

# **Programming Paradigms CSI2120 – Winter 2018**

**Jochen Lang  
EECS, University of Ottawa  
Canada**

Université d'Ottawa | University of Ottawa



uOttawa

L'Université canadienne  
Canada's university



uOttawa.ca

# Logic Programming in Prolog

- **Backtracking with the Cut**
  - The “Cut”
  - Coding the existence of a single solution
    - no other rules should be tried
    - no backtracking across this point
  - Abandoning a goal with cut and fail
- **Data structures: Lists**
  - Basic list processing
  - Appending a list to another
  - Reading into a list

# The “Cut” !

- **“cut” off some backtracking path**
  - Prolog will not try to re-satisfy certain goals.
- **Reasons for using the cut**
  - faster execution
  - more efficient use of memory (don't have to keep track of as many backtrack points)
- **Syntax: !**
  - goal that always succeeds and has a side effect (on the way backtracking works)

# A Simple Example:

- **Goal: Removing branches from the search tree that are known not to produce a solution.**
- **Example: A cat is either a male or female cat. When one fact is proven, there is no point in searching for the opposite.**

`cat(X) :- tomcat(X), !.`

`cat(X) :- female_cat(X), !.`

- The cut commits Prolog to the facts established
  - if the subgoal `tomcat(X)` succeeds, the cut succeeds and the cat rule in the first row succeeds. The backtracking path is now cut off and Prolog will not search to re-satisfy `tomcat(X)` or `cat(X)`.

# Effect of the Cut

- **When a cut is encountered as a goal, the system becomes committed to all choices made since the *parent goal was invoked*.**
  - This means the choice of which clause, and all the choices in the "sibling" goals up to the cut are fixed.
- **Therefore the Cut permits the elimination of branches in the search tree by**
  - eliminating other rules for the same goal
  - eliminating other choices for subgoals

## Example: Search tree.

- Rules and facts a,b,c,d,e,h arranged in a tree

$h(X) :- d(X) .$

$h(X) :- X=e .$

$d(X) :- X=a .$

$d(X) :- X=b .$

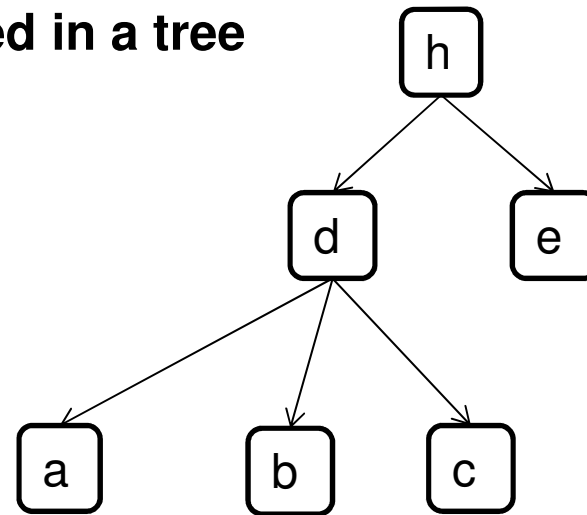
$d(X) :- X=c .$

a.

b.

c.

e.



- Query initiating a tree traversal:

$?- h(X) .$

- Produces the leave nodes (depth first search):

a b c e

# Example: Search tree with cut branches

- Rules and facts a,b,c,d,e,h arranged in a tree

$h(X) \text{ :- } d(X) \text{ .}$

$h(X) \text{ :- } X=e \text{ .}$

$d(X) \text{ :- } X=a, ! \text{ .}$

$d(X) \text{ :- } X=b \text{ .}$

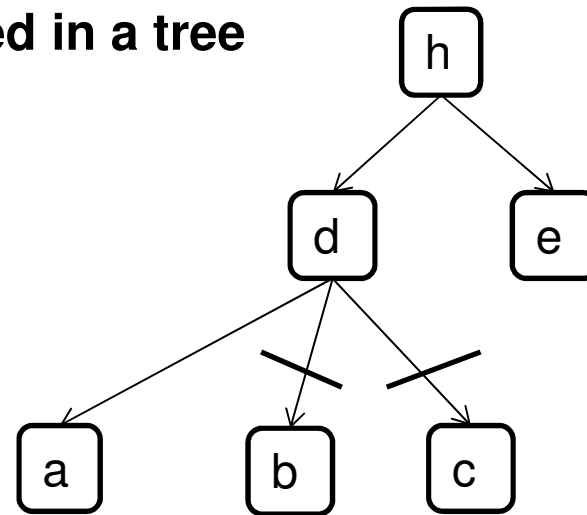
$d(X) \text{ :- } X=c \text{ .}$

a.

b.

c.

e.



- Query initiating a tree traversal:

$?- h(X) \text{ .}$

- Produces only the leave nodes (depth first search):

a e

# An Arithmetic Example: roots

- A naive way to calculate the integer root of a number is to use a generator for integer numbers and see if the result succeeds.

- **Generator**

```
int(0).
```

```
int(N) :- int(N1), N is N1+1.
```

- **Root predicate**

```
root(N,R) :- int(K), K*K>N,!, R is K-1.
```

- Cut ensure that once  $K^2 > N$ , backtracking of the generator stops (`int`).



# Red vs. Green Cuts

- **Red Cuts**
  - change the solution space (see the previous root example).
- **Green Cuts**
  - remove choices that wouldn't work anyway
  - efficiency gain
  - reduced memory footprint

# Summary: Utility of the Cut

- Delete branches that will not lead to a solution
- Remove mutually exclusive cases in rules
- Reduce the number of solutions produced
- Make sure that certain programs (recursion) terminate
- Control of the proof procedure

# If-then-else

- **Max function returning the larger of two numbers**

```
max(X, Y, X) :- X >= Y.
```

```
max(_, Y, Y).
```

- **This will produce surprising results, consider**

```
?- max(7, 5, X).
```

```
Call: (6) max(7, 5, _G1326) ? creep
```

```
Call: (7) 7>=5 ? creep
```

```
Exit: (7) 7>=5 ? creep
```

```
Exit: (6) max(7, 5, 7) ? creep
```

```
X = 7 ;
```

```
Redo: (6) max(7, 5, _G1326) ? creep
```

```
Exit: (6) max(7, 5, 5) ? creep
```

```
X = 5.
```

# If-then-else with the Cut

- **Solution: Use an explicit test**

```
max(X, Y, X) :- X >= Y.
```

```
max(X, Y, Y) :- X < Y.
```

- **Solution: Use the Cut for efficiency**

```
max(X, Y, X) :- X >= Y, !.
```

```
max(_, Y, Y).
```

- **Query**

```
?- max(7, 5, X).
```

```
Call: (6) max(7, 5, _G1326) ? creep
```

```
Call: (7) 7>=5 ? creep
```

```
Exit: (7) 7>=5 ? creep
```

```
Exit: (6) max(7, 5, 7) ? creep
```

```
X = 7.
```

# Predicate `fail`

- **The fail predicate always fails.**
- **Combined with the Cut we get negation**  
`is_false(P) :- P, !, fail.`  
`is_false(P).`
- **The clause `P` is either true then the goal `is_false` fails.**
  - Subgoal `P` is true, Cut is true cutting backtracking off, `fail` succeeds making the goal `is_false(P)` fail.
  - If subgoal `P` fails, the second rule succeeds.
- **The combination is called cut-fail.**

# Built-in predicate not

- **Predicate not behaves as the previous example is\_false.**

```
?- not(fail) .
```

```
true.
```

```
?- not(X=1) .
```

```
false.
```

```
?- not(X=1) , X=0 .
```

```
false.
```

- **Verifies the failure of a term.**
- **not/1 should be used as a predicate with instantiated arguments for verification purposes.**
  - it does not generate solutions

# Simple Example with Negation

```
happy_camper(X) :- not(sad(X)), camper(X).  
camper(joe).  
sad(jane).
```

- **Queries**

```
?- happy_camper(joe).  
true.  
?- happy_camper(jane).  
false.  
?- happy_camper(X).  
false.
```

# Negation: not or \+

- The negation predicate `not (F)` with `F` a term can also be written with the operator `\+F`
  - Associative prefix operator
- **Negation by failure**
  - Prolog proves the success of a goal `not (F)` by showing that it can not satisfy `F`.
    - Remember that Prolog may also fail to proof `F` for trivial reasons, e.g., it may simply missing facts in its database.
  - Prolog's proof strategy is referred to as closed world assumption.



# Not Equals or Difference

- We have seen the operator not equals before.

$X \neq Y$ .

- Binary difference operator is the opposite of a successful unification of its' arguments.

- This operator is equivalent to the following definition

$X \neq Y \text{ :- not } (X = Y) .$

- expressed with cut-fail

$X \neq X \text{ :- !, fail.}$

$X \neq Y .$

# Interval Predicate Again

- **Recall previous definition of a test for an interval and a separate definition of a generator for interval**

```
intervalTest(X, L, H) :- X >= L, X <= H
interval(X, X, H) :- X <= H.
interval(X, L, H) :- L < H, L1 is L+1,
                    interval(X, L1, H).
```

- **Definition using the Cut combining the two predicates**

```
interval(X, L, H) :- number(X), number(L),
                    number(H), !, X >= L, X <= H.
interval(X, X, H) :- number(X), number(H),
                    X <= H.
interval(X, L, H) :- number(L), number(H),
                    L < H, L1 is L+1,
                    interval(X, L1, H).
```

Note the use of the built-in `number`

# Lists

- **Common structure in Prolog**
  - A list holds objects (in the Prolog sense). Elements in a list may be list themselves.
- **Examples**
  - A list with three elements `[1, 2, 3]`
  - An empty list `[]`
  - Lists are processed in Prolog by referring to the head and tail of the list `[Head | Tail]`
  - Remember no typing, a valid list is `[1, 2, three]`
  - The tail of the list is always a list
  - The head of the list may consist of multiple elements `[1, 2, | Tail]`

# List Examples: Head and Tail

```
?- [1,2,three] = [X|Y].  
X = 1,  
Y = [2, three].  
?- [1|[2,three]] = L.  
L = [1, 2, three].  
?- [1|[2,three]] = [X|Y].  
X = 1,  
Y = [2, three].  
?- [1,2,three] = [X|[Y]].  
false.  
?- [1] = [X|Y].  
X = 1,  
Y = [].  
?- [] = [X|Y].  
false.
```

# List Example

```
aList(X, Y, [X|Y]). % Simple predicate
```

```
?- aList(1, [2,3,4], L).
```

```
L= [1,2,3,4].
```

```
?- aList(X, Y, [1,2,3,4]).
```

```
X= 1,
```

```
Y= [2,3,4].
```

```
?- aList(1, [2,3,4], [1,2,3,4]).
```

```
true.
```

# Basic List Processing

- **List membership**

```
listMember(X, [X|L]). % Searched for element is
                      % head - boundary case

listMember(X, [Y|L]) :-
    listMember(X, L). % loop over list
```

- **Determining the Length of a List**

```
listLength([], 0). % empty list is length 0

listLength([X|L], N) :-
    listLength(L, NN), % loop over list
    N is NN+1.         % count
```

# List Insertion with Permutations

```
listInsert(A,L,[A|L]). % Position for A
listInsert(A,[X|L],[X|LL]) :-
    listInsert(A,L,LL). % Recursion with every
                        % level succeeding
```

```
?- listInsert(c, [a, b], L).
L = [c, a, b] ;
L = [a, c, b] ;
L = [a, b, c] ;
false.
```

# Joining Lists

```
appendList([], Y, Y) .  
appendList([A|B], Y, [A|W]) :-  
    appendList(B, Y, W) .
```

```
?- appendList([1,2], [3,4], L) .  
L= [1,2,3,4] .  
?- appendList(X, [3,4], [1,2,3,4]) .  
X= [1,2]  
?- appendList([1,2], [3,4], [1,2,3,4]) .  
true.
```



## Example: List of Characters

- **Reading character from the console until line feed**

```
read_line(Line) :-  
    get_char(C), read_line(C, Line).
```

```
read_line('\n', []) :- !.  
read_line(C, [C | RestOfLine]) :-  
    C \= '\n',  
    get_char(NextC),  
    read_line(NextC, RestOfLine).
```

- **Similar to SWI library predicate**

```
read_line_to_codes(user_input, ListChar).
```

# Summary

- **Backtracking with the Cut**
  - Manipulating the search tree
  - Red and green cuts
  - Utility of the cut
- **Data structures: Lists**
  - Basic list processing
    - List membership, length of a list, append, permutation and insertion, reading a line