# Advanced Logic and Functional Programming Lecture 2: Logic Programming in Prolog

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# Organizatorial items

- Lecture & labs: Mircea Marin
  - website:

```
http://staff.fmi.uvt.ro/~mircea.marin/lectures/ALFP/
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- email: mircea.marin@e-uvt.ro
- The slides of lecture notes and the labworks will be posted on the website.
- Evaluation:
  - one written exam (50% of the final grade)
  - Labworks & miniproject (50% of the final grade).

Lab attendance is mandatory.

# What is logic programming?

#### Programming style where

- Program = collection of rules and facts which represent the knowledge base of the programmer for the problem he wants to solve.
- Program execution = finding answers to questions specified by the programmer.
  - The answers are found by a process of logical reasoning based on the knowledge stored in the user program.

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  - how to encode questions (a.k.a. queries) in Prolog

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  - The answers are found by a process of logical reasoning based on the knowledge stored in the user program.
- > A logic programmer must know
  - how to encode his knowledge about the problem as a collection of facts and rules
  - how to encode questions (a.k.a. queries) in Prolog
- The interpreter (or compiler) of PROLOG knows how to find all correct answers to Prolog questions.



# Characteristics of Logic Programming

#### Logic programming is a declarative programming style

- Programmer must know how to write a program which described what he knows about the problem he wants to solve.
- The method how to find the answers to questions is predefined, and used by the Prolog interpreter or compiler.
  - PROLOG uses a strategy to find all answers to questions, which is based on logical reasoning: It uses a rule of deduction called SLD resolution.

#### **Facts**

Facts are atomic statements about objects and the relations which exist between them.

Facts of type property(object):

```
Coco is a parrot: parrot (coco).

Every (X) is mortal: mortal (X).
```

Facts can express relations which exist among objects:

```
Mike loves Mary: loves (mike, mary). Every (X) is equal to itself: equal (X, X).
```

#### Rules

- In natural language, a rule is a sentence of the form:
  - If hypothesis<sub>1</sub> and ... and hypothesis<sub>n</sub> then conclusion.
  - $\Leftrightarrow$  conclusion **if** hypothesis<sub>1</sub> and ... and hypothesis<sub>n</sub>. where hypothesis<sub>1</sub>, ..., hypothesis<sub>n</sub> and conclusion are atomic statements.
- In Prolog, the rule is written as follows:

```
conclusion : - hypothesis_1, \dots, hypothesis_n.
```

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where  $hypothesis_1, ..., hypothesis_n$  and conclusion are atomic statements.

• In Prolog, the rule is written as follows:

 $conclusion : - hypothesis_1, \dots, hypothesis_n.$ 

# ExampleIn natural language (English)În PROLOGIf X is good and X knows Y and Yloves(X, Y): –<br/>good(X), knows(X, Y),<br/>pretty(Y).Every parrot is mortal.<br/>(If X is parrot then X is mortal.)mortal(X): –parrot(X).

## Queries (or questions)

In natural language (English)	In Prolog
Is Coco a parrot?	?-parrot(coco).
Who is mortal?	?-mortal(X).
(For what values of X do we	
know that X is mortal?)	

- in logic programming, we solve problems by asking questions of the following kinds:
  - " Is it true that ...?"
  - "For what values of the variables ... is true that ...?"
- The programmer need not know how to find answers to queries: this task belongs to the interpreter of Prolog.



# From natural language to Prolog

- knowledge written in a natural language must be encoded as rules and facts in Prolog.
- Often, it is useful to rephrase the sentences in natural language, to simplify the translation process in PROLOG.

#### Example

- In natural language:
   Hardworking students take good grades. ⇔ If X is student and X is hardworking then X takes good grades ⇔ X takes good grades if X is student and X is hardworking.
- In artificial language (PROLOG):

$$grades(X, good)$$
: -student(X), hardworking(X).

REMARK: n PROLOG, :- means "if" and the comma between hypotheses (,) is "and".



# Logic Programming: Short History

Kowalski (in 70s) noticed that a logical formula

$$S_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge S_n \to S$$

can be interpreted in two ways:

- logic interpretation: If  $S_1$  and ... and  $S_n$  are all true then S is also true.
- procedural interpretation of "S if  $S_1$  and ... and  $S_n$ " is: in order to find out if S is true we must check recursively if  $S_1, \ldots, S_n$  are true.

În Prolog, this formula becomes a rule

$$S:-S_1,\ldots,S_n$$
.

where S is the head of the rule, and  $S_1, \ldots, S_n$  constitute the body of the rule.



# Logic Programming: Short History (contd.)

- University of Marsilia (Colmerauer, in 70s): language PROLOG appears ("Programmation et Logique".)
- PROLOG became the most popular language of logic programming
  - currently, there are several interpreters and compilers available

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- We ask questions about objects and the relations between them.

Programming in PROLOG is a dialog with the interpreter. Solving problems in this way requires to know how to model the problem using the notions of logic programming:

- facts.
- rules.
- queries.

$$Program = \underbrace{facts + rules}_{knowledge base}.$$



#### **Facts**

In PROLOG, facts are specified as follows

$$\underbrace{\textit{object}_1, \dots, \textit{object}_n}_{\text{arguments}}).$$

#### For example

- the names of relations (predicates) start with lowercase letter.
- Usually, PROLOG uses prefix notation to specify relations, but there are exceptions too.
- Every fact ends with a "." (dot).
- The programmer is free to choose predicate names, and to decide how to interpret them.
  - For example., has(andrew, book). means Andrew has a book.



## Examples of facts

- Gold is precious.
   precious (gold).
- Jane is a woman. woman (jane).
- Jon is Mary's father.
   father(jon, mary).
- Andrew has a book.
   has (andrew, book).

#### Remarks

- The programmer must fix the meanings of the names of objects and predicates predicates he uses.
- For example: has (X, Y) means X has Y, which is different from Y has X.
  - The order of arguments matters!



Example of query in PROLOG

?- has(andrew, book).

(Does Andrew have a book?)

Example of query in PROLOG

?- has(andrew, book).

Example of query in PROLOG

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- The answer is true if
  - the predicate is the same
  - the arguments are the same

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- Otherwise, the answer is false

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  - Only what can be found in the knowledge base is assumed to be true.

Example of query in PROLOG

?- has(andrew, book).

- The answer is true if
  - the predicate is the same
  - the arguments are the same
- Otherwise, the answer is false
  - Only what can be found in the knowledge base is assumed to be true.
  - The false answer is not the same with false!
    - Answer false means I don't know, and true means I know.



#### **Variables**

Variable = placeholder for an object that satisfies a relation.

Example of a question with a variable:

is interpreted as follows:

• Which are the objects X that Jon likes?

PROLOG will start to look for the values of X for which the answer is true.

- Convention: In PROLOG variables start with \_ or with uppercase letter.
- In PROLOG a variable can be
  - instantiated: the variable has an object as its value
  - uninstantiated: we don't know yet a value for that variable.



# Example of query with variables

Consider the following program:

```
likes(jon,flowers).
likes(jon,mary).
likes(paul,mary).
```

To the query

```
?-likes(jon, X).
```

PROLOG answers

X = flowers

and will wait for further instructions from the user.

#### How does PROLOG find alswers?

- PROLOG looks in the program for a fact which matches the query
- when a match is found, the place of the match is marked
- if the user clicks Enter, the search for answers stops.
- if the user clicks ";", PROLOG looks for another match, starting from the last marked place, and with the variables to the query uninstantiated.
- In the previous example, if we press ";", PROLOG will also find the nswer
  - X = mary.
- When PROLOG can not find other answers in the program, it returns answer false



# More complex queries Conjunctions

Consider the following program:

```
likes(mary, food).
likes(mary, wine).
likes(jon, wine).
likes(jon, mary).

and the query
?- likes(jon, mary), likes(mary, jon).
```

# More complex queries Conjunctions

Consider the following program:

```
likes(mary, food).
likes(mary, wine).
likes(jon, wine).
likes(jon, mary).
and the query
?- likes(jon, mary), likes(mary, jon).
```

In general, a query

```
?- fact_1, \ldots, fact_n.
```

has the intended reading  $fact_1$  and ... and  $fact_n$ ? In this case:

Does Jon like Mary and does Mary like Jon?



#### Knowledge base:

```
likes(mary, food).
likes(mary, wine).
likes(jon, wine).
likes(jon, mary).
```

#### Query:

```
?- likes(jon, mary), likes(mary, jon).
```

PROLOG answers false: it looks for all facts in the query, from left to right (all must be satisfied, otherwise the query fails and the answer will be false).

```
Knowledge base:

likes(mary, food).

likes(mary, wine).

likes(jon, wine).

likes(jon, mary).

Question:

?- likes(mary, X), likes(jon, X).
```

#### Knowledge base:

```
likes(mary, food).
likes(mary, wine).
likes(jon, wine).
likes(jon, mary).
```

#### Question:

```
?- likes(mary, X), likes(jon, X).
```

• The question is: Is there an X who is liked by Jon and by Mary?

#### Knowledge base:

```
likes(mary, food).
likes(mary, wine).
likes(jon, wine).
likes(jon, mary).
```

#### Question:

```
?- likes(mary, X), likes(jon, X).
```

- The question is: Is there an X who is liked by Jon and by Mary?
- PROLOG tries to satisfy the first sub-question; if it succeeds, it marks it and tries to satisfy the second sub-question; it it succeeds, it marks it too.

# Conjunctions and backracking

?- likes(mary, X), likes(jon, X).

likes(mary, food). likes(mary, wine). likes(jon, wine). likes(jon, mary).

# Conjunctions and backracking

```
?- likes(mary, X), likes(jon, X).

X= food

likes(mary, food).

likes(jon, wine).

likes(jon, mary).
```

?- likes(mary, X), likes(jon, X).

X= food

likes(mary, food).

likes(jon, wine).

likes(jon, mary).

?- likes(mary, X), likes(jon, X).

X= food

likes(mary, food).

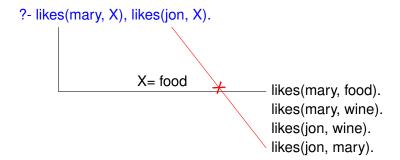
likes(jon, wine).

likes(jon, mary).

?- likes(mary, X), likes(jon, X).

X= food

likes(mary, food).
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```
?- likes(mary, X), likes(jon, X).

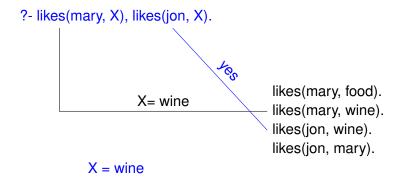
| X= wine | likes(mary, food). |
| likes(mary, wine). |
| likes(jon, wine). |
| likes(jon, mary).
```

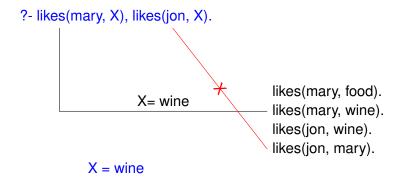
?- likes(mary, X), likes(jon, X).

| X= wine | likes(mary, food). |
| likes(mary, wine). |
| likes(jon, wine). |
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?- likes(mary, X), likes(jon, X).

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?- likes(mary, X), likes(jon, X).

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likes(mary, wine).
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```
?- likes(mary, X), likes(jon, X).

likes(mary, food).
likes(mary, wine).
likes(jon, wine).

X = wine
```

• How can we encode the fact that "Jon likes everybody"?

```
likes(jon, alex).
likes(jon, bogdan).
likes(jon, clara).
likes(jon, dan).
```

In this way, we should enumerate all people in the knowledge base  $\rightarrow$  impossible!

• How can we encode the fact that "Jon likes everybody"?

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In this way, we should enumerate all people in the knowledge base  $\rightarrow$  impossible!

We can use a variabile:

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likes(jon, X).
means "Jon likes every X."
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 We should also specify that Jon likes every X which is a person.

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• We can use a variabile:

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- Rules are used to specify how one fact depends on other facts.



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- "X is the sister of Y if X is woman and X and Y have same parents."

- Rules can be used to specify definitions.
- Examples:
- "X is liked by Jon if X is man."
- "X is bird if X is animal and X flies."
- "X is the sister of Y if X is woman and X and Y have same parents."

### Remark: Rules are not the same as definitions!

- A definition says that something holds if and only if the body of the definition holds.
- A rule says that a fact (the head of the rule) holds if the body of the rule holds. It may be case that the head of the rule holds in other situations too.
  - "X is human if X is female."
  - "X is human if X male."



## Rules in Prolog

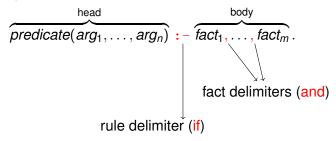
- Rules in Prolog have a head and a body.
- The body of the rule describes conditions which, if they hold, then the fact in the head holds too.

# Example

ATENTION! The scope of a variable is the rule where it appears (different rules have no variables in common).

# Rules in Prolog

Syntax of a rule



# Example Royal family

### Predicates that are used:

male(X): "X is male."

female(Y): "Y is female."

parents(X,Y,Z): "The parents of X are Y and Z."

# Example Royal family

```
Predicates that are used:
    male(X): "X is male."
    female(Y): "Y is female."
    parents(X,Y,Z): "The parents of X are Y and Z."
Knowledge base:
    male(albert).
    male(edward).
    female(alice).
    female(victoria).
    parents(edward, victoria, albert).
    parents(alice, victoria, albert).
```

# Example Royal family

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    male(X): "X is male."
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    female(alice).
    female(victoria).
    parents(edward, victoria, albert).
    parents(alice, victoria, albert).

    How can we define the predicate
```

sister(X, Y): "X is the sister of Y."?

# Examplu (contd.) Royal family

Definition of the predicate sister/2:

```
sister(X,Y) :-
    female(X),
    parents(X, F, M),
    parents(Y, F, M).
```

### Examples of queries:

- ?- sister(alice, edward).
- ?- sister(alice, X).
- ?- sister(X, edward).

## Questions about sisters

### Rule:

```
sister(X,Y) :- female(X),
parents(X,F,M),
parents(Y,F,M).
```

### Question:

```
sister(alice, edward).
```

# Questions about sisters

### Rule:

### Question:

```
sister(alice, edward).
```

• The query matches the head of the rule. The matching instantiates X with alice and Y with edward.

## Questions about sisters

### Rule:

```
sister(X,Y) :- female(X),
parents(X,F,M),
parents(Y,F,M).
```

#### Question:

```
sister(alice, edward).
```

- The query matches the head of the rule. The matching instantiates X with alice and Y with edward.
- The body of the rule is instantiated and becomes the new query:

```
female(alice),
parents(alice,F,),
parents(edward,F,M).
```

sister(alice, edward) (1) male (albert). (2) male (edward). (3) female(alice). (4) female (victoria). (5) parents(edward, victoria, albert). (6) parents(alice, victoria, albert). (7) sister(X,Y):female(X), parents (X, F, M), parents (Y, F, M).

```
XU=alice,
Y0=edward
```

```
7 sister(alice, edward)
female (alice),
parents(alice,F0,M0),
parents (edward, F0, M0).
```

```
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female (alice),
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 parents(alice, F0, M0),
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```

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7 sister(alice, edward)
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```

```
(1) male(albert).
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3 female(alice),
  parents(alice, F0, M0),
  parents (edward, F0, M0).
parents (alice, F0, M0),
 parents (edward, F0, M0).
```

parents (Y, F, M).

(1) male(albert).

```
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  parents(alice, F0, M0),
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```
7 sister(alice, edward)
    3 female(alice),
       parents(alice, F0, M0),
       parents (edward, F0, M0).
    6 parents(alice, F0, M0),
       parents (edward, F0, M0).
                  F0=victoria,
M0=albert
parents (edward, victoria, albert).
```

```
7 sister(alice, edward)
    3 female(alice),
       parents(alice, F0, M0),
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    6 parents(alice, F0, M0),
       parents (edward, F0, M0).
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parents (edward, victoria, albert).
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(5) parents (edward,
      victoria.
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                                          parents (edward, F0, M0).
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      albert).
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                                  5 parents (edward, victoria, albert).
      parents(X,F,M),
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      parents(X,F,M),
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```

7 sister(alice, edward)

```
sister(alice, X)
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(5) parents (edward,
      victoria,
      albert).
(6) parents(alice,
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(7) sister(X,Y):-
      female(X),
      parents (X, F, M),
```

#### sister(alice, X)

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(1) male(albert).

#### sister(alice,X)

```
7 sister(alice, X)
             X0=alice, Y0=X
female (alice),
parents (alice, F0, M0),
parents (X, F0, M0).
```

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7 sister(alice, X)
             X0=alice, Y0=X
female (alice),
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```
7 sister(alice, X)
             X0=alice, Y0=X
3 female(alice),
  parents(alice,F0,M0),
  parents(X,F0,M0).
 parents (alice, F0, M0),
 parents (X, F0, M0).
```

```
7 sister(alice, X)
              X0=alice, Y0=X
3 female(alice),
  parents(alice, F0, M0),
  parents(X,F0,M0).
 parents (alice, F0, M0),
 parents (X, F0, M0).
              F0=victoria
M0=albert
```

```
7 sister(alice, X)
                X0=alice, Y0=X
  3 female(alice),
    parents(alice, F0, M0),
    parents(X,F0,M0).
  6 parents (alice, F0, M0),
    parents(X,M0,F0).
parents (X, victoria, albert).
```

```
7 sister(alice, X)
  3 female(alice).
    parents(alice, F0, M0),
    parents(X,F0,M0).
  6 parents (alice, F0, M0),
    parents(X,M0,F0).
parents (X, victoria, albert).
```

```
(1) male(albert).
(2) male (edward).
(3) female(alice).
(4) female (victoria).
(5) parents (edward,
      victoria.
      albert).
(6) parents(alice,
      victoria.
      albert).
(7) sister(X,Y):-
      female(X),
      parents (X, F, M),
      parents (Y, F, M).
```

```
7 sister(alice, X)
   3 female(alice),
     parents(alice, F0, M0),
     parents(X,F0,M0).
   6 parents(alice, F0, M0),
     parents(X,M0,F0).
5 parents (X, victoria, albert).
                X=edward
```

```
(1) male(albert).
(2) male (edward).
                                     3 female(alice),
(3) female(alice).
                                        parents(alice, F0, M0),
(4) female (victoria).
                                        parents(X,F0,M0).
(5) parents (edward,
      victoria.
      albert).
                                      6 parents (alice, F0, M0),
(6) parents(alice,
                                        parents(X,M0,F0).
      victoria.
      albert).
(7) sister(X,Y):-
      female(X),
                                  5 parents (X, victoria, albert).
      parents (X, F, M),
      parents (Y, F, M).
```



7 sister(alice, X)

Answer: X = edward.

#### Exercise: thieves

#### Predicates that are being used:

```
thief(X): "X is thief."
likes(X, Y): "X likes Y."
may_steal(X, Y): "X may steal Y."
```

#### Ştim că:

- X may steal Y if X is thief and X likes Y.
- 2 John is thief.
- Mary likes food
- Mary likes wine.
- John likes X if X likes wine.

Query: What may John steal?

# Exercise: thieves (contd.) The encoding of the problem in PROLOG

• Knowledge base:

```
thief(john). likes(mary, food). likes(mary, wine). likes(john, X): - likes(X, wine). may_steal (X, Y): - thief(X), likes(X, Y).
```

Query:

```
?- may_steal(john,X).
```

# More about Prolog computations Backtracking

Sometimes, Prolog does not behave as expected.

## Example

```
\% father(X,Y) means that the father of X is Y
father(maria,george).
father(ion,george).
father(elena,eric).
?- father(_,X).
   X=george;
   X=george;
   X=eric;
```

- PROLOG returns twice the answer (X=george) because there are 2 facts which confirm that X is the father of somebody.
- We wish ti have a way to avoid the generation of repeated answers.

# More about Prolog computations

Backtracking

```
Example
```

```
nat(0).
nat (X):-
  nat(Y),
  X is Y+1.
?-nat(X).
   X=0;
   X=1 ;
   X=2;
   X=3;
```

This is the expected behavior of PROLOG!

## Finding answers by backtracking

#### Example

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

?-member(a,[b,a,d,a,c]).
   true;
   true;
   false.
```

- The backtracking process confirms the answers as many times as a occurs in the list.
- It is sufficient to get one confirmation.

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

member (X, [_|T]):-member (X, T).

?-member (a, [b, a, d, a, c]).
```

```
\label{eq:member} \begin{array}{l} \text{member}\left(X,\left[X\right|\_\right]\right).\\ \\ \text{member}\left(X,\left[\_\right|T\right]\right):-\text{member}\left(X,T\right).\\ \\ ?-\text{member}\left(a,\left[b,a,d,a,c\right]\right).\\ \\ \downarrow \\ \frac{\text{member}\left(X1,\left[\_\right|T1\right]\right):-\text{member}\left(X1,T1\right).}{X2=b,T1=\left[a,d,a,c\right]}\\ ?-\text{member}\left(a,\left[a,d,a,c\right]\right). \end{array}
```

```
 \begin{array}{c} \text{member} \left( X, \left[ X \right]_{-} \right) \text{.} \\ \text{member} \left( X, \left[ - \right| T \right] \right) \text{:-member} \left( X, T \right) \text{.} \\ \\ \text{?-member} \left( a, \left[ b, a, d, a, c \right] \right) \text{.} \\ \\ \text{$\downarrow$ $\substack{\text{member} \left( X1, \left[ - \right| T1 \right] \right) \text{:-member} \left( X1, T1 \right) \text{.} \\ \\ \text{?-member} \left( a, \left[ a, d, a, c \right] \right) \text{.} \\ \\ \text{$\downarrow$ $\substack{\text{member} \left( X2, \left[ X2 \right]_{-} \right] \text{.} \\ \\ \text{$\downarrow$ $\downarrow$ $\square$}} \\ \\ \end{array} }
```

```
member(X,[X|]).
member(X, [\_|T]) : -member(X, T).
                ?-member(a, [b, a, d, a, c]).
                                  member(X1, [\_|T1]) : -member(X1, T1).
                               \downarrow X2=b, T1=[a,d,a,c]
                  ?-member(a, [a, d, a, c]).
                                       member(X2, [\_|T2]) := member(X2, T2).
     member(X2, [X2| ]).
                                      \times X2=a, T2=[d, a, c]
                 X2=a
                             ?-member(a,[d,a,c]).
                                           member(X3,[]|T3]):=member(X3,T3).
                                         ¥ X3=a, T3=[a, c]
                               ?-member(a,[a,c]).
```

```
member(X,[X|]).
member(X, [\_|T]) : -member(X, T).
                ?-member(a, [b, a, d, a, c]).
                                  member(X1, [\_|T1]) : -member(X1, T1).
                               X2=b, T1=[a,d,a,c]
                  ?-member(a, [a, d, a, c]).
                                       member(X2, [\_|T2]) := member(X2, T2).
     member(X2, [X2| ]).
                                      \times X2=a, T2=[d, a, c]
                 X2=a
                             ?-member(a,[d,a,c]).
                                         member(X3,[_|T3]):-member(X3,T3).
X3=a,T3=[a,c]
                               ?-member(a,[a,c]).
                   member(X4,[X4|_]).
X4=a.
```

```
member(X,[X|]).
member(X, [\_|T]) : -member(X, T).
                ?-member(a, [b, a, d, a, c]).
                                member(X1, [\_|T1]) : -member(X1, T1).
                              \downarrow X2=b, T1=[a,d,a,c]
                 ?-member(a, [a, d, a, c]).
                                     member(X2, [\_|T2]) := member(X2, T2).
    member(X2, [X2| ]).
                                    X2=a,T2=[d,a,c]
                X2=a,
                            ?-member(a,[d,a,c]).
                                         member(X3,[ |T3]):-member(X3,T3).
                                       X3=a, T3=[a,c]
                             ?-member(a,[a,c]).
                  member (X4, [X4|_]). member (T5, [_|T5]).
                                  \square ?-member(a,[c]).
```

```
member(X,[X|]).
member(X, [\_|T]) : -member(X, T).
                ?-member(a, [b, a, d, a, c]).
                                member(X1, [\_|T1]) := member(X1, T1).
                              \downarrow X2=b, T1=[a,d,a,c]
                 ?-member(a, [a, d, a, c]).
                                     member(X2, [\_|T2]) := member(X2, T2).
    member(X2, [X2| ]).
                                    X2=a,T2=[d,a,c]
                X2=a_{\nu}
                            ?-member(a,[d,a,c]).
                                         member(X3,[]|T3]):=member(X3,T3).
                                       X3=a, T3=[a,c]
                             ?-member(a,[a,c]).
                  member(X4,[X4|_]).
                                          member(T5,[_|T5]).
                                 \sqcap ?-member(a,[c]).
                                                 member(T6, [_|T6]).
                                       ?-member(a,[])
```

#### Conclusion

We indicated the main principles of Logic Programming.

- facts, conjunctions of facts, logical variables
- rules
- examples which illustrate
  - How to program in PROLOG
  - How does PROLOG find answers to the queries of the user

## References, exercises

- You should become familiar with logic programming using SWI Prolog.
- All details about SWI Prolog can be found at http://www.swi-prolog.org.
   Install SWI-Prolog on your laptop, or use the version available in lab rooms, and try the examples described in this lecture.