



Built-in Predicates in Prolog

Module of Logics and Artificial Intelligence course a.a. 2016/2017





Classic notation	Prolog Notation
6+2=8	8 is 6+2.
6*2=12	12 is 6*2.
6-2=4	4 is 6-2.
6-8=-2	-2 is 6-8.
6 /2 =3	3 is 6/2.
7 mod 2 = 1	1 is mod(7,2).





- ?- 8 is 6+2.
- ?- 12 is 6*2.
- ? -2 is 6-8.
- ?- 3 is 6/2.
- ?- 1 is mod(7,2).
- ?- X is 6+2.
- ?- X is 6*2.
- ?- R is mod(7,2).





?- 8 is 6+2.

true

?- 12 is 6*2.

true

? -2 is 6-8.

true

?- 3 is 6/2.

true

?- 1 is mod(7,2).

true

?- X is 6+2.

X = 8

?- X is 6*2.

X = 12

?- R is mod(7,2).

R = 1





Examples

Sum 3 and double

sum3AndDouble(X,Y) :-

List length



Examples

Sum 3 and double

```
sum3AndDouble(X,Y) :- Y is (X+3)*2
?- somma_3_e_raddoppia(1,Y).
Y=8;
```

List length

```
len([],0).
len([_|T],N) :- len(T,X), N is X+1.
?- len([a,b,c,d,e,[a,b],g],X).
X = 7;
```





Notazione classica	Notazione Prolog
x <y< th=""><th>X<y.< th=""></y.<></th></y<>	X <y.< th=""></y.<>
x<=y	X= <y.< th=""></y.<>
x>=y	X>=Y.
x=y	X=:=Y.
x!=y	X=\=Y.

4=:=4.

true

4=\=5.

true

4=\=4.

false

4 >= **4**.

true

4 > 2.

true

2 < 4.

true

2 =< 4.

true

4 =< 4.

true





Example: Max of a List

Write a rule that finds the maximum of a list: maxList(List,Max).





Example: Max of a List

Write a rule that finds the maximum of a list: maxList(List,Max).

```
maxList([1,0,5,4,2], Max)
maxList([H|T],A,Max) :- H > A, maxList(T,H,Max).
maxList([H|T],A,Max) :- H =< A, maxList(T,A,Max).
maxList([],A,A).
```

```
?- maxList([1,0,5,4,2], Max). Max = 5.
```

N.B. In this implementation two relations with different arities are defined:
maxList/2 and maxList/3





Built-in Predicates

Built-in predicates are already defined in Prolog implementation:

I/O predicates:

- Write/1: prints the argument value to the standard output
- NI/0: breaks the line and returns a new line.
- **Tab/1**: inserts a number of tab spaces equal to the argument value.

When those predicate are called for the first time they success, if called more times they fail.





Not

It checks the **negation** of a predicate:

• Not/1: takes as argument a goal, Prolog tries to prove it and then negates the result.

Example:

?- not(is_cointained_in(key,office)).
false





Fail

• fail/0: It causes the predicate to fail.

It is useful to force backtracking and find more solutions. It can be used to implement cycles, i.e. checking all the instantiations (by unification) that make a rule true.

Example:

Print all the elements within a list:

print_all(List):- is_contained_in(O,List),write(O),nl,fail.



Assert

- assert/1: adds the argument to the knowledge base.
- asserta/1: inserts the argument at the beginning of the knowledge base.
- assertz/1: appends the argument at the end of the knowledge base.

Assert and **assertz** actually behave the same.

Example:

insert_if_mortal(X):-person(X),assert(mortal(X)).
person(socrates).

?- insert_if_mortal(socrates).

true.

?- mortal(X).

X = socrates.





Retract

- retract/1: removes from the knowledge base the first fact or clause unifying with the argument.
- retractall/1: removes from the knowledge base any fact or clause unifying with the argument.





Findall

• **findall/3 (+Template, :Goal, -Bag)**: Create a list of the instantiations Template gets successively on backtracking over Goal and unify the result with Bag. Succeeds with an empty list if Goal has no solutions.

Example:

```
foo(a, b, c).
```

foo(a, b, d).

foo(b, c, e).

foo(b, c, f).

foo(c, c, g).

?- findall(C, foo(A, B, C), Cs).

$$Cs = [c, d, e, f, g]$$





Bagof

• bagof/3 (+Template, :Goal, -Bag): Unify Bag with the alternatives of Template. If Goal has free variables besides the one sharing with Template, bagof/3 will backtrack over the alternatives of these free variables, unifying Bag with the corresponding alternatives of Template. The construct +Var^Goal tells bagof/3 not to bind Var in Goal. bagof/3 fails if Goal has no solutions.

Example:

```
foo(a, b, c).
foo(a, b, d).
foo(b, c, e).
foo(b, c, f).
foo(c, c, g).
```

```
?- bagof(C, foo(A, B, C), Cs).

A = a, B = b, C = G308, Cs = [c, d];

A = b, B = c, C = G308, Cs = [e, f];

A = c, B = c, C = G308, Cs = [g].

4 ?- bagof(C, A^foo(A, B, C), Cs).

A = G324, B = b, C = G326, Cs = [c, d];

A = G324, B = c, C = G326, Cs = [e, f, g].
```





Setof

• **setof/3 (+Template, :Goal, -Bag)**: it behaves as bagof but sorts the result to get a sorted list of alternatives without duplicates.

Example:

```
foo(a, b, c).
foo(a, b, d).
foo(b, c, e).
foo(b, c, f).
foo(c, c, g).
```

```
?- setof(C, foo(A, B, C), Cs).

A = a,

B = b,

Cs = [c, d];

A = b,

B = c,

Cs = [e, f];

A = B, B = c,

Cs = [g].
```





• !/O: Discards all alternatives since entering the predicate in which the cut appears. It **COMMITS** to the clause in which the cut appears and **FORCES** Prolog interpreter to not use backtracking to find alternatives for the goals to the left of cut in the current clause.

Example:

```
p(X):- a(X).

p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).

p(X):- f(X).

a(1).

b(1).

c(1).

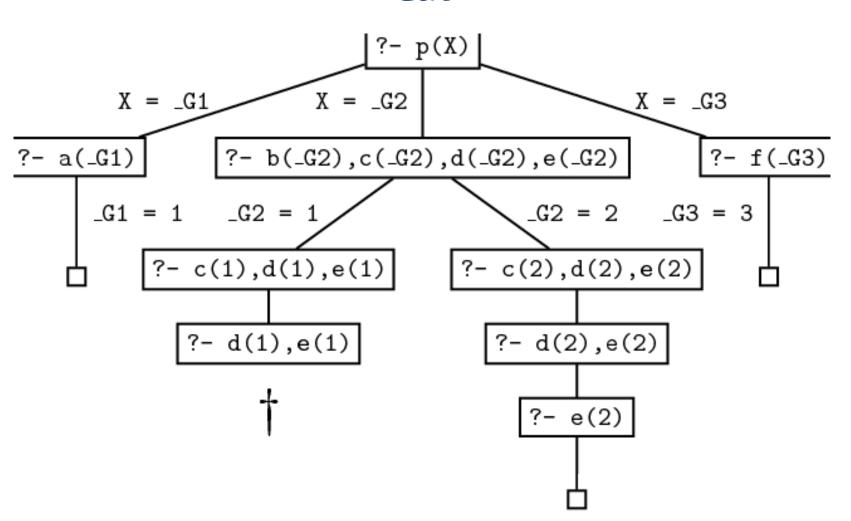
d(2).

e(2).

f(3). b(2). c(2).
```

?- p(X).
X = 1;
X = 2;
X = 3.

it has to backtrack once, namely
when it enters the second clause
for p/1 and decides to unify the
first goal withb(1) instead of b(2).

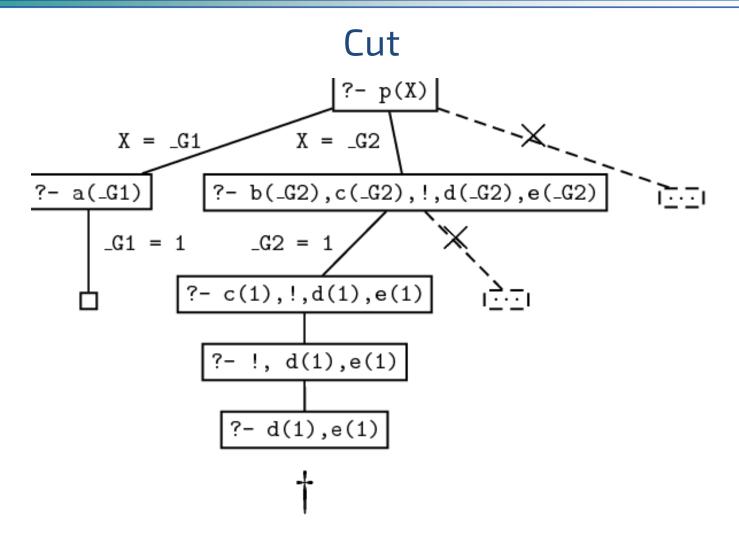




Now we modify the second clause inserting a cut:

Example:

```
p(X):- a(X). ?- p(X). p(X):- b(X), c(X), !, d(X), e(X). X = 1. p(X):- f(X). a(1). b(1). c(1). d(2). e(2). f(3). b(2). c(2).
```







- 1. **p(X)** is first unified with the first rule, so we get a new goal **a(X)**. By instantiating X to 1, Prolog **unifies a(X)** with the fact **a(1)** and we have found a solution. So far, this is exactly what happened in the first version of the program.
- 2. We then go on and look for a second solution. **p(X)** is unified with the second rule, so we get the new goals **b(X),c(X),!,d(X),e(X)**. By instantiating X to 1, Prolog unifies **b(X)** with the fact **b(1)**, so we now have the goals c(1),!,d(1),e(1). But **c(1)** is in the database so this simplifies to !,d(1),e(1).
- 3. Now for the big change. The ! goal succeeds (as it always does) and commits us to the choices made so far. In particular, we are committed to having X = 1, and we are also committed to using the second rule.
- 4. But **d(1) fails**. And there's **no way we can re-satisfy the goal p(X)**. Sure, if we were allowed to try the value X=2 we could use the second rule to generate a solution (that's what happened in the original version of the program). But we can't do this: **the cut has removed this possibility from the search tree**. And sure, if we were allowed to try the third rule, we could generate the solution X=3. But we can't do this: once again, the cut has removed this possibility from the search tree.





N.B. The cut only commits us to choices made since the parent goal was unified with the left hand side of the clause containing the cut. For example, in a rule of the form

when we reach the cut it commits us to using this particular clause for q and it commits us to the choices made when evaluating p1,...,pn.

However, we are free to backtrack among the r1,...,rm and we are also free to backtrack among alternatives for choices that were made before reaching the goal q.



Consider the following cut-free program:

```
s(X,Y):- q(X,Y).
s(0,0).
```

$$q(X,Y):=i(X), j(Y).$$

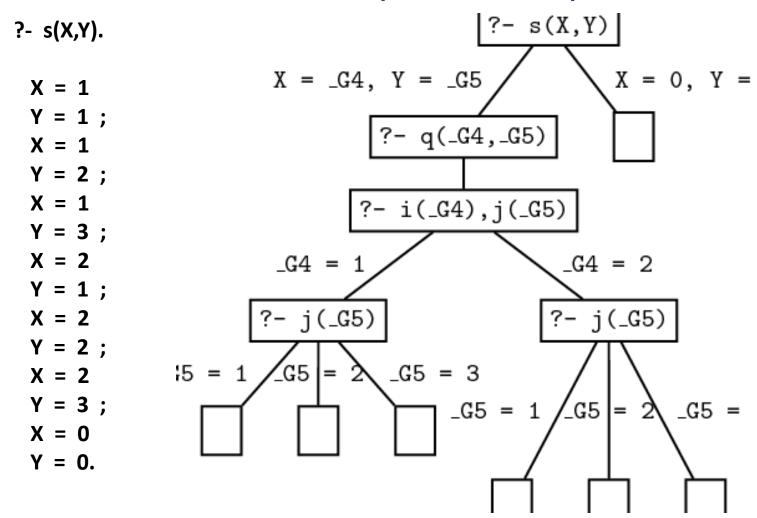
i(1).

i(2).

j(1).

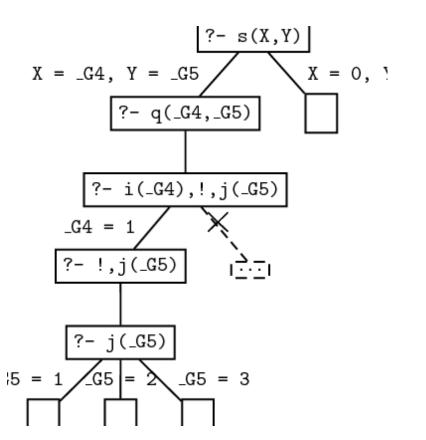
j(2).

j(3).



Consider the following program:

$$q(X,Y):=i(X),!,j(Y).$$



$$X = 1$$

 $Y = 1$;

$$X = 1$$

$$Y = 2$$
;

$$X = 1$$

$$Y = 3$$
;

$$X = 0$$

$$Y = 0.$$





- 1. s(X,Y) is **first unified with the first rule**, which gives us a new goal q(X,Y).
- 2. q(X,Y) is then unified with the third rule, so we get the new goals i(X),!,j(Y). By instantiating X to 1, Prolog unifies i(X) with the fact i(1). This leaves us with the goal !,j(Y). The cut succeeds, and commits us to the choices made so far.
- 3. But what are these choices? These: that X = 1, and that we are using this clause. But note: we have not yet chosen a value for Y.
- 4. Prolog then goes on, and by instantiating Y to 1, Prolog unifies j(Y) with the fact j(1). So we have found a solution.
- 5. But we can find more. Prolog is free to try another value for Y . So it backtracks and sets Y to 2, thus finding a second solution. And in fact it can find another solution: on backtracking again, it sets Y to 3, thus finding a third solution.
- 6. But those are all alternatives for j(X). Backtracking to the left of the cut is not allowed, so it can't reset X to 2, so it won't find the next three solutions that the cut-free program found. Backtracking over goals that were reached before q(X,Y) is allowed however, so that Prolog will find the second clause for s/2.

Cut - Example

Write a program, max/3 which takes integers as arguments and succeeds if the third argument is the maximum of the first two:

$$max(X,Y,Y):- X =< Y.$$

 $max(X,Y,X):- X>Y.$

This program is correct BUT it is inefficient. In a very large program, if backtracking is forced, the program will try to satisfy the second clause (but there is no second solution to find!!!). The clauses are mutually exclusive so we rewrite the program with cut:

$$max(X,Y,Y) :- X =< Y,!.$$

 $max(X,Y,X) :- X>Y.$

N.B. This CUT does not change the meaning of the program, but it is more efficient. **CUTS** like this are called **GREEN CUTS**



Cut - Example

Somebody could points that the second clause is redundant so she could propose a more compact (and wrong) version:

$$max(X,Y,Y):- X =< Y,!.$$

 $max(X,Y,X).$

This program is wrong for simple queries like max(2,3,2).

This query will succeed!

The right version is:

$$max(X,Y,Z) :- X =< Y,!, Y = Z.$$

 $max(X,Y,X).$

N.B. This cut changes the meaning of the program. Without the cut the program will behave differently. **Be very careful with those cuts**. **CUTS** like this are called **RED CUTS**.