

Prolog

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Announcements

- Read Sections 10.2-10.3, and Chapter 11 in *AI: A Modern Approach* for Monday
- Homework #2 is due on Monday
 - Handin directories are already set up, in case you're ready to turn it in
- Homework #3 will go out on Monday (but it won't be due until after the midterm)

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Logic Programming

- Computation as inference on logical KBs

Ordinary Programming	Logic Programming
1. Identify problem	Identify problem
2. Assemble information	Assemble information
3. Plan out your algorithms	Go have a beer!
4. Program the solution	Encode information in the KB
5. Encode problem as data	Encode problem as logical facts
6. Run program on data	Ask queries
7. Debug errors	Find/correct false facts

Should be easier to debug `capital(NewYork, USA)` than find that pesky `x += 2!`

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Logic Programming

- Logic programs are also called expert systems
 - Problem domain experts sit down and encode lots of information into the KB
 - System then reasons using that “expert” knowledge
 - Used for medical diagnosis, Q/A systems, etc.
 - KB must be in datalog format: FOL with no functions
- Fall loosely under the “think rationally” quadrant of AI research

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Prolog

- Prolog is probably the most common logic programming language
- A program is:
 - A set of logic sentences in HNF (definite clauses)
 - Called the database (DB, basically the KB)
 - Ordered by programmer (top to bottom)
 - Executed by specifying a query to be proved
 - Backward-chaining with GMP
 - Uses DFS on the ordered facts and rules
 - Searches until a solution is found (or times out)
 - Can find multiple solutions

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Prolog Execution

To Solve a Goal (*i.e.* answer a query)

- Try to unify:
 - First with each of the ground facts
 - When all facts fail, then with each of the consequents of the rules in the order in which they occur in DB
- Successful unification with a fact:
 - Solved, pop goal from stack
- Successful unification with a rule:
 - Solve the sub-goals in DFS manner (*i.e.* recursively attempt to solve each of the rule's premises)

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Prolog Execution

Backtracking During DFS

- While solving a rule:
 - If antecedent (premise) fails to be proved true
 - Then try to re-prove it using *different* facts or rules
- When a rule fails:
 - If an antecedent can't be solved at all, the rule fails
 - Go on to the next rule in the program and try again (try to unify current goal with a different consequent)

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Prolog Execution

- Efficient implementation
 - Unification use “open coding”
 - Retrieval and matching of clauses by direct linking
 - Sophisticated memory management
- Uses a closed world assumption
 - Negation as failure
 - e.g. given $\neg \text{dead}(X) \Rightarrow \text{alive}(X)$
`alive(elvis)` succeeds if `dead(elvis)` fails
- Widely used in Europe and Japan

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Basic Prolog Syntax

- Database:
 - **Fact:** a positive literal (atom)
 $FOL: F(x)$ $Prolog: f(x).$
 $FOL: \neg F(x)$ $Prolog: not\ f(x).$
variables are capitalized and universally quantified
 - **Rules:** 1 positive literal (the consequent, or head), and at least 1 negative (the antecedents)
 $FOL: A_1 \wedge A_2 \wedge \dots \wedge A_n \Rightarrow C$ $Prolog: C :- A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n.$
- Query:
 - $FOL: Q_1 \wedge Q_2 \wedge \dots \wedge Q_n$ $Prolog: ?- Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_n.$

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Prolog Example

Example prolog DB that encodes our “criminal” example from last time (note that variables are capitalized, and constants in lower-case):

```
missile(m).
owns(nono,m).
enemy(nono,america).
american(west).
weapon(X) :- missile(X).
sells(west,X,nono) :- missile(X),owns(nono,X).
hostile(X) :- enemy(X,america).
criminal(X) :-
    american(X), weapon(Y),
    sells(X,Y,Z), hostile(Z).
```

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Prolog Example

- The implementation of prolog that we'll use on the TUX machines is called YAP
 - “Yet Another Prolog”
 - Freeware implementation, downloadable from www.ncc.up.pt/~vsc/Yap/
- To run prolog on a TUX machine, type: `% yap`
- To end prolog, type: `?- halt.`
- To load a file, type: `?- [file].`
- The prolog extension is `*.pl`
 - Try not to confuse it with perl programs
 - Note that you don't need the extension when loading a program into prolog, it knows to look for the file with a `*.pl` extension

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Prolog Example

- Once YAP is running and the criminal KB is loaded, we can start by asking simple queries we clearly already know:

```
?- missile(m).           ?- american(west).
```
- Then we can move on to more complex queries:

```
?- weapon(X).           ?- owns(X,m).
?- criminal(west).
```
- To view the entire BC search, YAP has a debugging feature called “spy”:
 - Type `spy(predicate).` to turn it on
 - And `nospy(predicate).` to turn it off

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Another Prolog Example

- Let's consider a simple KB that expresses facts about a certain family:

```
father(tom,dick).    mother(tom,judy).
father(dick,harry).  mother(dick,mary).
father(jane,harry).  mother(jane,mary).
```

- Now let's also think about creating some FOL rules for defining family relations:

```
- Parent?
parent(X,P) :- mother(X,P).
parent(X,P) :- father(X,P).

- Grandmother?
granny(X,G) :- parent(X,Y), mother(Y,G).
```

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Another Prolog Example

- How should we define the relation sibling?
 - Two people are siblings if they have the same mother and the same father (ignoring half-siblings, step-siblings, etc.)

- How about this:

```
sibling(X,Y) :- mother(X,M), mother(Y,M),
                father(X,M), father(Y,M).
```

- Let's run this and see what happens!

– Oops! Need to make sure $X \neq Y$!

```
sibling2(X,Y) :- mother(X,M), mother(Y,M),
                 father(X,M), father(Y,M), X \= Y.
```

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More Prolog Syntax

- Prolog has built-in operators (predicates) for mathematical functions and equalities:

```
-  $x = 2 \times (y+1)$        $x$  is 2*(Y+1).
-  $d < 20$              D < 20.
-  $1 \leq 2$              1 @=< 2.
-  $x = y$                X = Y.
-  $x \neq y$              X \= Y.
```

- The major data structure for Prolog is the *list*

```
- [] denotes an empty list
- [H|T] denotes a list with a head (H) and tail (T)
    • The head is the first element of the list
    • The tail is the entire sublist after it
    • e.g. for the list [a,b,c,d]... H=[a] and T=[b,c,d]
```

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List Processing in Prolog

- Suppose we want to define an “append” operator for lists... that is to take two lists $L1$ and $L2$, and merges their elements together into a new list $L3$

– Usually this is done with a function

• e.g. $L3 = \text{append}(L1, L2)$

– But prolog programs are *datalog*: no functions allowed!

• Create make-shift functions by defining predicates with the return value included as a parameter

• e.g. $\text{append}(L1, L2, L3)$

- How about defining a simple predicate that takes the first two $L1$ and $L2$, and returns a new list $[L1|L2]$?

– e.g. $\text{app}(L1, L2, [L1|L2])$.

– Nope! Let's try again...

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List Processing in Prolog

- What we need to do is take one list and recursively add one element at a time from the other list, until we've added them all

- Let's assume that we start with $L2$ and want to add the elements from $L1$ one at a time to the front

– Makes things easier: with $[H|T]$, H is the front element

– What is our base case?

• $\text{append}([], L2, L2)$.

– Now how do we deal with the *recursive* aspect?

• $\text{append}([H|T], L2, [H|L3]) :- \text{append}(T, L2, L3)$.

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List Processing in Prolog

- Now we can ask the queries:

```
?- append([1,2,3], [a,b,c], [1,2,3,a,b,c]).
```

• Result: yes

```
?- append([1,2,3], [a,b,c], X).
```

• Result: $x = [1,2,3,a,b,c]$

```
?- append(A, B, [1,2]).
```

• Result: $A=[] \quad B=[1,2]$
 $A=[1] \quad B=[2]$
 $A=[1,2] \quad B=[]$

- Recall that, since prolog uses BC, we can try to find any *single* solution, or find *all* solutions

– After each result, type “;” to view another

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Partitioning Lists

- Another useful application might be how to recursively sort prolog lists
- Most sorting algorithms utilize some partitioning method, where the list L is split into two sublists $L1$ and $L2$ based on a particular element E
 - e.g. splitting list [1,5,3,9,7,4,1] on element [5] would yield the lists [1,3,4,1] and [5,9,7]
- This would be a useful method to define first


```
partition(E, L, L1, L2).
```

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Partitioning Lists

- First, let's think of the base case for our partitioning predicate


```
partition(E, [], [], []).
```

 - That is, an empty list gets split into two empty lists
- Second, we must consider the recursive aspect:
 - Upon considering a new element H at the head of the list, what conditions must we account for?
 - If $H < E$, or if $H \geq E$ (to determine which sublist)
 - Since we have two different cases, each with a different desired result, we need two recursive definitions

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Partitioning Lists

- If $H < E$, then we want to add H to the first list $L1$:


```
partition(E, [H|T], [H|T1], L2) :-
    H < E,
    partition(E, T, T1, L2).
```
- However, if $H \geq E$ then we'll add it to the second list $L2$:


```
partition(E, [H|T], L1, [H|T2]) :-
    H @>= E,
    partition(E, T, L1, T2).
```
- These predicates, together with the base case, will partition all the list items less than E in the first list, and all greater or equal in the second list

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Sorting in Prolog

- Now that we know how to partition one list into two, and also how to append two lists together, we have all the tools we need to sort a list!
- Let's consider insertion sort:
 - Walk through each position of the list
 - For each position, *insert* the list item i that belongs in that position, relative to other items in the list
 - Recursively, we can achieve the same effect by walking through each i , partitioning a pre-sorted list on i , and then appending the partitions on either side

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Sorting in Prolog

- As always, we will need a base case for insertion sort (assume that an empty list is sorted):


```
isort([], []).
```
- For the recursive aspect, we can walk through the whole list, and backtrack, inserting each element where it belongs in the pre-sorted list:


```
isort([H|T], F) :-
    isort(T, L),
    partition(H, L, L1, L2),
    append(L1, [H|L2], F).
```
- We can do something similar to implement quicksort, but I'll leave that up to you to work out on your own!

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Parsing with Prolog

- A lot of early natural language processing (NLP) research was historically done using logic systems, because HNF rules are analogous to grammar productions
 - e.g. A simple English grammar: $S \rightarrow NP VP (NP)$
 - S means "sentence," NP means "noun phrase," and VP means "verb phrase"
 - In prolog:


```
s(Input) :- np(Input, Mid), vp(Mid, []).
s(Input) :- np(Input, Mid1), vp(Mid1, Mid2), np(Mid2, []).
```
- Once we add definitions for **np** and **vp** (and ultimately **noun**, **verb**, **prep**, **det**, etc.), we will have a full-blown deterministic English parser!

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Ordering Prolog Rules

- The rules in a prolog program are searched depth-first, exploring the potential rules from top down
- Imagine that we are designing a knowledge-based reflex agent that has multiple rules which which it can unify
 - We want to make more specific rules toward the top, and more general rules toward the bottom
 - For recursive “functions,” that means making sure the base case comes before the recursive case(s)

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Other Logic Systems

- Production Systems
 - Proposed by E.L. Post in 1943
 - Equivalent in computational power to a Turing machine.
 - Rules are unordered, unlike Prolog
 - Have been developed for a wide variety of problems, ranging from algebra word problems, mathematical and logical proofs, physics problems, and games.
 - Newell and Simon (1960s) used production systems to define model human cognition
 - Production rules represent problem-solving skills stored in a person's long-term memory.
 - Many other groups have tried to develop similar models of human cognition using production systems
 - Harder to do inference than BC in Prolog

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Other Logic Systems

- Semantic Networks
 - Used widely in computational linguistics
 - Developed to aid in machine translation and natural language understanding (“WordNet” is a famous SN)
 - Represent knowledge in a hierarchy of semantic classes to be able to deduce and disambiguate meaning
 - e.g. “Jane looked for her keys. She needed milk.”
 - The query: Why was Jane looking for her keys?



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Summary

- Logic programs are a agent programs that use facts and rules in a KB to answer questions about a particular domain
- Such programs arrive at conclusions (or decide on actions) in a logical way
- Prolog is one of the most common logic programming languages
 - Uses first-order definite clauses to encode the KB
 - Searches for proofs recursively with BC and GMP
 - Can answer yes/no queries, or find bindings

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