X).
guess(X,koala) :- arboreal(X),sleepy(X).
guess(X,zebra) :- striped(X),isaHorse(X).
```

Facts

Rules

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Prolog Programs are "Declarative"

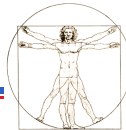
I declare that the leaves are green and elephants are mammals.

- Clauses are statements about what is **true** about the problem (as statements and questions).
 - » instead of instructions on how to accomplish the solution.
- Prolog finds answers to **queries** by parsing through "the database" of possible solutions.

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Anatomy of Prolog



Declarative Component: "the program" ("the Database"):

- » Consists of **facts** and **rules**
- » Defines the relations on sets of values

Imperative Component: "the execution engine", the "Prolog Solver":

- » extracts the sets of data values *implicit* in the facts and rules of the program
- » **Unification** - matching query and "head" of rules (later)
- » **Resolution** - replaces the head with the body of the rule and then applies substitution to form a new query(ies).

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Prolog as constraints programming

(Person, Food)

Person	Food
maria	olives
emmy	pear
eric	fish
isaac	chips
robert	fish
sean	chips

- Constraints between variables:
Example: Person and Food.

• **Facts:**

» An identifier (name) of the constraint followed by n-tuple of constants.

- Identifier (eats) names the relation
- the fact states that the tuple is in the relation

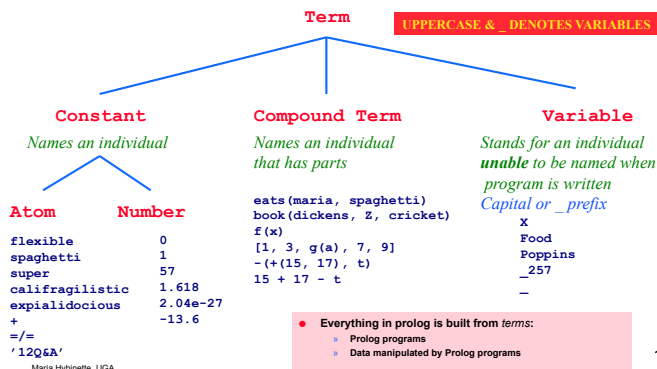
» **Predicate:** the relation identifier in combination with its parameters

```
eats(maria,olives).
eats(emmy,pear).
eats(eric,fish).
eats(isaac,chips).
eats(robert,fish).
eats(robert,chips).
```

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Syntax of Terms



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constant versus Variables

- **Variables** start with a capital letter, A, B, ... Z or underscore _:

» Food, Person, Person2, _A123

- **Constant "atoms"** start with a, b, ...z or appear in single quotes:

» maria, olives, isaac, 'CSCI4500'

» Other kinds of constants besides atoms:

- Integers -7, real numbers 3.14159, the empty list []

- **Note:** Atom is not a variable; it is not bound to anything, never equal to anything else

```
eats(adam, sushi).
eats(eric, chips).
eats(eric, pears).
eats(isaac, fish).
eats(isaac, fish).
east(ibti, chips).
east(ibti, sushi).
eats(jordan, fish).
eats(jordan, olives).
eats(jonathan, olives).
eats(jonathan, chips).
eats(maria, sushi).
eats(robert, chips).
eats(robert, olives).
eats(sean, sushi).
eats(sean, chips).
eats(young, olives).
eats(young, pears).
```

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constant versus Variables

- Nothing stops you from putting constants into constraints:

```
% what Food does eric eat?
eats(eric, Food).
% 2 answers: chips & pear
% use ';' for next answer...
```

```
% what Person eats fish?
eats(Person, fish).
% 2 answers: ? & ...?
```

```
% who'll share what with robert? ** more later
eats(robert, Food), eats(Person, Food).
Try it!
```

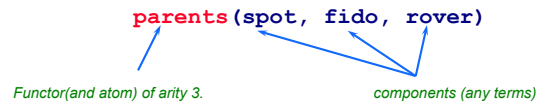
```
eats(adam, sushi).
eats(eric, chips).
eats(eric, pears).
eats(isaac, fish).
eats(isaac, fish).
east(ibti, chips).
east(ibti, sushi).
eats(jordan, fish).
eats(jordan, olives).
eats(jonathan, olives).
eats(jonathan, chips).
eats(maria, sushi).
eats(robert, chips).
eats(robert, olives).
eats(sean, sushi).
eats(sean, chips).
eats(young, olives).
eats(young, pears).
```

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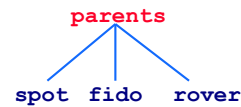
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'Familiar' Compound Terms

- The parents of Spot and Fido and Rover



- Can depict the term as a tree



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Compound Terms

- An atom followed by a (parenthesized), comma-separated list of **one or more terms**:

```
x(y,z), +(1,2), .(1,[]),
parent(adam,abel), x(Y,x(Y,Z))
```

- A compound term can look like an SML, Scheme **function** call: `f(x,y)`

» Again, this is misleading

- Better to think of them as structured data

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Summary Terms

```
<term> ::= <constant> | <variable> | <compound-term>
<constant> ::= <integer> | <real number> | <atom>
<compound-term> ::= <atom> ( <termlist> )
<termlist> ::= <term> | <term> , <termlist>
```

- All Prolog programs and data are built from such terms
- Later, we will see that, for instance, `+(1,2)` is usually written as `1+2`
- But these are not new kinds of terms, just abbreviations

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The Prolog Program (Database)

- A Prolog language system maintains a collection of **facts** and **rules** of inference
- It is like an **internal database**
- A Prolog program is just a set of data for this database
- The simplest kind of thing in the database is a **fact**: a term followed by a period

```
eats(adam, sushi).
eats(eric, chips).
eats(eric, pears).
eats(isaac, fish).
eats(isaac, fish).
east(ibti, chips).
east(ibti, sushi).
eats(jordan, fish).
eats(jordan, olives).
eats(jonathan, olives).
eats(jonathan, chips).
eats(maria, sushi).
eats(robert, chips).
eats(robert, olives).
eats(sean, sushi).
eats(sean, chips).
eats(young, olives).
eats(young, pears).
```

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SWI-Prolog

```
{atlas:maria:141} swipl
Welcome to SWI-Prolog (Multi-threaded, Version 5.2.3)
Copyright (c) 1990-2003 University of Amsterdam.
SWI-Prolog comes with ABSOLUTELY NO WARRANTY. This is free software,
and you are welcome to redistribute it under certain conditions.
Please visit http://www.swi-prolog.org for details.

For help, use ?- help(Topic) . or ?- apropos(Word) .

?-
```

- Prompting for a query with `?-`
- Normally interactive: get query, print result, repeat

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The consult Predicate

```
?- consult(eats).
% eats compiled 0.00 sec, 0 bytes

true.
?- [eats].
% eats compiled 0.00 sec, 0 bytes

true.
```

```
eats(adam,sushi).
eats(eric,chips).
eats(eric,pears).
eats(isaac,fish).
eats(isaac,fish).
eats(ibti,chips).
eats(ibti,sushi).
eats(jordan,fish).
eats(jordan,olives).
eats(jonathan,olives).
eats(jonathan,chips).
eats(maria,sushi).
eats(robert,chips).
eats(robert,olives).
eats(sean,sushi).
eats(sean,chips).
eats(young,olives).
eats(young,pears).
```

- Predefined predicate to read a program from a file into the database

» Example: File `eats.pl` defines the “eats” constraints, or lists of facts.

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Simple Queries

- A **query** asks the language to prove something
- The answer will be **True** or **False**
- Some queries, like `consult` are executed only for their side effects.
- Example Query program:
 - » Does `kyle` eat `fish` (type query)?

```
eats(adam,sushi).
eats(eric,chips).
eats(eric,pears).
eats(isaac,fish).
eats(isaac,fish).
eats(ibti,chips).
eats(ibti,sushi).
eats(jordan,fish).
eats(jordan,olives).
eats(jonathan,olives).
eats(jonathan,chips).
eats(maria,sushi).
eats(robert,chips).
eats(robert,olives).
eats(sean,sushi).
eats(sean,chips).
eats(young,olives).
eats(young,pears).
```

Here constraints acts as a procedure or function

```
?- eats(adam,sushi).
true.
?- eats(jordan,vegetables).
false.
```

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Simple Queries: the Period ‘.’

- Queries can take multiple lines
- If you forget the final period, Prolog prompts for more inputs with `|`.

```
?- eats(ibti,vegetables)
```

```
eats(adam,sushi).
eats(eric,chips).
eats(eric,pears).
eats(isaac,fish).
eats(isaac,fish).
eats(ibti,chips).
eats(ibti,sushi).
eats(jordan,fish).
eats(jordan,olives).
eats(jonathan,olives).
eats(jonathan,chips).
eats(maria,sushi).
eats(robert,chips).
eats(robert,olives).
eats(sean,sushi).
eats(sean,chips).
eats(young,olives).
eats(young,pears).
```

No period

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Simple Queries: the Period ‘.’

- Queries can take multiple lines
- If you forget the final period, Prolog prompts for more inputs with `|`.

```
?- eats(ibti,vegetables)
```

```
eats(adam,sushi).
eats(eric,chips).
eats(eric,pears).
eats(isaac,fish).
eats(isaac,fish).
eats(ibti,chips).
eats(ibti,sushi).
eats(jordan,fish).
eats(jordan,olives).
eats(jonathan,olives).
eats(jonathan,chips).
eats(maria,sushi).
eats(robert,chips).
eats(robert,olives).
eats(sean,sushi).
eats(sean,chips).
eats(young,olives).
eats(young,pears).
```

Prolog prompt

cursor

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Simple Queries: the Period ‘.’

- Queries can take multiple lines
- If you forget the final period, Prolog prompts for more inputs with `|`.

```
?- eats(ibti,vegetables)
| .
false.
```

```
eats(adam,sushi).
eats(eric,chips).
eats(eric,pears).
eats(isaac,fish).
eats(isaac,fish).
eats(ibti,chips).
eats(ibti,sushi).
eats(jordan,fish).
eats(jordan,olives).
eats(jonathan,olives).
eats(jonathan,chips).
eats(maria,sushi).
eats(robert,chips).
eats(robert,olives).
eats(sean,sushi).
eats(sean,chips).
eats(young,olives).
eats(young,pears).
```

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Queries With Variables

```
?- eats(michael,X).
X = fish
true.
?-
```

Here, it waits for input. We hit `Enter (or ;)` to make it proceed.

- Any term can appear as a query, including a term with variables
- The Prolog system shows the bindings necessary to prove the query

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Multiple Solutions

- There might be more than one way to prove the query
- By typing `;` rather than `Enter`, you ask the Prolog system to find more solutions
 - » Example: What does `kyle` eat?

```

"; (no return) Asks: anymore values that satisfy the query?
?- eats(isaac,X).
X = fish ;
X = chips ;
No
    
```

```

eats(adam,sushi).
eats(eric,chips).
eats(eric,pears).
eats(isaac,fish).
eats(isaac,fish).
east(ibti,chips).
east(ibti,sushi).
eats(jordan,fish).
eats(jordan,olives).
eats(jonathan,olives).
eats(jonathan,chips).
eats(maria,sushi).
eats(robert,chips).
eats(robert,olives).
eats(sean,sushi).
eats(sean,chips).
eats(young,olives).
eats(young,pears).
    
```

Flexibility

- Normally, variables can appear in any or all positions in a query:

```

» eats(X,olives)
» eats(corey,X)
» eats(X,Y)
» eats(X,X)
- (guesses)?
    
```

```

eats(adam,sushi).
eats(eric,chips).
eats(eric,pears).
eats(isaac,fish).
eats(isaac,fish).
east(ibti,chips).
east(ibti,sushi).
eats(jordan,fish).
eats(jordan,olives).
eats(jonathan,olives).
eats(jonathan,chips).
eats(maria,sushi).
eats(robert,chips).
eats(robert,olives).
eats(sean,sushi).
eats(sean,chips).
eats(young,olives).
eats(young,pears).
    
```

Conjunctions

```

% who'll share what with eric?
?- eats(eric, Food), eats(Person, Food).
Food = chips
Person = eric;
Food = chips
Person = isaac;
    
```

```

eats(adam,sushi).
eats(eric,chips).
eats(eric,pears).
eats(isaac,fish).
eats(isaac,fish).
east(ibti,chips).
east(ibti,sushi).
eats(jordan,fish).
eats(jordan,olives).
eats(jonathan,olives).
eats(jonathan,chips).
eats(maria,sushi).
eats(robert,chips).
eats(robert,olives).
eats(sean,sushi).
eats(sean,chips).
eats(young,olives).
eats(young,pears).
    
```

- A conjunctive query has a list of query terms separated by commas
 - » think of commas as "AND's"
- The Prolog system tries prove them all (using a single set of bindings)
- Example: Query folks that eat *common* foods with `eric`

More General Queries

- Query folks that eat *common* foods:
 - » conjoin two constraints with a common food.
 - » conjoined with a *comma* (read as "and").

```

?- eats(Person1,Food),eats(Person2,Food).
    
```

Both Adam and Maria like sushi

```

Person1 = adam
Food = sushi
Person2 = adam;

Person1 = adam
Food = sushi
Person2 = maria;
    
```

```

eats(adam,sushi).
eats(eric,chips).
eats(eric,pears).
eats(isaac,fish).
eats(isaac,fish).
east(ibti,chips).
east(ibti,sushi).
eats(jordan,fish).
eats(jordan,olives).
eats(jonathan,olives).
eats(jonathan,chips).
eats(maria,sushi).
eats(robert,chips).
eats(robert,olives).
eats(sean,sushi).
eats(sean,chips).
eats(young,olives).
eats(young,pears).
    
```

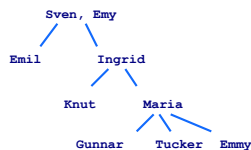
More Examples: Conjunctions

Who are Sven's grandchildren?

```

%
% 1) Who is a child of Sven?
% Assume 'Child'
% 2) Who is a child of Child?
% Assume 'GrandChild'
?- parent(sven,Child),
| parent(Child,GrandChild).

Child = ingrid,
GrandChild = maria ;
Child = ingrid,
GrandChild = knut ;
No
?-
    
```



mariafamily.pl

```

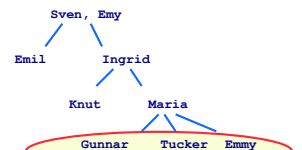
parent(maria,gunnar).
parent(maria,tucker).
parent(maria,emmy).
parent(ingrid,maria).
parent(ingrid,knut).
parent(emy,ingrid).
parent(sven,ingrid).
parent(sven,emil).
    
```

More Examples: Conjunctions

Great grandchildren of Emy?

```

% Great grandchildren of Emy?
% 1) Who is a child of Emy
% 2) Who is a child of ?
% 3) Who is a child of ?
    
```



```

parent(maria,gunnar).
parent(maria,tucker).
parent(maria,emmy).
parent(ingrid,maria).
parent(ingrid,knut).
parent(emy,ingrid).
parent(sven,ingrid).
parent(sven,emil).
    
```

More Examples: Conjunctions

```

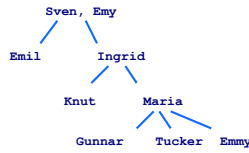
Great grandchildren of Emy?
% Great grandchildren of Emy?
?- parent(emy, Child),
   | parent(Child, Grandchild),
   | parent(Grandchild, GreatGrandchild).

Child = ingrid
Grandchild = maria
GreatGrandchild = gunnar ;

Child = ingrid
Grandchild = maria
GreatGrandchild = tucker ;

Child = ingrid
Grandchild = maria
GreatGrandchild = emmy ;

No
?-
    
```



```

parent(maria,gunnar).
parent(maria,tucker).
parent(maria,emmy).
parent(ingrid,maria).
parent(ingrid,knut).
parent(emy,ingrid).
parent(sven,ingrid).
parent(sven,emil).
    
```

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Motivation: Need Rules

```

% Great grandchildren of Emy?
?- parent(emy, Child),
   | parent(Child, Grandchild),
   | parent(Grandchild, GreatGrandchild).
    
```

parents.pl

- Long query for great grandchildren of Emy?
 - » Nicer to query directly:


```
greatgrandparent(emy, GreatGrandchild)
```
 - » While not adding separate facts of that form to the database?
 - this relation should follow from the parent relation already defined.

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A Rule

```

head → greatgrandparent(GGP,GGC) :-
        parent(GGP,GP),
        parent(GP,P),
        parent(P,GGC).
    
```

- A rule says **how to prove something**: to prove the **head**, prove its **conditions**
- To prove `greatgrandparent(GGP,GGC)`, find some `GP` and `P` for which you can prove `parent(GGP,GP)`, then `parent(GP,P)` and then finally `parent(P,GGC)`

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A Rule

```

head → greatgrandparent(GGP,GGC) :-
        parent(GGP,GP),
        parent(GP,P),
        parent(P,GGC).
    
```

- A rule says how to prove something: to prove the head, prove the conditions
- To prove `greatgrandparent(GGP,GGC)`, find some `GP` and `P` for which you can prove `parent(GGP,GP)`, then `parent(GP,P)` and then finally `parent(P,GGC)`

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A Rule

```

head → greatgrandparent(GGP,GGC) :-
        parent(GGP,GP),
        parent(GP,P),
        parent(P,GGC)
        conditions (body)
    
```

- A rule says how to prove something: to prove the head, prove the conditions
- To prove `greatgrandparent(GGP,GGC)`, find some `GP` and `P` for which you can prove `parent(GGP,GP)`, then `parent(GP,P)` and then finally `parent(P,GGC)`

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Facts and Rules

```

Head :- Body. % This is a rule.
Head. % This is a fact.
    
```

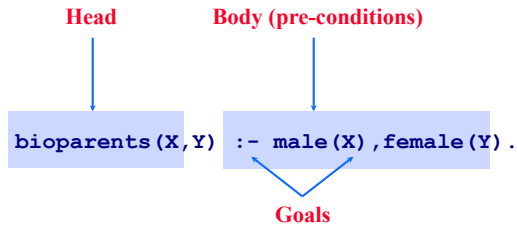
“if” body is true
“provided that”
“turnstile”
- it's supposed to look like “←”

Head is the **consequence**.
Head can be concluded if the body is true

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Facts and Rules



- Note that left side of the rule looks just like a fact, except that the parameters are variables
- Read:
 - » The pair "parents(X,Y)" satisfies the predicate "parents" if there is a node X and Y such that X satisfies the predicate "X" and "Y" satisfies the predicate Y.

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Clauses

- A program consists of a list of *clauses*
- A clause is either a fact or a rule, and ends with a period

```
parent(maria,gunnar).
parent(maria,tucker).
parent(maria,emmy).
parent(ingrid,maria).
parent(ingrid,knut).
parent(emmy,ingrid).
parent(sven,ingrid).
parent(sven,emil).
greatgrandparent(GGP,,GGC) :-
    parent(GGP,GP),
    parent(GP,P),
    parent(P,GGC).
```

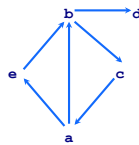


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Example: Clauses: Facts and Rules

- Example:** A directed graph of five nodes:
- Define the edges of the graph, as facts?
- Define a rule called "tedge" which defines the property of a "path of length two" between two edges?



```
edge(a,b).
edge(a,c).
edge(b,d).
edge(c,d).
edge(e,b).
```

```
tedge(Node1,Node2) :-
    edge(Node1,SomeNode),
    edge(SomeNode,Node2).
```

The pair (Node1,Node2) satisfies the predicate tedge if there is a node SomeNode such that the pairs (Node1,SomeNode) and (SomeNode,Node2) both satisfies the predicate edge.

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Interpretation of Clauses

- Form of Clause:**
 - » $H :- G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n.$
- Declarative Reading:**
 - » "That H is provable follows from goals G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n being provable"
- Procedural Reading:**
 - » "To execute procedure H, the procedures called by the goals G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n are executed first"

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Example 3: Another Rule

```
Compatible(Person1, Person2) :- eats(Person1,Food),
    eats(Person2, Food).
```

- "Person1 and Person2 are compatible if there exists some Food that they both eat."
- "One way to satisfy the head of this rule is to satisfy the body"

```
eats(steve,olives).
eats(sol,pear).
eats(sol,fish).
eats(george,chips).
eats(cole,fish).
eats(cole,chips).
eats(alex,olives).
eats(corey,olives).
eats(george,olives).
eats(jason,olives).
eats(dong,olives).
eats(david,olives).
```

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Rules using 'other' Rules

```
grandparent(GP,GC) :-
    parent(GP,P), parent(P,GC).
greatgrandparent(GGP,GGC) :-
    grandparent(GGP,P), parent(P,GGC).
```

- Same relation, defined indirectly
- Note that both clauses use a variable P
- The scope of the definition of a variable is the **clause that contains it**

Prolog allows recursion SQL doesn't

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Recursive Rules

```

ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y) .
ancestor(X,Y) :-
    parent(Z,Y) ,
    ancestor(X,Z) .
    
```

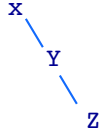
- **x is an ancestor of y if:**
 - » **Base case:** x is a parent of y
 - » **Recursive case:** there is some z such that z is a parent of y, and x is an ancestor of z
- Prolog tries rules in the order given, so put base-case rules and facts first

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Recursion Example 2

- Who's married to their boss?
 - » `boss(X,Y) , married(X,Y) .`
- Who's married to their boss's boss?
 - » `boss(X,Y) , boss(Y,Z) , married(X,Z) .`
- Who's married to their boss's boss's boss?
 - » Okay, this is getting silly. Let's do the general case.
- Who's married to someone *above* them?
 - » `above(X,X) .`
 - » `above(X,Y) :- boss(X,Underling) , above(Underling,Y) .`
 - » `above(X,Y) , married(X,Y) .`



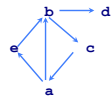
Base case: For simplicity, it says that X is "above" herself. If you don't like that, replace base case with `above(X,Y) :- boss(X,Y) .`

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Example: Graph Example

- Embellish graph program to include "path"s of any positive length.
- Thinking Recursively:
 - » If there is an edge then there is a path (base)
 - » If there is an edge to an intermediate node from which there is a path to the final node.



```

path(N1,N2) :- edge(N1,N2) .
path(N1,N2) :- edge(N1,SomeN) , path(SomeN,N2)
    
```

- » Two rules with the same head, reflects logical "or"
- » Predicate of head of second rule, is also in the body of that rule.
- » These rules together illustrate **recursion** in Prolog!

```

edge(a,b) .          edge(b,c) .
edge(a,e) .          edge(c,a) .
edge(b,d) .          edge(e,b) .
tedge(N1,N2)        :- edge(N1,SomeN) , edge(SomeN,N2) .
path(N1,N2)         :- edge(N1,N2) .
path(N1,N2)         :- edge(N1,SomeN) , path(SomeN,N2) .
    
```

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Core Syntax of Prolog

```

<clause> ::= <fact> | <rule>
<fact>   ::= <term> .
<rule>   ::= <term> :- <termlist> .
<termlist> ::= <term> | <term> ,
<termlist>
    
```

- You have seen the complete core syntax
- There is not much more syntax for Prolog than this: it is a very simple language
- Syntactically, that is!

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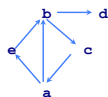
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How does Prolog Compute?

- Deduce useful implicit knowledge from the "program" or data base.
- Computations in Prolog is facilitated by the *query*, a conjunction of atoms.
- New example (more complicated) program:

```

1 | edge(a,b) .          edge(b,c)
   | edge(a,e) .          edge(c,a) .
   | edge(b,d) .          edge(e,b) .
   | tedge(N1,N2)        :- edge(N1,SomeN) , edge(SomeN,N2) .
   | path(N1,N2)         :- edge(N1,N2) .
   | path(N1,N2)         :- edge(N1,SomeN) , path(SomeN,N2)
    
```



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```

1 | edge(a,b) .          2 | edge(b,c) .
3 | edge(a,e) .          4 | edge(c,a) .
5 | edge(b,d) .          6 | edge(e,b) .
7 | tedge(N1,N2)        8 | :- edge(N1,SomeN) , edge(SomeN,N2) .
8 | path(N1,N2)         9 | :- edge(N1,N2) .
9 | path(N1,N2)         :- edge(N1,SomeN) , path(SomeN,N2)
    
```

- `edge(a,b) .`


```

1 edge(a,b).      2 edge(b,c)
3 edge(a,e).      4 edge(c,a).
5 edge(b,d).      6 edge(e,b).
7 tedge(N1,N2)   :- edge(N1,SomeN),edge(SomeN,N2).
8 path(N1,N2)    :- edge(N1,N2).
9 path(N1,N2)    :- edge(N1,SomeN),path(SomeN,N2)

```

- edge(a,b).

- » Iterates **in order** through the program's "edge" clauses.
- » **Ground Query** only value identifiers as parameters to the predicate.
- » First one to match is **edge(a,b)** so Prolog returns with **true** (so yes).

```

1 edge(a,b).      2 edge(b,c)
3 edge(a,e).      4 edge(c,a).
5 edge(b,d).      6 edge(e,b).
7 tedge(N1,N2)   :- edge(N1,SomeN),edge(SomeN,N2).
8 path(N1,N2)    :- edge(N1,N2).
9 path(N1,N2)    :- edge(N1,SomeN),path(SomeN,N2)

```

- edge(a,b).
- path(a,b).

```

1 edge(a,b).      2 edge(b,c)
3 edge(a,e).      4 edge(c,a).
5 edge(b,d).      6 edge(e,b).
7 tedge(N1,N2)   :- edge(N1,SomeN),edge(SomeN,N2).
8 path(N1,N2)    :- edge(N1,N2).
9 path(N1,N2)    :- edge(N1,SomeN),path(SomeN,N2)

```

- edge(a,b).
- path(a,b).

- » another **ground query**
- » No rule that exactly match the query.
- » Know, the head is true if the body is true
- » If variable's N1 and N2 are replaced by a and b, then body of 8 is true
 - edge(a,b) is a fact!
 - and the head with the same substitution must be true
- » Prolog conclude that the query is **true**

```

1 edge(a,b).      2 edge(b,c)
3 edge(a,e).      4 edge(c,a).
5 edge(b,d).      6 edge(e,b).
7 tedge(N1,N2)   :- edge(N1,SomeN),edge(SomeN,N2).
8 path(N1,N2)    :- edge(N1,N2).
9 path(N1,N2)    :- edge(N1,SomeN),path(SomeN,N2)

```

- edge(a,b).
- path(a,b).
- tedge(a,X).

```

1 edge(a,b).      2 edge(b,c)
3 edge(a,e).      4 edge(c,a).
5 edge(b,d).      6 edge(e,b).
7 tedge(N1,N2)   :- edge(N1,SomeN),edge(SomeN,N2).
8 path(N1,N2)    :- edge(N1,N2).
9 path(N1,N2)    :- edge(N1,SomeN),path(SomeN,N2)

```

- edge(a,b).
- path(a,b).
- tedge(a,X).

- » non-Ground Query: **variable** parameters
- » Scan rules, finds that constraint "7" defines **tedge**, focus on 7
- » Substitutes **N1 = a, X = N2**
- » Is edge(a, N2) true? True if body is true, evaluates body:
 - » edge(a,SomeN), edge(SomeN,N2) ?
- » edge(a,SomeN)? two facts fit, take the first one edge(a,b)
 - » if we substitute SomeN = b [first query is satisfied]
- » after substitution evaluate 2nd atom, i.e. edge(b,N2)?
- » Similarly as above substitute: **N2 = d**
- » Following the substitution it finds that **X = d** satisfies the original query

How Does Prolog Compute?

- Unification (pattern matching, eval).
- Resolution (apply, one at a time).
- Backtracking

Unification

- Pattern-matching using Prolog terms
- Two terms unify if there is some way of binding their variables that make them identical.
 - » Usually the two terms
 - one from the **query** (or another goal) and
 - the other being a **fact** or a **head of a rule**
 - » Example:
 - `parent(adam,Child)` and `parent(adam,seth)`
 - Do these unify?
 - Yes! they unify by binding the variable `Child` to the atom `seth`.

Resolution

- The **hardwired inference step**
- A clause is represented as a list of terms (a list of one term, if it is a fact)
- Resolution step **applies** one clause, once, to make progress on a list of goal terms

Resolution

- When an atom from the query has unified with the head of a rule (or a fact),
- Resolution **replaces** the atom with the **body** of the rule (or nothing, if a fact) and
- then applies the substitution to the new query.

tedge (a , X) .

1 edge (a , b) .	edge (b , c)	
3 edge (a , e) .		edge (c , a) .
5 edge (b , d) .		edge (e , b) .
6 tedge (N1 , N2)		:- edge (N1 , SomeN) , edge (SomeN , N2) .
7 path (N1 , N2)		:- edge (N1 , N2) .
8 path (N1 , N2)		:- edge (N1 , SomeN) , path (SomeN , N2)

- **Unify:**
 - » `tedge(a,X)` and `tedge(N1,N2)`.
 - » giving the substitution
 - `N1 = a, X = N2`
- **Resolution:**
 - » replaces `tedge(a,X)` with body `edge(N1,SomeN), edge(SomeN,N2)` and apply the substitution above to get the new query.
 - `edge(a,SomeN),edge(SomeN,N2)`
- **Select first atom, edge(a,SomeN)**
- **Unify:**
 - » `edge(a,SomeN)` with `edge(a,b)`,
 - » giving the substitution
 - `SomeN = b`
- **Resolution:** replace `edge(a,SomeN) ...`

tedge (a , X) .

1 edge (a , b) .	2 edge (b , c)
3 edge (a , e) .	4 edge (c , a) .
5 edge (b , d) .	6 edge (e , b) .
6 tedge (N1 , N2)	:- edge (N1 , SomeN) , edge (SomeN , N2) .
7 path (N1 , N2)	:- edge (N1 , N2) .
8 path (N1 , N2)	:- edge (N1 , SomeN) , path (SomeN , N2)

- **Resolution:** replace `edge(a,SomeN)` by nothing (since we unified with a fact) and apply the substitution above to get the new query:
 - » `edge(b,N2)`
- There is only one atom in the query.
- **Unify**
 - » `edge(b,N2)`, and `edge(b,d)`.
- giving the substitution
 - » `N2 = d`
- **Resolution:** replace `edge(b,N2)` by nothing (since we unified with a fact). Since the resulting query is empty we are done!

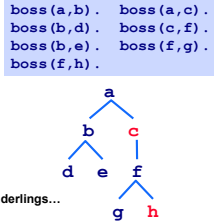
Backtracking

- There are other solutions, we could redo the computation above and get substitution
 - » `X=b` or `X = c` or `X = d`
- When Prolog reduces a query to the empty query,
 - » it **backtracks to the most recent unification** to determine whether there is another fact or rule with which the unification can succeed.
 - » Backtracking continues until all possible answers are determined.

Recursive Queries

```
above(X,X).
above(X,Y) :- boss(X,Underling), above(Underling,Y).
```

- above(c,h). % should return True
 - » matches above(X,X)? NO
 - » matches above(X,Y) with X=c and Y=h
 - » boss(c,Underling),
 - matches boss(c,f) with Underling=f
 - » above(f,h).
 - matches above(X,X)? no
 - matches above(X,Y) with X=f, Y=h
 - boss(f,Underling),
 - » matches boss(f,g) with Underling=g
 - above(g,h)
 - » ... ultimately fails because g has no underlings...



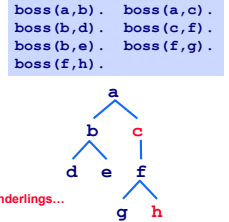
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Recursive Queries

```
above(X,X).
above(X,Y) :- boss(X,Underling), above(Underling,Y).
```

- above(c,h). % should return True
 - » matches above(X,X)? NO
 - » matches above(X,Y) with X=c and Y=h
 - » boss(c,Underling),
 - matches boss(c,f) with Underling=f
 - » above(f,h).
 - matches above(X,X)? no
 - matches above(X,Y) with X=f, Y=h
 - boss(f,Underling),
 - » matches boss(f,g) with Underling=g
 - above(g,h)
 - » ... ultimately fails because g has no underlings...



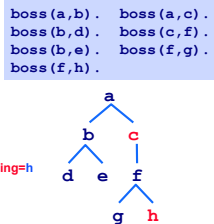
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Recursive Queries

```
above(X,X).
above(X,Y) :- boss(X,Underling), above(Underling,Y).
```

- above(c,h). % should return True
 - » matches above(X,X)? NO
 - » matches above(X,Y) with X=c and Y=h
 - » boss(c,Underling),
 - matches boss(c,f) with Underling=f
 - » above(f,h).
 - matches above(X,X)? no
 - matches above(X,Y) with X=f, Y=h
 - boss(f,Underling),
 - » matches boss(f,Underling) with Underling=h
 - above(h,h)
 - » matches above(X,X) with X=h ...



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Review: Basic Elements of Prolog

- **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
 - » allows unification to succeed
- **Predicates:** represents atomic proposition
functor(parameter list)

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Review Prolog

- **Prolog program:** Set of propositions
 - » Facts
 - » Rules: **consequence** \Leftarrow **antecedent** (if antecedent is true then the consequence is true).
 - edge(A,B) :- edge(A,X), edge(X,B).
- **Running a program:** A Prolog query (sometimes called goals): A proposition of which truth is to be determined.
 - » **Idea:** Prove truthfulness (or "cannot determine" (not falsehood)) by trying to find a chain of inference rules and facts (inference process)
 - Resolution: Process that allows inferred propositions to be **computed** from given propositions
 - » Unification merges compatible statements. Binding process.

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Inference Process

- **Backward Chaining, Top-down resolution:**
 - » Start with goal (query), see if a sequence of propositions **leads to set of facts** in the database (Prolog)
 - Looks for something in the database that unify the current goal,
 - finds a fact, great it succeeds!
 - If it finds a rule, it attempts to satisfy the terms in the body of the rule (these are now subgoals).
- **Forward Chaining, Bottom-up resolution:**
 - » Begin with program of facts and rules in the database and attempt to find a sequence that **leads to goal (query)**.

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Backward Chaining

- When goal has more than one sub-goal, can use either
 - » **Depth-first search:** find a complete proof for the first sub-goal before working on others (Prolog)
 - Push the current goal onto a stack,
 - make the first term in the body the current goal, and
 - prove this new goal by looking at beginning of database again.
 - If it proves this new goal of a body successfully, go to the next goal in the body. If it gets all the way through the body, the goal is satisfied and it backs up a level and proceeds.
 - » **Breadth-first search:** work on all sub-goals in parallel

Backtracking

- If a sub-goal fails:
 - » reconsider previous subgoal to find an alternative solution
- Begin search where previous search left off
- Can take lots of time and space because may find all possible proofs to every sub-goal

Compound Terms

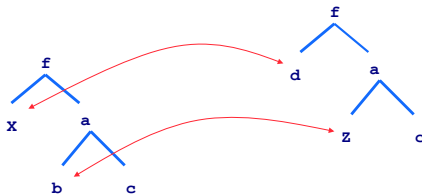
- **Basic blocks:** variables, constants and variables
- **Compound terms:** Seen it already -- it is the `functor(parameter list)` structure (e.g., `eats(cole, fish)`)
 - » Variables cannot be used for the `functor`
 - » However the “parameter list” can be any kind of term (it can be another functor).
 - » `book(title(lord_of_the_rings), author(tolkien))`
 - » **Uh uh** what about **unification** now! (matching of goals and heads).

Unification Rules

- **Two terms unify:**
 - » if substitution can be made for any variables in the terms so that terms are made identical.
 - » If no such substitution exists, the terms do not unify.
- The unification algorithm proceeds by recursively descent of the two terms.
 - » Constants unify if they are identical
 - » Variables unify with any term, including other variables
 - » Compound terms unify if their functors and components unify

Unification Compound Terms

- Compound terms unify if their functors and components unify (how do terms become equal?)
 - » $f(X, a(b,c))$ and $f(d, a(Z, c))$ do unify.

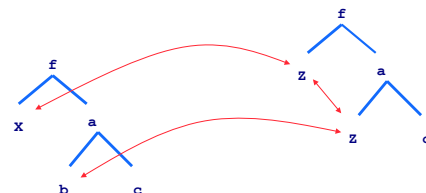


These terms are made equal if d is substituted for X , and b is substituted for Z .

- » d is substituted for X (X is instantiated to d , X/d)
- » b is substituted for Z (Z is instantiated to b , Z/b)

Example 2

- The terms $f(X, a(b,c))$ and $f(Z, a(Z, c))$ unify

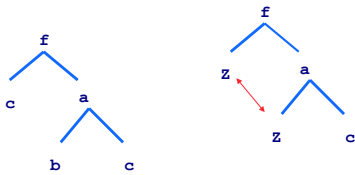


- Z co-refers within the term. Here, $X/b, Z/b$.

» Earlier : $f(X, a(b,c))$ and $f(d, a(Z, c))$ did unify...

What about?

- $f(c, a(b,c))$ and $f(z, a(z, c))$?



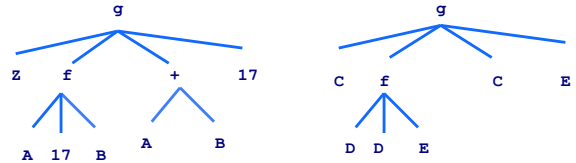
- No matter how hard you try, these terms cannot be made identical by substituting terms for variables.

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Unify?

- $g(Z, f(A, 17, B), A+B, 17)$ and $g(C, f(D, D, E), C, E)$?

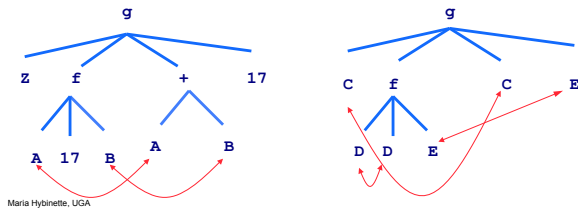


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Unify?

- First write in the co-referring variables.



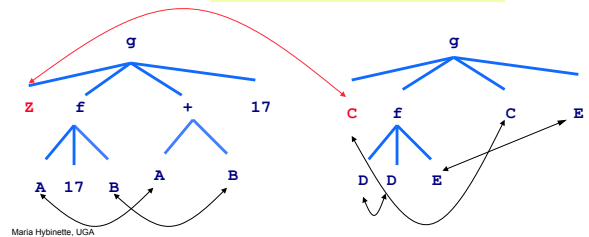
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Unify?

- Recursive descent: We go top-down, left-to-right
» but the order does not matter as long as it is systematic and complete.

z/C, C/z



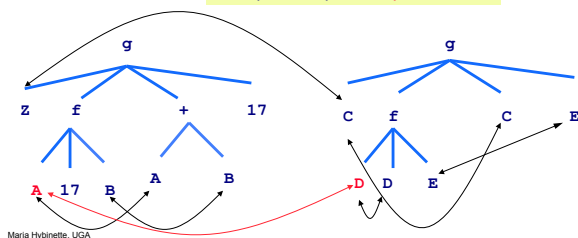
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Unify?

- recursive descent We go top-down, left-to-right, but the order does not matter as long as it is systematic and complete.

z/C, C/z, A/D, D/A



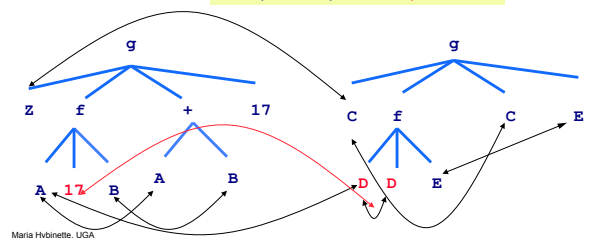
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Unify?

- recursive descent We go top-down, left-to-right, but the order does not matter as long as it is systematic and complete.

z/C, C/z, A/17, D/17



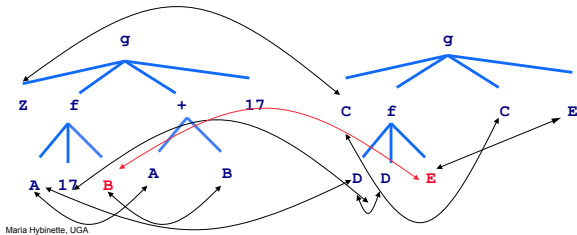
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Unify?

- recursive descent We go top-down, left-to-right, but the order does not matter as long as it is systematic and complete.

Z/C, C/Z, A/17, D/17, B/E, E/B

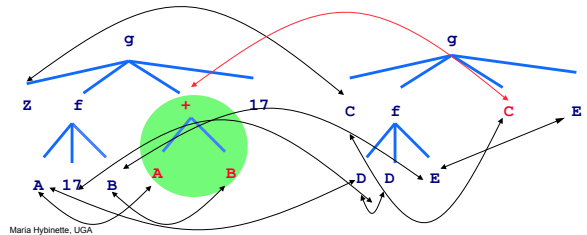


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Unify?

- recursive descent We go top-down, left-to-right, but the order does not matter as long as it is systematic and complete.

Z/C, C/Z, A/17, D/17, B/E, E/B

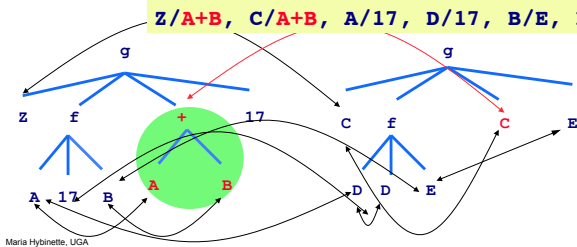


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Unify?

- recursive descent We go top-down, left-to-right, but the order does not matter as long as it is systematic and complete.

Z/C, C/Z, A/17, D/17, B/E, E/B

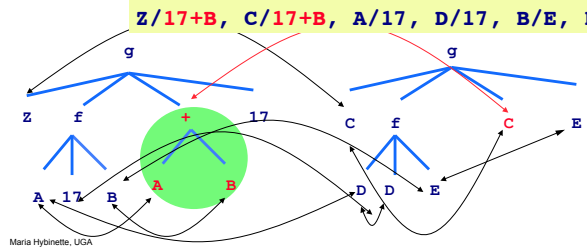


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Unify?

- recursive descent We go top-down, left-to-right, but the order does not matter as long as it is systematic and complete.

Z/C, C/Z, A/17, D/17, B/E, E/B

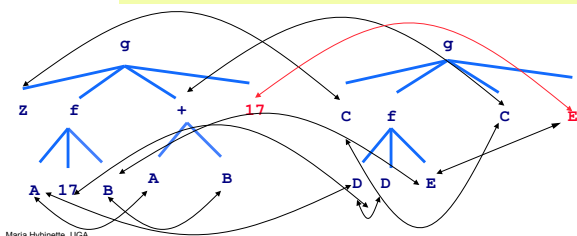


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Unify?

- recursive descent We go top-down, left-to-right, but the order does not matter as long as it is systematic and complete.

Z/17+B, C/17+B, A/17, D/17, B/E, E/B

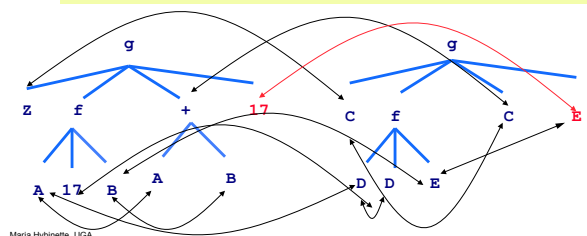


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Unify?

- recursive descent We go top-down, left-to-right, but the order does not matter as long as it is systematic and complete.

Z/17+17, C/17+17, A/17, D/17, B/17, E/17



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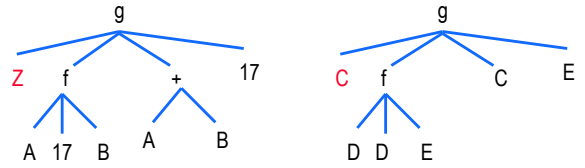
Can also use "substitution method"

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8E

Exercise - Alternative Method

Z/C



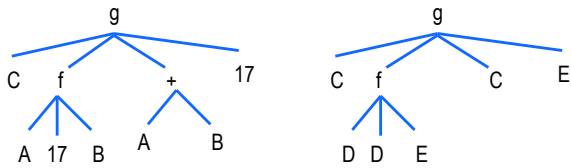
Make 1st tree look like 2nd

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Exercise - Alternative Method

Z/C

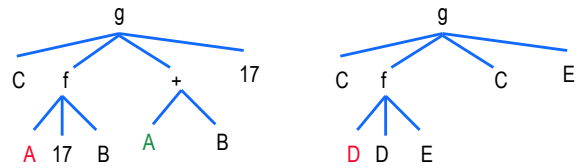


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Exercise - Alternative Method

A/D, Z/C

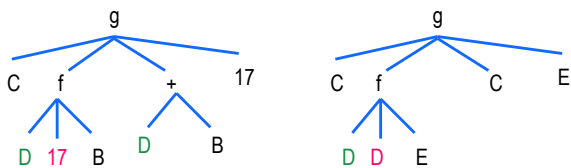


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8E

Exercise - Alternative Method

D/17, A/D, Z/C

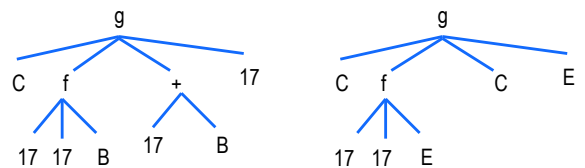


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8E

Exercise - Alternative Method

D/17, A/17, Z/C

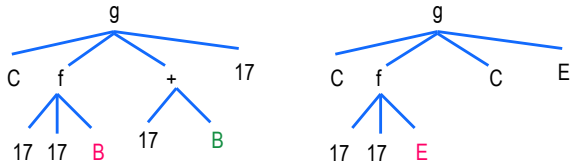


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9C

Exercise - Alternative Method

B/E, D/17, A/17, Z/C

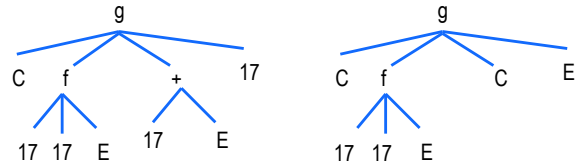


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Exercise - Alternative Method

B/E, D/17, A/17, Z/C

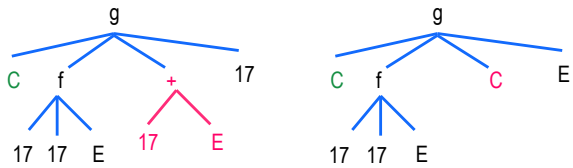


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Exercise - Alternative Method

C/17+E, B/E, D/17, A/17, Z/C

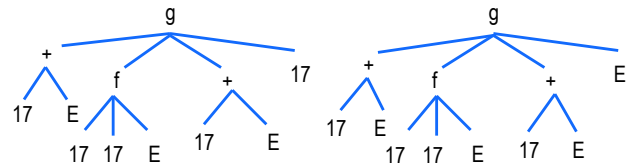


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Exercise - Alternative Method

C/17+E, B/E, D/17, A/17, Z/17+E

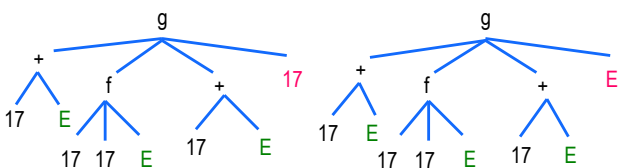


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Exercise - Alternative Method

E/17, C/17+E, B/E, D/17, A/17, Z/C

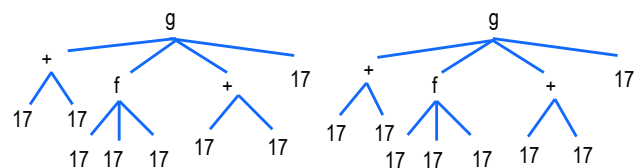


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Exercise - Alternative Method

E/17, C/17+17, B/17, D/17, A/17, Z/C



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Operators

- Prolog has some predefined operators (and the ability to define new ones)
- An operator is just a **predicate** for which a special abbreviated syntax is supported
 - » Example: `+(2, 3)` can also be written as `2 + 3`

The Predicate '='

- The goal `=(X, Y)` succeeds if and only if **X** and **Y** can be unified:

```
?- =(parent(maria,gunnar),parent(maria,X)).
X = gunnar
Yes
```

- Since `=` is an operator, it can be and usually is written like this:

```
?- parent(maria,gunnar)=parent(maria,X).
X = gunnar
Yes
```

The Predicate '='

- Note: The goal `=(X, Y)` succeeds if and only if **X** and **Y** can be **unified**. Consider `=(5, +(3, 2))`

```
?- (2+3) = 5.
No.
```

Arithmetic Operators

- Predicates `+`, `-`, `*` and `/` are operators too, with the usual precedence and associativity

```
?- X = +(1,*(2,3)).
X = 1+2*3
Yes
?- X = 1+2*3.
X = 1+2*3
Yes
```

Prolog lets you use operator notation, and prints it out that way, but the underlying term is still `+(1, *(2, 3))`

Not Evaluated

```
?- +(X,Y) = 1+2*3.
X = 1
Y = 2*3
Yes
?- 7 = 1+2*3.
No
```

- The term is still `+(1, *(2, 3))`
- It is not evaluated
- There is a way to make Prolog evaluate such terms...

Arithmetic ('is' gets the value)

- `is` operator:
- `is(X, 3 + 4)`
 - » `X is 3 + 4.`
- Unifies it's first argument with the arithmetic **value** of its second argument.
- Infix OK too: takes an arithmetic **expression** as right operand and variable as left operand
- **Variables** in the expression (on right) **must all be instantiated**.
 - » `is(A, B / 10 + C)`
 - » `A is B / 10 + C`
 - » In above, B and C needs to have been instantiated.
- **Variable** on the left **cannot be previously instantiated**.
 - » In above A cannot be instantiated (what happens if A is not a variable?)
- Left hand side cannot be an **expression** since it is not evaluated -- it may be a **value** (and then unification is possible)

`=(X, 3+4) % can X be unified?`



Unification impossible Example

- **Sum is Sum + Number**
- If **Sum** is not instantiated, the reference to its right is undefined and the clause fails
- If **Sum** is instantiated, the clause fails because the left operand cannot have a current instantiation when it is evaluated.

Arithmetic Evaluation is/2

```
?- X is 3 + 4.
X = 7

?- X = 3 + 4.
X = 3 + 4

?- 10 is 5 * 2. %
yes % b/c 10 is a "value"

?- 10 = 5 * 2.
no
```

```
?- is(X,1+2)
X=3
?- X is 1+2 % infix OK.
X=3
?- 1+2 is 4-1. % first argument
no % already instantiated
?- X is Y. % second argument Y
<error> % must be instantiated
?- Y is 1+2, X is Y.
X = 3 % Y instantiated
Y = 3 % before it is needed
```

- Unifies the first argument with the **value** of it's second argument.
 - » In contrast to (=) unification predicate, which just unifies terms without evaluating them
- **Note:** left may not be a "variable" then it may unify with the value on the right.

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)

```
distance(chevy, Chevy_Distance). % Query
```

Example Arithmetic

```
speed(ford,100).
speed(chevy,105).
speed(dodge,95).
speed(volvo,80).
time(ford,20).
time(chevy,21).
time(dodge,24).
time(volvo,24).
distance(X,Y) :- speed(X,Speed),
                 time(X,Time),
                 Y is Speed * Time.
```

```
distance(chevy, Chevy_Distance). % Query
```

Example Arithmetic

```
speed(ford,100).
speed(chevy,105).
speed(dodge,95).
speed(volvo,80).
time(ford,20).
time(chevy,21).
time(dodge,24).
time(volvo,24).
distance(X,Y) :- speed(X,Speed),
                 time(X,Time),
                 Y is Speed * Time.
```

```
trace.
distance(chevy, Chevy_Distance).
(1) 1 Call: distance(chevy, _0)?
(2) 2 Call: speed(chevy, _5)?
(2) 2 Exit: speed(chevy, 105)
(3) 2 Call: time(chevy, _6)?
(3) 2 Exit: time(chevy, 21)
(4) 2 Call: _0 is 105*21?
(2) 2 Exit: 2205 is 105 * 21
(1) 1 Exit: distance(chevy, 2205)

(2)
Chevy_Distance = 2205
```

List Structures

- Other basic data structure (besides atomic propositions we have already seen): list
- **List** is a sequence of any number of elements
- List is a functor of **arity 2**, its first component is the **head** and the second is the **tail**.
- Elements can be atoms, atomic propositions, or other terms (including other lists)

Same as in Scheme

```

nil
(a, nil)
(a, .(b, nil))
(a, .(b, .(c, .(d, .(e, nil)))))
(a,b) (note this is a pair, not a proper list)
(a, X) (this might be a list, or might not!)
(a, .(b, nil)), .(c, nil)

```

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List Notation `.` or `[]`

- The lists is written using square brackets `[]`.
- These are just abbreviations for the underlying term using the `.` Predicate
- List of length 0 is nil, denoted `[]`.

```

?- X = .(1,.(2,.(3,[]))).
X = [1, 2, 3]
Yes
?- .(X,Y) = [1,2,3]. % head and the rest
X = 1
Y = [2, 3]
Yes

```

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List Notation and the Tail

List Notation	Term denoted
<code>[1 X]</code>	<code>.(1,X)</code>
<code>[1,2 X]</code>	<code>.(1,.(2,X))</code>
<code>[1,2 [3,4]]</code>	same as <code>[1,2,3,4]</code>

- `[X | Y]`
 - » `X` is bound to first element in list, the head.
 - » `Y` is bound to the remaining elements, called the tail.
- Useful in patterns: `[1,2|X]` unifies with any list that starts with 1, 2 and binds `x` to the tail

```

?- [1,2|X] = [1,2,3,4,5].
X = [3, 4, 5]
Yes

```

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```

[apple, prune, grape, kumquat]
[] % (empty list)
[X | Y] % (head X and tail Y)

```

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The append Predicate

```

?- append([1,2],[3,4],Z).
Z = [1, 2, 3, 4]
Yes

```

- Predefined `append(X, Y, Z)` succeeds if and only if `Z` is the **result** of appending the list `Y` onto the end of the list `X`

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```

?- append(X,[3,4],[1,2,3,4]).
X = [1, 2]
Yes

```

- `append` can be used with any pattern of instantiation (that is, with variables in any positions)

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Implementing append()

```
?- append(X,Y,[1,2,3]).
```

```
X = []
Y = [1, 2, 3] ;
```

```
X = [1]
Y = [2, 3] ;
```

```
X = [1, 2]
Y = [3] ;
```

```
X = [1, 2, 3]
Y = [] ;
```

```
No
```

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

- Suppose we want to join
 - » [a, b, c] with [d, e].
 - » [a, b, c] has the recursive structure
 - [a | [b, c]].
 - » Then the rule says (if body is true then head is the consequence)
 - IF [b,c] appends with [d, e] to form [b, c, d, e]
 - THEN [a | [b, c]] appends with [d,e] to form [a | [b, c, d, e]]
 - » i.e. [a, b, c] [a, b, c, d, e]

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Implementing append()

```
append([], List, List).
append([Head | List1], List2, [Head | List3])
:- append(List1, List2, List3).
```

- If you know that a particular List1 will append with a List2 to produce a List3,
 - » then you know how it will go for a case which is one step more complex.
 - a list which is one element longer (the Head). i.e. if you add a Head to List1, then the result of the append will be that Head on the front of List3.

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Implementing append()

```
append([], List, List).
append([Head | List1], List2, [Head | List3])
:- append(List1, List2, List3).
```

```
?- append([a,b,c],[d],X).
append([a, b, c], ...)
  IF append([b, c], ...)
    IF append([c], ...)
      IF append([], ...)
        append(..., [d])
        append(..., [c,d])
        append(..., [b, c, d])
        append(..., [a, b, c, d])
```

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Implementing append()

```
append([], List, List).
append([Head | List1], List2, [Head | List3])
:- append(List1, List2, List3).
```

```
?- append([a,b,c],[d],X).
append([a, b, c], ...)
  IF append([b, c], ...)
    IF append([c], ...)
      IF append([], ...)
        append(..., [d])
        append(..., [c,d])
        append(..., [b, c, d])
        append(..., [a, b, c, d])

append([a | [b,c]], [d], [a | NT1])
  IF append([b,c], [d], NT1) X=[a | NT1]

append([b | [c]], [d], [b | NT2])
  IF append([c], [d], NT2) NT1=[b | NT2]

append([c | []], [d], [c | NT3])
  IF append([], [d], NT3) NT2=[c | NT3]

append([], [d], [d]) NT3 = [d]

NT2 = [c | NT3] = [c | [d]] = [c,d]
NT1 = [b | NT2] = [b | [c,d]] = [b,c,d]
X = [a | NT1] = [a | [b,c,d]] = [a,b,c,d]
```

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Implementing append()

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

- Two first parameters are the lists that are appended, the third parameter is the resulting list
- First proposition: when the empty list is appended to any other list
 - » the other list is the result.
- Second proposition:
 - » left hand side: first element of the new list (i.e. the result) is the same as the first element of the first given list (both are named Head).
 - » right hand side: the tail of the first given list (List_1) has the second given list (List_2) appended to form the tail of the resulting list (List_2 is the tail).

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

```
trace.
append([bob,jo], [jake, darcie], Family).

(1) 1 Call: append([bob, jo], [jake, darcie], _10)?
(2) 2 Call: append([jo], [jake, darcie], _18)?
(3) 3 Call: append([], [jake, darcie], _25)?
(3) 3 Exit: append([], [jake, darcie], [jake, darcie])
(2) 2 Exit: append([jo], [jake, darcie], [jo, jake, darcie])
(1) 1 Exit: append([bob, jo], [jake, darcie],
[bob, joe, jake, darcie])
Family = [bob, jo, jake, darcie]
```

Other Predefined List Predicates

Predicate	Description
<code>member(X, Y)</code>	Provable if the list <code>Y</code> contains the element <code>X</code> .
<code>select(X, Y, Z)</code>	Provable if the list <code>Y</code> contains the element <code>X</code> , and <code>Z</code> is the same as <code>Y</code> but with one instance of <code>X</code> removed.
<code>nth0(X, Y, Z)</code>	Provable if <code>X</code> is an integer, <code>Y</code> is a list, and <code>Z</code> is the <code>X</code> th element of <code>Y</code> , counting from 0.
<code>length(X, Y)</code>	Provable if <code>X</code> is a list of length <code>Y</code> .

- All flexible, like `append`
- Queries can contain variables anywhere

Using select

```
?- select(2, [1,2,3], Z) .

Z = [1, 3] ;

No
?- select(2, Y, [1,3]) .

Y = [2, 1, 3] ;

Y = [1, 2, 3] ;

Y = [1, 3, 2] ;

No
```

```
?- reverse([1,2,3,4], Y) .

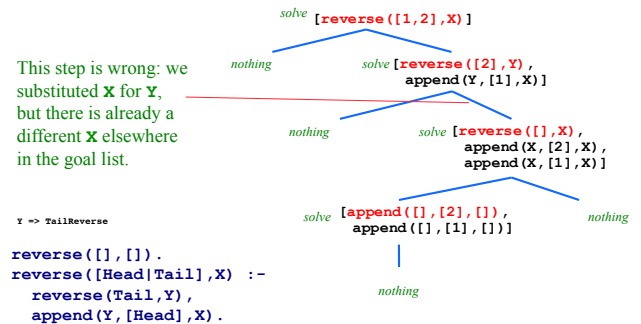
Y = [4, 3, 2, 1] ;

No
```

- Predefined `reverse(X, Y)` unifies `Y` with the reverse of the list `X`

- Definition of reverse function:

```
reverse([], []).
reverse([Head | Tail], X) :-
reverse(Tail, Y),
append(Result, [Head], X).
```

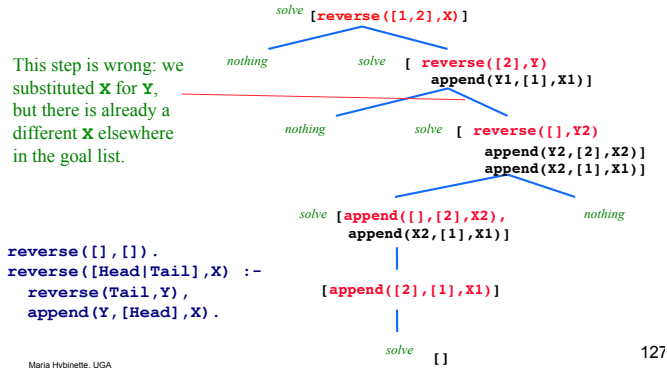


Deficiencies of Prolog

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

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Advantages:

- Prolog programs based on logic, so likely to be more logically organized and written
- Processing is naturally parallel, so Prolog interpreters can take advantage of multi-processor machines
- Programs are concise, so development time is decreased – good for prototyping

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SWI-Prolog

```

?- set_prolog_flag(history, 50).

Yes
27 ?- h.                                % shows history of commands
   2  eats(Person1,Food1).
   3  eats(Person1,Food),eats(Person2,Food).
   4  eats(corey,fish).
?- !!.                                   % Repeats last query
  
```

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