

Programming Paradigms – Prolog part

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Programming Paradigms

Prolog Basics

Prolog in simplest case: facts and queries

- A kind of data base with a number of facts:

```
woman(mia) .  
woman(jody) .  
woman(yolanda) .  
playsAirGuitar(jody) .
```

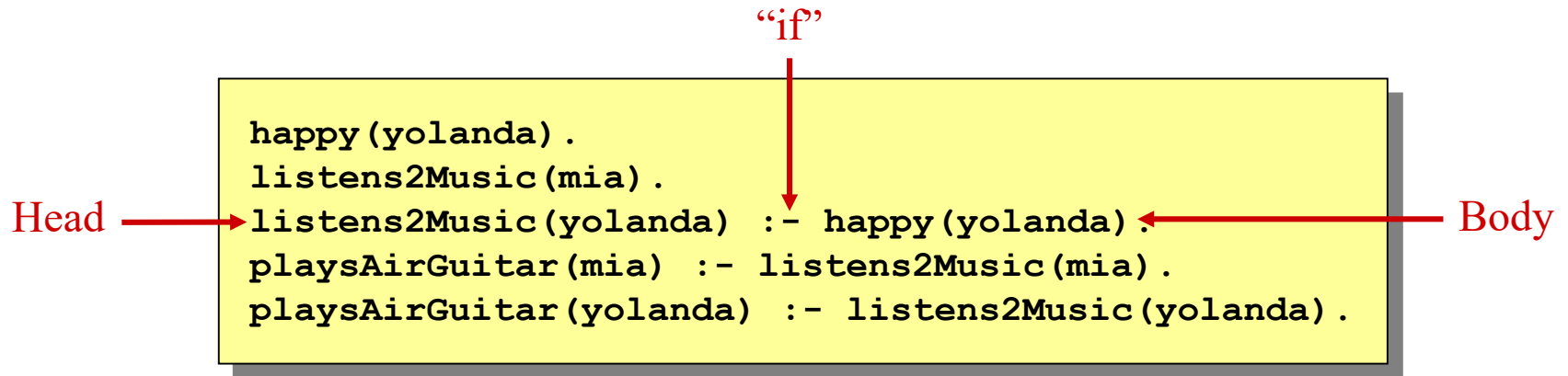
- Queries:

```
?- woman(mia) .  
true.  
  
?- playsAirGuitar(jody) .  
true.  
  
?- playsAirGuitar(mia) .  
false.  
  
?- playsAirGuitar(vincent) .  
false.  
  
?- playsPiano(jody) .  
false.
```

← The dot is essential!

← or an error message

Facts + simple implications



- Queries:

```
?- playsAirGuitar(mia) .  
true.  
  
?- playsAirGuitar(yolanda) .  
true.
```

because of:

```
happy(yolanda)  
⇒ listens2Music(yolanda)  
⇒ playsAirGuitar(yolanda)
```

More complex rules

```
happy(vincent) .  
listens2Music(butch) .  
playsAirGuitar(vincent) :- listens2Music(vincent),  
                             happy(vincent) .  
playsAirGuitar(butch) :- happy(butch) .  
playsAirGuitar(butch) :- listens2Music(butch) .
```

“and”

Alternatives →

- Queries:

```
?- playsAirGuitar(vincent) .  
false.  
  
?- playsAirGuitar(butch) .  
true.
```

- Alternative notation:

```
...  
playsAirGuitar(butch) :- happy(butch) ;  
                        listens2Music(butch) .
```

“or”

Relations, and more complex queries

```
woman(mia) .  
woman(jody) .  
woman(yolanda) .  
  
loves(vincent,mia) .  
loves(marsellus,mia) .  
loves(mia,vincent) .  
loves(vincent,vincent) .
```

multi-ary (concretely, binary)
predicate

- Queries:

```
?- woman(X) .  
X = mia ;  
X = jody ;  
X = yolanda.  
  
?- loves(vincent,X) .  
X = mia ;  
X = vincent.  
  
?- loves(vincent,X) , woman(X) .  
X = mia ;  
false.
```

semicolon entered by user

Variables in rules (not just in queries)

```
loves(vincent,mia).  
loves(marsellus,mia).  
loves(mia,vincent).  
  
jealous(X,Y) :- loves(X,Z), loves(Y,Z).
```

- Queries:

```
?- jealous(marsellus,X).  
X = vincent ;  
X = marsellus ;  
false.  
  
?- jealous(X,_).  
X = vincent ;  
X = vincent ;  
X = marsellus ;  
X = marsellus ;  
X = mia.
```

anonymous variable

Variables in rules (not just in queries)

```
loves(vincent,mia) .  
loves(marsellus,mia) .  
loves(mia,vincent) .  
  
jealous(X,Y) :- loves(X,Z) , loves(Y,Z) , X \= Y.
```

- Queries:

```
?- jealous(marsellus,X) .  
X = vincent ;  
false.  
  
?- jealous(X,_).  
X = vincent ;  
X = marsellus ;  
false.  
  
?- jealous(X,Y) .  
X = vincent,  
Y = marsellus ;  
X = marsellus,  
Y = vincent ;  
false.
```



important that at end

Some observations on variables

```
loves(vincent,mia) .  
loves(marsellus,mia) .  
loves(mia,vincent) .  
  
jealous(X,Y) :- loves(X,Z) , loves(Y,Z) , X \= Y.
```

- Variables in rules and in queries are independent from each other.

```
?- jealous(marsellus,X) .  
X = vincent ;  
false.
```

- Within a rule or a query, the same variables represent the same objects.
- But different variables do not necessarily represent different objects.
- It is possible to have several occurrences of the same variable in a rule's head!
- In a rule's body there can be variables that do not occur in its head!

Intuition on “free” variables

```
loves(vincent,mia) .  
loves(marsellus,mia) .  
loves(mia,vincent) .  
  
jealous(X,Y) :- loves(X,Z) , loves(Y,Z) , X \= Y.
```

- What is the “logical” interpretation of **Z** above? (or of the whole rule?)
- Possibly, for arbitrary (but fixed) **X** , **Y**:
 if for every choice of **Z** holds: **loves (X,Z)** , and **loves (Y,Z)** , and **X \= Y**,
 then also holds: **jealous (X,Y)**
- Or, for arbitrary (but fixed) **X** , **Y**:
 for every choice of **Z** holds: if **loves (X,Z)** , and **loves (Y,Z)** , and **X \= Y**,
 then also holds: **jealous (X,Y)**

???

Intuition on “free” variables

```
loves(vincent,mia) .  
loves(marsellus,mia) .  
loves(mia,vincent) .  
  
jealous(X,Y) :- loves(X,Z) , loves(Y,Z) , X \= Y.
```

- What is the “logical” interpretation of **Z** above? (or of the whole rule?)
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 if for every choice of **Z** holds: **loves (X,Z)** , and **loves (Y,Z)** , and **X \= Y**,
 then also holds: **jealous (X,Y)**
- Or, for arbitrary (but fixed) **X** , **Y**:
 for every choice of **Z** holds: if **loves (X,Z)** , and **loves (Y,Z)** , and **X \= Y**,
 then also holds: **jealous (X,Y)**

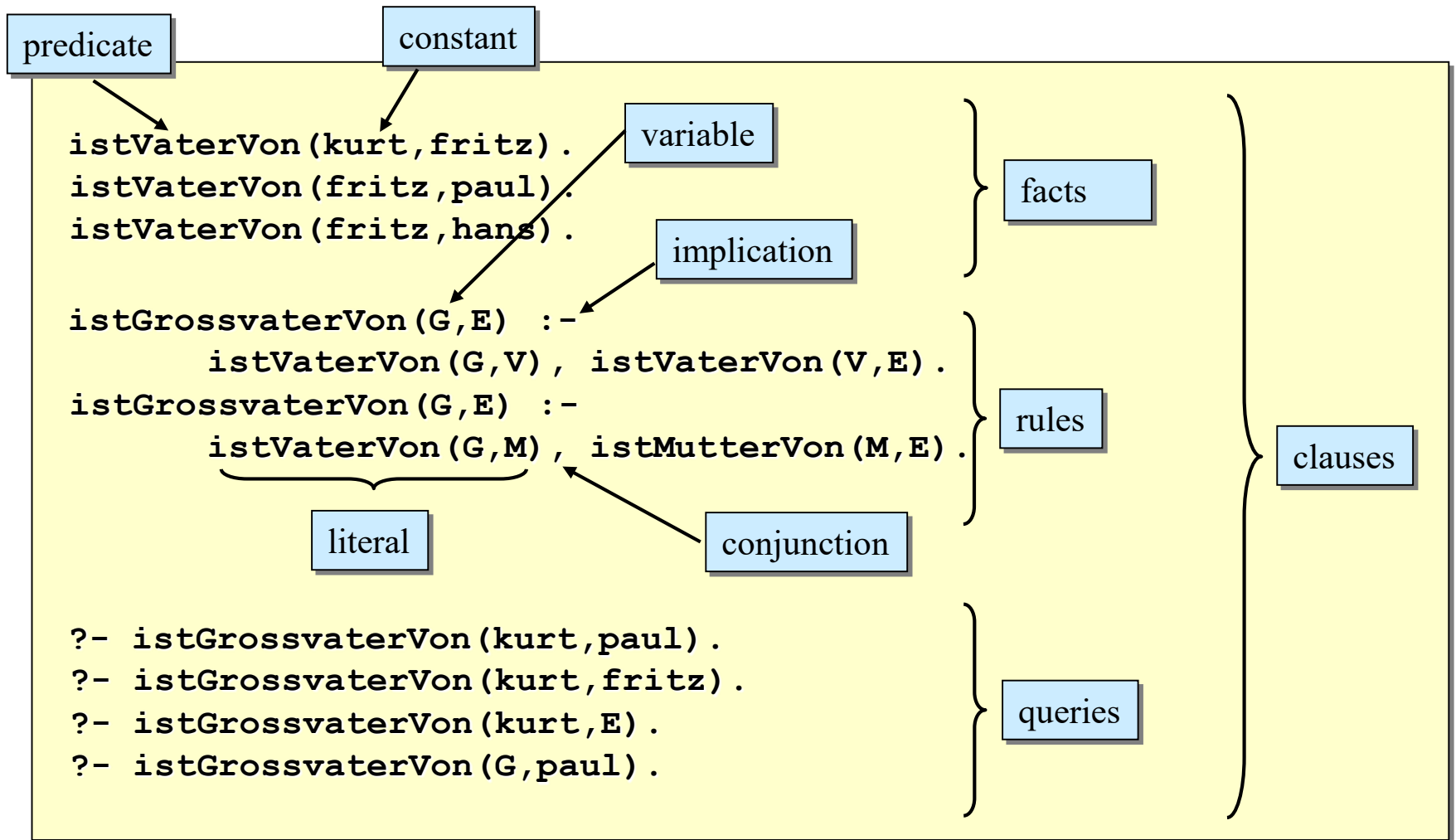
Intuition on “free” variables

```
loves(vincent,mia) .  
loves(marsellus,mia) .  
loves(mia,vincent) .  
  
jealous(X,Y) :- loves(X,Z) , loves(Y,Z) , X \= Y.
```

- What is the “logical” interpretation of **Z** above? (or of the whole rule?)
- Or, for arbitrary (but fixed) **X** , **Y**:
for every choice of **Z** holds: if **loves (X,Z)** , and **loves (Y,Z)** , and **X \= Y**,
then also holds: **jealous (X,Y)**
- Logically equivalent, for arbitrary (but fixed) **X** , **Y**:
if for any choice of **Z** holds: **loves (X,Z)** , and **loves (Y,Z)** , and **X \= Y**,
then also holds: **jealous (X,Y)**

Programming Paradigms

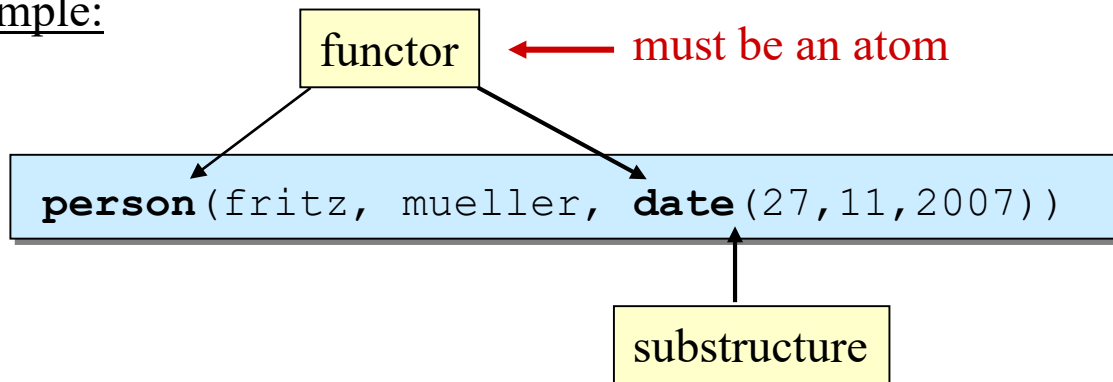
Syntactical ingredients of Prolog



- To build clauses, Prolog uses different pieces:
 - **constants** (numbers, atoms – mainly lowercase identifiers, ...)
 - **variables** (X,Y, ThisThing, _, _G107...)
 - **operator terms** (... 1 + 3 * 4 ...)
 - **structures** (date(27,11,2007), person(fritz, mueller), ...
composite, recursive, “infinite”, ...)
- Note: Prolog has no type system!

Structures in Prolog

- **Structures** represent objects that are made up of other objects (like trees and subtrees).
- Example:



functors: **person**/3, **date**/3 (notation for arity)

- Through this, modelling of essentially “algebraic data types” – but not actually typed. So, **person**(1,2,'a') would also be a legal structure.
- Arbitrary **nesting depth** allowed – in principle infinite.

Syntactical objects in Prolog

Predefined syntax for special structures:

- There is a predefined “list type” as recursive data structure:

```
[1,2,a]    .(1,.(2,.(a,[ ])))    [1|[2,a]]    [1,2|[a]]    [1,2|. (a,[ ])]
```

- Character strings can be represented as lists of ASCII-Codes:

```
"Prolog"   = [80, 114, 111, 108, 111, 103]  
            = .(80, .(114, .(111, .(108, .(111, .(103, [ ])))))
```

Operators:

- Operators are functors/atoms made from symbols and can be written infix.
- Example: in arithmetic expressions
 - Mathematical functions are defined as operators.
 - `1 + 3 * 4` is to be read as this structure: `+(1, *(3, 4))`

Collective notion “terms”:

- Terms are constants, variables or structures:

```
fritz  
27  
MM  
[europe, asia, africa | Rest]  
person(fritz, Lastname, date(27, MM, 2007))
```

- A ground term is a term that does not contain variables:

```
person(fritz, mueller, date(27, 11, 2007))
```

Programming Paradigms

Operational intuition for Prolog

Operationalisation?

Specification (program) $\equiv$
relation definitions

```
istVaterVon(kurt,fritz).  
istVaterVon(fritz,paul).  
istVaterVon(fritz,hans).  
  
istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :-  
    istVaterVon(G,V),istVaterVon(V,E).  
istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :-  
    istVaterVon(G,M),istMutterVon(M,E).
```

?- istGrossvaterVon(kurt,X)

~w~> ...

~w~> ...

~w~> ...

~w~> ...

~w~> X = paul ; X = hans

Input: a query



(repeated) resolution



Output: variable substitution(s)

Operationalisation in Prolog (1)

Principle: reduction to subproblems

`istGrossvaterVon(kurt, X)`

matching/
parameter
passing

```
istVaterVon(kurt,fritz) .  
istVaterVon(fritz,paul) .  
istVaterVon(fritz,hans) .
```

```
istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :- istVaterVon(G,V),istVaterVon(V,E) .  
istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :- istVaterVon(G,M),istMutterVon(M,E) .
```

1st reduction

`istVaterVon(kurt,V)`

Operationalisation in Prolog (2)

Principle: reduction to subproblems, where new subqueries are found from left to right!

`istGrossvaterVon(kurt, X)`

matching/
parameter
passing

```
istVaterVon(kurt,fritz).  
istVaterVon(fritz,paul).  
istVaterVon(fritz,hans).
```

```
istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :- istVaterVon(G,V),istVaterVon(V,E).  
istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :- istVaterVon(G,M),istMutterVon(M,E).
```

`istVaterVon(kurt, fritz)`

2nd reduction

`istVaterVon(fritz, E)`

Operationalisation in Prolog (3)

Principle: reduction to subproblems

istGrossvaterVon(kurt, X)

matching/
parameter
passing

return of
result
parameter

```
istVaterVon(kurt,fritz).  
istVaterVon(fritz,paul).  
istVaterVon(fritz,hans).
```

```
istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :- istVaterVon(G,V),istVaterVon(V,E).  
istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :- istVaterVon(G,M),istMutterVon(M,E).
```

istVaterVon(kurt, fritz)

E = paul

istVaterVon(fritz, paul)

Operationalisation in Prolog (4)

- Prolog always looks for matching rules or facts from top to bottom in the program.

subquery:

```
istVaterVon(fritz,E)
```

```
istVaterVon(kurt,fritz) .  
istVaterVon(fritz,paul) .  
istVaterVon(fritz,hans) .
```

solution:

E = paul

- Since a relation generally is not a unique mapping, further answers for a (sub)query may exist. Prolog finds those using **backtracking**:

re-try:

```
istVaterVon(fritz,E)
```

```
istVaterVon(kurt,fritz) .  
istVaterVon(fritz,paul) .  
istVaterVon(fritz,hans) .
```

position of last
solution – that is where
search continues

solution:

E = paul ;
E = hans

Operationalisation in Prolog (5)

Principle: reduction to subproblems

`istGrossvaterVon(kurt, X)`

matching/
parameter
passing

return of
result
parameter

```
istVaterVon(kurt,fritz).  
istVaterVon(fritz,paul).  
istVaterVon(fritz,hans).
```

```
istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :- istVaterVon(G,V),istVaterVon(V,E).  
istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :- istVaterVon(G,M),istMutterVon(M,E).
```

`istVaterVon(kurt,fritz)`

E = hans

`istVaterVon(fritz,hans)`

Operationalisation in Prolog (6)

The **backtracking** also concerns further matching rules:

`istGrossvaterVon(kurt, X)`

matching/
parameter
passing

```
istVaterVon(kurt,fritz).  
istVaterVon(fritz,paul).  
istVaterVon(fritz,hans).
```

```
istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :- istVaterVon(G,V),istVaterVon(V,E).  
istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :- istVaterVon(G,M),istMutterVon(M,E).
```

3rd reduction

`istVaterVon(kurt,M)`

Failure!

`istMutterVon(fritz,E)`

Operationalisation on the example, presented differently

```
istVaterVon(kurt,fritz) .  
istVaterVon(fritz,paul) .  
istVaterVon(fritz,hans) .  
  
istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :-  
    istVaterVon(G,V) , istVaterVon(V,E) .  
istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :-  
    istVaterVon(G,M) , istMutterVon(M,E) .
```

X = paul:

```
?- istGrossvaterVon(kurt, X).  
?- istVaterVon(kurt, V), istVaterVon(V, X).  
?- istVaterVon(fritz, X).  
?- .
```

Compare (within a Prolog system): use of ?- trace.

Operationalisation on the example, presented differently

```
istVaterVon(kurt,fritz) .  
istVaterVon(fritz,paul) .  
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istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :-  
    istVaterVon(G,V) , istVaterVon(V,E) .  
istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :-  
    istVaterVon(G,M) , istMutterVon(M,E) .
```

X = paul:
X = hans:

```
?- istGrossvaterVon(kurt, X).  
?- istVaterVon(kurt, V), istVaterVon(V, X).  
?- istVaterVon(fritz, X).  
?- .  
?- .
```

Compare (within a Prolog system): use of ?- trace.

Operationalisation on the example, presented differently

```
istVaterVon(kurt,fritz) .  
istVaterVon(fritz,paul) .  
istVaterVon(fritz,hans) .  
  
istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :-  
    istVaterVon(G,V) , istVaterVon(V,E) .  
istGrossvaterVon(G,E) :-  
    istVaterVon(G,M) , istMutterVon(M,E) .
```

X = paul:
X = hans:

```
?- istGrossvaterVon(kurt, X).  
?- istVaterVon(kurt, V), istVaterVon(V, X).  
?- istVaterVon(fritz, X).  
?- .  
?- .  
?- istVaterVon(kurt, M), istMutterVon(M, X).  
?- istMutterVon(fritz, X).  
Failure!
```

Compare (within a Prolog system): use of ?- trace.

Programming Paradigms

More Prolog examples

Simple example for working with data structures

```
add(0,X,X) .  
add(s(X),Y,s(Z)) :- add(X,Y,Z) .
```

```
?- add(s(0),s(0),s(s(0))) .  
true.  
  
?- add(s(0),s(0),N) .  
N = s(s(0)) ;  
false.
```

- Recall, in Haskell:

```
data Nat = Zero | Succ Nat  
  
add :: Nat → Nat → Nat  
add Zero    x = x  
add (Succ x) y = Succ (add x y)
```

Systematic connection/derivation?

- Essential difference Haskell/Prolog:

Functions

vs.

Predicates/Relations

$f\ x\ y = z$

“corresponds to”

$p(x, y, z)$

- First a somewhat naïve attempt to exploit this correspondence:

add Zero $x = x$

add(Zero, x, x)

add(0, x, x) .

add (Succ x) $y = \text{Succ (add x y)}$

add(Succ x, y, Succ (add x y))

???

Systematic connection/derivation?

- Essential difference Haskell/Prolog:

Functions

vs.

Predicates/Relations

$f\ x\ y = z$

“corresponds to”

$p\ (X, Y, Z) .$

- Systematically avoiding nested function calls:

`add (Succ x) y = Succ (add x y)`



`add (Succ x) y = Succ z    where z = add x y`



`add(Succ x, y, Succ z)    if    add(x, y, z)`



`add(s(X), Y, s(Z)) :- add(X, Y, Z) .`

On the flexibility of Prolog predicates

```
add(0,X,X) .  
add(s(X),Y,s(Z)) :- add(X,Y,Z) .
```

```
?- add(N,M,s(s(0))) .  
N = 0 ,  
M = s(s(0)) ;  
N = s(0) ,  
M = s(0) ;  
N = s(s(0)) ,  
M = 0 ;  
false.  
  
?- add(N,s(0),s(s(0))) .  
N = s(0) ;  
false.  
  
?- add(N,M,O) .
```

???

On the flexibility of Prolog predicates

```
add(0,X,X) .  
add(s(X),Y,s(Z)) :- add(X,Y,Z) .  
  
sub(X,Y,Z) :- add(Z,Y,X) .
```

```
?- sub(s(s(0)),s(0),N) .  
N = s(0) ;  
false.  
  
?- sub(N,M,s(0)) .  
N = s(M) ;  
false.
```

Another example

Computing the length of a list in Haskell:

```
length []      = 0
length (x:xs)  = length xs + 1
```

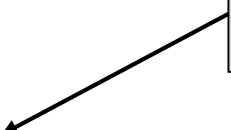
Computing the length of a list in Prolog:

```
length([],0).
length([X|Xs],N) :- length(Xs,M), N is M+1.
```

```
?- length([1,2,a],Res).
   Res = 3.
```

```
?- length(List,3).
   List = [_G331, _G334, _G337]
```

list with 3 arbitrary
(variable) elements



Arithmetics vs. symbolic operator terms

Caution: If instead of:

```
length([],0).  
length([X|Xs],N) :- length(Xs,M), N is M+1.
```

we use:

```
length([],0).  
length([X|Xs],M+1) :- length(Xs,M).
```

then:

```
?- length([1,2,a],Res).  
    Res = 0+1+1+1.
```

```
?- length(List,3).  
    false.
```

```
?- length(List,0+1+1+1).  
    List = [_G331, _G334, _G337].
```

An example corresponding to several nested calls

```
partition :: Int → [Int] → ([Int], [Int])
```

...

```
quicksort [ ] = [ ]  
quicksort (h : t) = quicksort l1 ++ h : quicksort l2  
    where (l1, l2) = partition h t
```



```
quicksort [ ] = [ ]  
quicksort (h : t) = ls ++ h : quicksort l2  
    where (l1, l2) = partition h t  
          ls = quicksort l1
```



```
quicksort [ ] = [ ]  
quicksort (h : t) = ls ++ h : lg  
    where (l1, l2) = partition h t  
          ls = quicksort l1  
          lg = quicksort l2
```



```
quicksort [ ] = [ ]  
quicksort (h : t) = list  
    where (l1, l2) = partition h t  
          ls = quicksort l1  
          lg = quicksort l2  
          list = ls ++ h : lg
```

lesson: “inner subexpressions first”

```
quicksort([], []).  
quicksort([H|T], List) :-  
    partition(H, T, L1, L2),  
    quicksort(L1, LS),  
    quicksort(L2, LG),  
    append(LS, [H|LG], List).
```

