COMP4418: Knowledge Representation and Reasoning

Introduction to Prolog II

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Reference: Ivan Bratko, Prolog Programming for Artificial Intelligence, Addison-Wesley, 2001. Chapter 3.

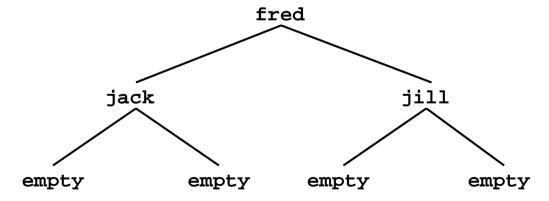
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Prolog

- Compound terms can contain other compound terms
- A compound term can contain the same kind of term, i.e., it can be recursive:

```
tree(tree(empty, jack, empty), fred, tree(empty, jill, empty))
```

- "empty" is an arbitrary symbol use to represent the empty tree
- A structure like this could be used to represent a binary tree that looks like:



Binary Trees

- A binary tree is either empty or it is a structure that contains data and left and right subtrees which are also binary trees
- To test if some datum is in the tree:

```
in_tree(X, tree(_, X, _)).
in_tree(X, tree(Left, Y, _) :-
    X \= Y,
    in_tree(X, Left).
in_tree(X, tree(_, Y, Right) :-
    X \= Y,
    in_tree(X, Right).
```

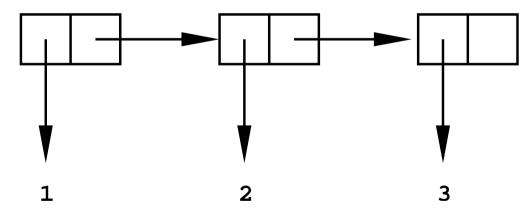
The Size of a Tree

- tree_size(empty, 0).
 tree_size(tree(Left, _, Right), N) :tree_size(Left, LeftSize),
 tree_size(Right, RightSize),
 N is LeftSize + RightSize + 1.
- The size of the empty tree is 0
- The size of a non-empty tree is the size of the left subtree plus the size of the right subtree plus one for the current node

Lists

- A list may be nil or it may be a term that has a head and a tail. The tail is another list.
- A list of numbers, [1, 2, 3] can be represented as:

list(1, list(2, list(3, nil)))



■ Since lists are used so often, Prolog has a special notation:

[1, 2, 3] = list(1, list(2, list(3, nil)))

Examples of Lists

[X, Y, Z] = [1, 2, 3]? Unify the two terms on either side of the equals sign

$$X = 1$$

 $Y = 2$

Z = 3

Variables match terms in corresponding positions

[X|Y] = [1, 2, 3]?

X = 1

Y = [2, 3]

The head and tail of a list are separated by

using '|' to indicate that the term following

the bar should unify with the tail of the list

$$[X|Y] = [1]?$$

The empty list is written as '[]'

X = 1

Y = []

The end of a list is usually []'

More list examples

List Membership

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

- Rules about writing recursive programs:
 - Only deal with one element at a time
 - ▶ Believe that the recursive program you are writing has already been written and works
 - Write definitions, not programs

Appending Lists

A commonly performed operation on lists is to append one list to the end of another (or, concatenate two lists), e.g.,

```
append([1, 2, 3], [4, 5], [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]).
```

Start planning by considering the simplest case:

```
append([], [1, 2, 3], [1, 2, 3]).
```

Clause for this case:

```
append([], L, L).
```

Appending Lists

Next case:

```
append([1], [2], [1, 2]).
```

Since append([], [2], [2]):
 append([H|T1], L, [H|T2]) :- append(T1, L, T2).

Entire program is:

```
append([], L, L).
append([H|T1], L, [H|T2]) :-
    append(T1, L, T2).
```

Reversing Lists

- rev([1, 2, 3], [3, 2, 1]).
- Start planning by considering the simplest case:

```
rev([], []).
```

Note:

```
rev([2, 3], [3, 2]).
and
append([3, 2], [1], [3, 2, 1]).
```

Reversing Lists

Entire program is:

```
rev([], []).
rev([A|B], C) :-
    rev(B, D),
    append(D, [A], C).
```

An Application of Lists

Find the total cost of a list of items:

```
cost(flange, 3).
cost(nut, 1).
cost(widget, 2).
cost(splice, 2).
```

■ We want to know the total cost of [flange, nut, widget, splice]

```
total_cost([], 0).
total_cost([A|B], C) :-
   total_cost(B, B_cost),
   cost(A, A_cost),
   C is A_cost + B_cost.
```