Programming language design and analysis Constraint Logic Programming

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Declarative programming

specify *what* the program should do, now *how*

in particular, *avoid state* (exposes internal implementation details) or *side effects* (expose/observe computation flow)

Main exponents:

functional programming

still directly expresses formulas by which computations are done

logic programming

problem domain expressed as logic rules/implications constraint programming

properties of solutions expressed as constraints over a given theory

Foundations of Prolog

developed ca. 1970 by Alain Colmerauer et al. in Marseille

A (pure) Prolog program is a list of *Horn clauses*. a *rule*: *Head* :- *Body* . where *Body* is a conjunction *Predicate* , ... , *Predicate* a *fact*: *Predicate* . equivalent to *Predicate* :- *true* .

 :- means implication ← the *head* of a rule is the *conclusion* the predicates in the *body* are *hypotheses* (premises)

Executing a program means trying to satisfy a *query* (*goal*) i.e., determining if the goal follows as conclusion from the rules.

Prolog programs essentially encode *predicate logic*

Syntax of predicate logic: terms and formulas

Terms

variables v

 $f(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ where f is an *n*-ary function and t_1, \dots, t_n are *terms*. constants can be viewed as 0-ary functions (no arguments)

Formulas (well-formed formulas)	
$P(t_1,\cdots,t_n)$	with P an n -ary predicate, t_1, \cdots, t_n terms
$\neg \alpha$	where $lpha$ is a formula
$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$	where $lpha,eta$ are formulas
$\forall \mathbf{v} \alpha$	with v variable, α formula: <i>universal quantification</i>

Other usual connectors:

 $\alpha \wedge \beta \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \neg(\alpha \to \neg\beta) \quad (\text{AND}) \quad \alpha \lor \beta \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \neg\alpha \to \beta \quad (\text{OR})$ existential quantifier: $\exists x \varphi \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \neg \forall x (\neg \varphi)$

Compared to propositional logic: instead of propositions, predicates over terms

Prolog examples and logic meaning

```
desc(X, Y) :- child(X, Y).
desc(X, Z) :- child(X, Y), desc(Y, Z).
child(jon, peter).
child(anna, jon).
child(eve, jon).
child(peter, mary).
```

Variables in clause head are *universally* quantified.

Rest of variables in clause body are *existentially* quantified.

 $\forall X \forall Y \ child(X, Y)$ $\forall X \forall Z \ \exists Y(child(X, Y) \land desc(Y, Z)) \rightarrow desc(X, Z)$ Use constant nil and binary function cons to model lists. Model *n*-ary *function* with n + 1-ary *relation* (between args and result) Model tail-recursive call using same variable in the result position.

```
rev3(nil, R, R).
rev3(cons(H, T), Ac, R) :- rev3(T, cons(H, Ac), R).
rev(L, R) :- rev3(L, nil, R)
```

Resolution (in propositional logic)

Resolution is an *inference rule* that produces a new clause from two clauses with complementary literals $(p \text{ and } \neg p)$. $\frac{p \lor \alpha \quad \neg p \lor \beta}{\alpha \lor \beta} \quad resolution$

The new clause = *resolvent* of the two clauses w.r.t. *p* Example: $rez_p(p \lor q \lor \neg r, \neg p \lor s) = q \lor \neg r \lor s$

Modus ponens may be seen as a *special case of resolution*: $\frac{p \lor false \quad \neg p \lor q}{false \lor q}$

Resolution is a *valid* inference rule:

$$\{\boldsymbol{p} \lor \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \neg \boldsymbol{p} \lor \boldsymbol{\beta}\} \models \boldsymbol{\alpha} \lor \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

(for any truth assignment where premises are true, conclusion is true) Corollary: if $\alpha \lor \beta$ is a contradition, so is $(p \lor \alpha) \land (\neg p \lor \beta)$.

We use resolution to show that a formula is a *contradiction*. resolution is a method for proof by *refutation*

Why substitution and term unification ?

We have two formuas where a predicate may appear positive and negated:

 $\forall x. \forall y. P(x, g(y)) \text{ and } \forall z. \neg P(z, a).$

or

 $\forall x. \forall y. P(x, g(y))$ and $\forall z. \neg P(a, z)$ Are these contradictory ?

We may *substitute* a universally quantified variable with *any* term \Rightarrow in the second case, we may substitute $x \mapsto a, z \mapsto g(y)$ \Rightarrow we obtain P(a, g(y)) si $\neg P(a, g(y))$, *contradiction*

In the first case, we may not substitute y and obtain a from g(y) interpretation: we may not assume that the arbitrary function g must also take the constant value a.

This is precisely defined by substitution and unification

A substitution is a function that associates terms to variables: $\{x_1 \mapsto t_1, \dots, x_n \mapsto t_n\}$ For example, $f(x, g(y, z), a, t)\{x \mapsto g(y), y \mapsto f(b), t \mapsto u\}$ = f(g(y), g(f(b), z), a, u)

Obs: other encountered notations: x_i/t_i , or t_i/x_i

Usually postfix notation $T\sigma$ is used for substitutions σ applied to term T

The composition of two substitutions is a substitution

Term unification

Two terms t_1 and t_2 may be *unified* if there is a substitution σ that makes them equal: $t_1\sigma = t_2\sigma$. Such a substitution is called *unifier*.

Example: $f(x, g(y))\{x \mapsto a\} = f(a, g(y)) = f(a, z)\{z \mapsto g(y)\}$ i.e., the substitution $\{x \mapsto a, z \mapsto g(y)\}$ is a *unifier*.

More generally: applied to a *set of* pairs of terms.

The *most general unifier* is that from which any other unifier may be obtained by using another substitution.

In *resolution*: having the clauses $P(l_1, l_2, ..., l_n)$ and $\neg P(r_1, r_2, ..., r_n)$ if we find a unifier for (l_1, r_1) , ... we have a *contradiction*.

A variable x may be unified with any term t if x does not occur in t not: x with f(g(y), h(x, z))(substitution would lead to an infinite term)

Two functional terms may be unified only if they have identical functions, and the term arguments may be pairwise unified. in particular: only identical constants may be unified Prolog execution can be seen in two ways:

Match goal with head of rule or fact, until no more subgoals.

Apply resolution with negation of goal, until empty clause.