Outline

Prolog's Cut Operator

Dr. Mattox Beckman

Illinois Institute of Technology Department of Computer Science

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Prolog's Cut Operator Introduction Objectives

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Prolog's Cut Operator

 $_1$ A = red

Backtracking

Objectives

You should be able to...

Prolog's greatest strength is its ability to backtrack to find alternative solutions. If not controlled, it can also be its greatest weakness. In this lecture we will go over the cut operator, which gives a solution to this problem.

- Know what the cut operator is and what it does.
- Know how to use the cut operator to assert failure.
- Know how to use the cut operator to stop recursion.

Backtracking

```
_2 B = honda ;
                                        _3 A = red
color(red).
                                        _4 B = ford;
2 color(blue).
                                        _5 A = red
3 car(honda).
                                        _6 B = toyota ;
4 car(ford).
                                        _{7} A = blue
5 car(toyota).
                                        _8 B = honda;
                                        _9 A = blue
7 ?- color(A), car(B).
                                       _{10} B = ford ;
                                       _{11} A = blue
                                       12 B = toyota ;
```

Come and see the backtracking inherent in the system!

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Backtracking Backtracking

The Cut operator

Commitment

- The Cut operator (!) stops backtracking.
- It is considered a goal that always succeeds.

```
1 ?- color(A), !, car(B).
2
3 A = red
4 B = honda;
5 A = red
6 B = ford;
7 A = red
8 B = toyota;
9 No
```

Once a cut is activated, the clause we are trying to satisfy is committed to that choice.

```
color(red).
color(green) :- !.
color(blue).

?- color(X).
X = red;
X = green;

No
Once X was set to green, the cut operator forces us to stay with green or else color should fail completely. Question: Can color(blue) ever be matched?
```

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Prolog's Cut Operator Recursion

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 $X ext{ is } Y ext{ * N.}$

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Factorial revisited

Two fixes

1 fact(0,1).

Or you can add a cut to the first clause.

2 fact(N,X) :- N > 0, M is N-1, fact(M,Y),

You can add a constraint to the second clause....

Now it will work:

```
1 ?- fact(5,N).
2 N = 120 ;
3 No
```

• What happened here?

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Efficiency Efficiency

Efficiency

Can frank use the telescope?

Suppose you run the campus observatory. You want to allow certain people to use the telescope. They have to be a student, a faculty member, or a member of the astronomy club. And they also need to have been trained on the telescope.

```
students anna, beth, cindy, david
faculty ernest, frank, gloria
astronomy club anna, frank, harry
trained anna, harry
```

```
telescope(X) :- (student(X); faculty(X);
club(X)),
trained(X).
```

- frank is a faculty, and also a member of the club.
- But, frank doesn't have any training.

What will telescope(frank). do?

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Efficiency

Who can use the telescope?

Now we cut...

Since anna is a student *and* a member of the club, she gets listed twice.

Prolog's Cut Operator

```
telescope(X) := (student(X); faculty(X);
club(X)),
;
trained(X).

?- telescope(X).
X = anna;
No
```

- Oops. Now we've dissed harry.
- But at least we don't spend a lot of time when we ask if frank can use the telescope....
- Moral: cut will limit your choices to only one answer.

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Efficiency Efficiency

Inducing failure.

Inducing failure II

- We also have a predicate called fail, which, well, always fails.
- Suppose anna has her telescope privileges revoked...

```
telescope(anna) := fail.
telescope(X) := (student(X); faculty(X); club(X)),
trained(X).

?- telescope(anna).
Yes.
```

This is less than what we hoped for.

```
telescope(anna) :- !, fail.
telescope(X) :- (student(X); faculty(X);

club(X)),
trained(X).

?- telescope(anna).
No
?- telescope(harry).
yes
?- telescope(X).
```

But cut and fail will work.

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Conclusions

Problems

- Cut can stop searches that you already know will be useless.
- Cut can make queries more efficient.
- But, cut can make queries do strange things. Use with care.

Aside: you can define not (actually, it's built in) this way:

```
1 not(X): - call(X), !, fail.
2 not(X).
```

This predicate can fix the telescope problems.

- Write a predicate between(X,Y,Z) which is true when Y is a point between X and Z.
- Write a predicate grandfatherof(X,Y) which is true when X is a grandfather of Y. You might want to write another predicate first.
- Write a predicate flatten(X,Y) that is true when Y is a flattened version of X. E.g.

Hint: there is a predicate called is_list, which is true when its argument is a list.

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Problems 1 and 2

Almost answer 3 — What goes wrong?

```
1 between(X,Y,Z) :- pathfrom(X,Y),
                   pathfrom(Y,Z).
3 parentof(X,Y) :- fatherof(X,Y);
                  motherof(X,Y).
5 grandfatherof(X,Y) :- fatherof(X,Z),
                       parentof(Z,Y).
```

```
n myflatten([H|T],X) :- is_list(H),
             append(H,T,R), myflatten(R,X).
3 myflatten([H|T],[H|X]) :- myflatten(T,X).
4 myflatten([],[]).
5
6 ?- myflatten([[2,3],[3,4,[5,6],4],3],X).
_{7} X = [2, 3, 3, 4, 5, 6, 4, 3];
8 X = [2, 3, 3, 4, [5, 6], 4, 3];
9 X = [2, 3, [3, 4, [5, 6], 4], 3];
_{10} X = [[2, 3], 3, 4, 5, 6, 4, 3];
_{11} X = [[2, 3], 3, 4, [5, 6], 4, 3];
_{12} X = [[2, 3], [3, 4, [5, 6], 4], 3];
13 No
```

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Answer 3

```
n myflatten([H|T],X) :- is_list(H), !,
               append(H,T,R), myflatten(R,X).
3 myflatten([H|T],[H|X]) :- myflatten(T,X).
4 myflatten([],[]).
```