> Logic Programming Using Data Structures Part 1

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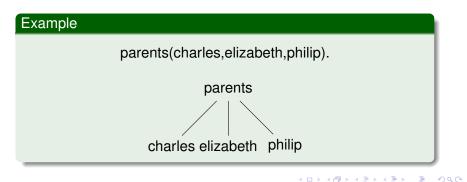
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Representing Structures as Trees

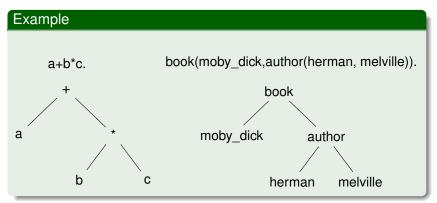
Structures can be represented as trees:

- Each functor a node.
- Each component a branch.



Representing Structures as Trees

Branch may point to another structure: nested structures.



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Represent a syntax of an English sentence as a structure.

Simplified view:

- Sentence: noun, verb phrase.
- Verb phrase: verb, noun.

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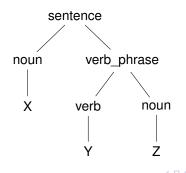
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Parsing

Structure:

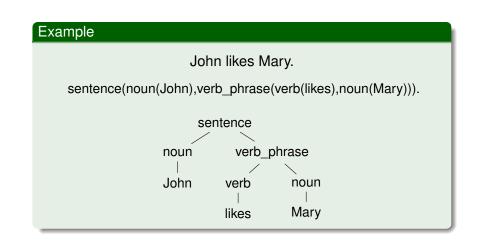
sentence(noun(X),verb_phrase(verb(Y),noun(Z))).

Tree representation:



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Parsing



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Lists

- Very common data structure in nonnumeric programming.
- Ordered sequence of elements that can have any length.
 - Ordered: The order of elements in the sequence matters.
 - Elements: Any terms constants, variables, structures including other lists.
- Can represent practically any kind of structure used in symbolic computation.
- The only data structures in LISP lists and constants.
- In PROLOG just one particular data structure.

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Lists

A list in PROLOG is either

- the empty list [], or
- a structure .(*h*, *t*) where *h* is any term and *t* is a list.
 h is called the head and *t* is called the tail of the list .(*h*, *t*).

Example	
● [].	• .(<i>a</i> , .(<i>a</i> , .(1, []))).
• .(<i>a</i> ,[]).	• $.(.(f(a, X), []), .(X, [])).$
• .(<i>a</i> , .(<i>b</i> , [])).	• .([],[]).

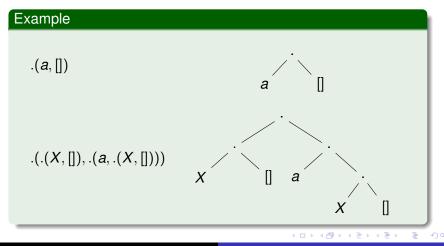
NB. .(*a*, *b*) is a PROLOG term, but not a list!

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Lists as Trees

Lists can be represented as a special kind of tree.



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List Notation

Syntactic sugar:

- Elements separated by comma.
- Whole list enclosed in square brackets.

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List Manipulation

Splitting a list *L* into head and tail:

- Head of *L* the first element of *L*.
- Tail of L the list that consists of all elements of L except the first.

Special notation for splitting lists into head and tail:

• [X|Y], where X is head and Y is the tail.

NB. [a|b] is a PROLOG term that corresponds to (a, b). It is not a list!

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Head and Tail

Example

	List	Head	Tail
-	[<i>a</i> , <i>b</i> , <i>c</i> , <i>d</i>]	а	[b, c, d]
	[<i>a</i>]	а	[]
	[]	(none)	(none)
	[[the, cat], sat]	[the, cat]	[sat]
	[X+Y, x+y]	X + Y	[x + y]

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Unifying Lists

Example

$$[X, Y, Z] = [john, likes, fish]$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} [cat] &=& [X|Y] \\ [X, Y|Z] &=& [mary, likes, wine] \end{array}$$

$$[[the, Y], Z] = [[X, hare], [is, here]]$$

$$[golden|T] = [golden, norfolk] [vale, horse] = [horse, X] [white|Q] = [P|horse]$$

X = john, Y = likes,Z = fishX = cat, Y = []X = mary, Y = likes,Z = [wine]X = the, Y = hare,Z = [[is, here]]T = norflok(none) P = white, Q = horse

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Strings are Lists

- PROLOG strings character string enclosed in double quotes.
- Examples: "This is a string", "abc", "123", etc.
- Represented as lists of integers that represent the characters (ASCII codes)
- For instance, the string "system" is represented as [115, 121, 115, 116, 101, 109].

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Membership in a List

member (X, Y) is true when X is a member of the list Y.

One of Two Conditions:

X is a member of the list if X is the same as the head of the list

```
member(X, [X|_]).
```

X is a member of the list if X is a member of the tail of the list

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

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Recursion

- First Condition is the *boundary condition*.
 (A hidden boundary condition is when the list is the empty list, which fails.)
- Second Condition is the recursive case.
- In each recursion the list that is being checked is getting smaller until The predicate is satisfied or The empty list is reached.

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Member Success

```
?- member(a,[a,b,c]).
Call: (8) member(a,[a,b,c]) ?
Exit: (8) member(a,[a,b,c]) ?
Yes
```

```
?- member(b,[a,b,c]).
Call: (8) member(b,[a,b,c]) ?
Call: (9) member(b,[b,c]) ?
Exit: (9) member(b,[b,c]) ?
Exit: (8) member(b,[a,b,c]) ?
Yes
```

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Member Failure

<pre>?- member(d,[a,b,c]).</pre>			
Call:	<pre>(8) member(d,[a,b,c]) ?</pre>		
Call:	(9) member(d,[b,c]) ?		
Call:	(10) member(d,[c]) ?		
Call:	(11) member(d,[]) ?		
Fail:	(11) member(d,[]) ?		
Fail:	(10) member(d,[c]) ?		
Fail:	(9) member(b,[b,c]) ?		
Fail:	<pre>(8) member(b,[a,b,c]) ?</pre>		
No			

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Member. Questions

What happens if you ask PROLOG the following questions:

- ?- member(X,[a,b,c]).
- ?- member(a,X).
- ?- member(X,Y).
- ?- member(X,_).
- ?- member(_,Y).
- ?- member(_,_).

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Recursion. Termination Problems

• Avoid circular definitions. The following program will loop on any goal involving parent or child:

parent(X,Y):-child(Y,X). child(X,Y):-parent(Y,X).

 Use left recursion carefully. The following program will loop on ?- person(X):

```
person(X):-person(Y),mother(X,Y).
person(adam).
```

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Recursion. Termination Problems

- Rule order matters.
- General heuristics: Put facts before rules whenever possible.
- Sometimes putting rules in a certain order works fine for goals of one form but not if goals of another form are generated:

```
islist([_|B]):-islist(B).
islist([])
```

```
islist([]).
```

```
works for goals like islist([1,2,3]), islist([]),
islist(f(1,2)) but loops for islist(X).
```

• What will happen if you change the order of islist clauses?

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Map a given structure to another structure given a set of rules:

- Traverse the old structure component by component
- ② Construct the new structure with transformed components.

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Mapping a Sentence to Another

Example

you are a computer maps to a reply i am not a computer. do you speak french maps to a reply no i speak german.

Procedure:

- Accept a sentence.
- Change you to i.
- Ohange are to am not.
- Ohange french to german.
- Change do to no.
- Leave the other words unchanged.

Mapping a Sentence. PROLOG Program

Example

```
change(you,i).
change(are,[am,not]).
change(french,german).
change(do,no).
change(X,X).
```

```
alter([],[]).
alter([H|T],[X|Y]) :-
    change(H,X),
    alter(T,Y).
```

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Boundary Conditions

- Termination: alter([],[]).
- Catch all (If none of the other conditions were satisfied, then just return the same): change (X, X).

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