



Universidade do Minho
Escola de Engenharia
Departamento de Informática

Prolog

Não , Cut, Fail

Mestrado Integrado em Engenharia Informática
Licenciatura em Engenharia Informática
Inteligência Artificial



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Prolog: Control, Negation and Cut

- Backtracking
- The cut operator !
- Negation-as-Failure
- not



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The Cut

- Backtracking is a characteristic feature of Prolog;
- But backtracking can lead to inefficiency:
 - Prolog can waste time and memory exploring possibilities that lead nowhere;



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The Cut

- The cut predicate (!) offers a way to control backtracking;
- The cut has no arguments, so we write (officially): `!/0` .



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Example of cut

- The cut is a Prolog predicate, we can add it to the body of rules:
 - – Example:
 - $p(X) \text{:- } b(X), c(X), !, d(X), e(X).$
- Cut is a goal that always succeeds;
- Cut commits Prolog to the choices that were made since the parent goal was called.



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Example of cut

- Cut tells the system that:
 - If you have come this far,
 - Do not backtrack,
 - Even if you fail subsequently.
 - 'Cut' written as '!' always succeeds.



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Backtracking and Nondeterminism

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

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

`?- member(ivo, [joao, ivo, paulo, ivo]).`

yes Deterministic query

`?- member(X, [joao, ivo, paulo, ivo]).`

`X = joao;`

`X = ivo;` Nondeterministic query

`X = paulo;`

`X = ivo;`

no



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Controlling Backtracking

cor(cereja, vermelha).
cor(banana, amarela).
cor(maça, vermelha).
cor(maça, verde).
cor(laranja, laranja).
cor(X, desconhecido).

?- cor(banana, X).

X = amarelo

?- cor(physalis, X).

X = desconhecido

?- cor(cereja, X).

X = vermelho;

X = desconhecido;

no



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The CUT

- The cut is a built-in predicate written as !
- The cut always succeeds
- When backtracking over a cut, the goal that caused the current procedure to be used fails
- Not used for its logical properties, but to control backtracking.



- Suppose goal H is called, and has two clauses:
 $H1 :- B1, \dots B_i, !, B_k, \dots B_m.$
 $H2 :- B_n, \dots B_p.$
- If H1 matches goals $B1 \dots B_i$ are attempted and may backtrack among themselves
- If $B1$ fails, H2 will be attempted
- But as soon as $!$ is crossed, Prolog commits to the current choice.
 All other choices are discarded.



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Commitment to the Clause

$H1 :- B1, \dots B_i, !, B_k, \dots B_m.$

$H2 :- B_n, \dots B_p.$

- Goals $B_k \dots B_m$ may backtrack amongst themselves, but
- If goal B_k fails, then the predicate fails and the subsequent clauses are not matched



- Consider the following predicate `max/3` that succeeds if the third argument is the maximum of the first two

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

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

`?- max(2,3,3).`

yes

`?- max(7,3,7).`

yes

`?- max(2,3,2).`

no

`?- max(2,3,5).`

no



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The max/3 predicate

- What is the problem?
- There is a potential inefficiency
 - Suppose it is called with `?- max(3,4,Y).`
 - It will correctly unify `Y` with `4`
 - But when asked for more solutions, it will try to satisfy the second clause. This is completely pointless!

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



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max/3 with cut

- With the help of cut this is easy to fix:

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

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

- Note how this works:
- If the `X =< Y` succeeds, the cut commits us to this choice, and the second clause of `max/3` is not considered
- If the `X =< Y` fails, Prolog goes on to the second clause



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Uses of Cut: Deterministic Predicates

Deterministic (functional) predicate.

Example:

a deterministic version of member, which is more efficient for doing 'member checking' because it doesn't need to give multiple solutions:

```
membercheck(X, [X | _]) :- !.
```

```
membercheck(X, [_ | L]) :- membercheck(X, L).
```

```
?- membercheck(francisco, [joao, jose, francisco, paulo]).
```

yes.

```
?- membercheck(X, [a, b, c]).
```

X = a;

no.



- Using cut together with the built-in predicate fail defines a kind of negation.

- Examples:

- Maria likes any animals except reptiles:

```
gosta(maria,X) :- reptil(X), !, fail.
```

```
gosta(maria,X) :- animal(X).
```

- A utility predicate meaning something like “not equals”:

```
diferente(X, X) :- !, fail.
```

```
diferente(_, _).
```




- We can use the idea of “cut fail” to define the predicate `not`, which takes a term as an argument;
- `not` “calls” the term, evaluating as if it was a goal:
 - `not(G)` fails if `G` succeeds
 - `not(G)` succeeds if `G` does not succeed.
- In Prolog,
 - `not(G) :- call(G), !, fail.`
 - `not(_).`
- `call` is a built-in predicate.



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Negation-as-Failure: **not** (cont.)

- Most Prolog systems have a built-in predicate `not`. SWI Prolog calls it `\+`.
- `not` does not correspond to logical negation, because it is based on the success/failure of goals.
- It can, however, be useful
 - `gosta(maria, X) :- not(reptil(X)).`
 - `diferente(X, Y) :- not(X = Y).`



Misleading Negation-as-Failure

- The following database held the names of members of the public, marked by whether they are innocent or guilty of some offence:
- Suppose the database contains the following:
 `inocente(peter_pan).`
 `inocente(X) :- ocupacao(X, freira).`
 `inocente(winnie_the_pooh).`
 `inocente(julie_andrews)`
 `culpado(X) :- ocupacao(X, ladrao).`
 `culpado(joao_facas).`
 `culpado(rosa_carteiras).`
- Consider the following dialogue:
 `?- inocente(s_francisco).`
 no.



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Problem – No may not mean False

- This can't be right – we know that S. Francisco is innocent;
- Why does this happen?
- Prolog produces no, because S. Francisco is not in the database;
- The user will believe it because the computer says so and the database is hidden from the user;
- How to solve this?



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not Makes Things Worse

- Using not doesn't help
`culpado(X) :- not(inocente(X)).`
- This makes matters even worse
`?- culpado(s_francisco).`
`yes`
- It is one thing to show that `s_francisco` cannot be demonstrated to be innocent, but it is very bad to incorrectly show that he is guilty.



- More subtle than the inocente/culpado problem, not can lead to some extremely obscure programming errors.
- An example using a restaurant database:
 - `boa_pontuacao(boa_mesa).`
 - `bom_standard(tia_carla).`
 - `caro(boa_mesa).`
 - `razoavel(R) :- not(caro(R)).`
- Consider the query:
 - `?- bom_standard(X), razoavel(X).`
 - `X = tia_carla`
- But let's ask the logically equivalent question:
 - `?- razoavel(X), bom_standard(X).`
 - `no.`



- Why different answers for logically equivalent queries?
 - ?- bom_standard(X), razoavel(X).
 - ?- razoavel(X), bom_standard(X).
- In the 1st query, X is always instantiated when razoavel(X) is executed;
- In the 2nd query, X is not instantiated when razoavel(X) is executed;
- The semantics of razoavel(X) differ depending on whether its argument is instantiated!



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Bad Programming Practice

- It is bad to write programs that destroy the correspondence between the logical and procedural meaning of a program without any good reason;
- Negation-as-failure does not correspond to logical negation, and so requires special care.



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How to fix it?

- One way is to specify that:

Negation of a non-ground formula is undefined

- A formula is ground if it has no unbound variables;
- Some Prolog systems issue a run-time exception when a non-ground goal is negated .



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What the cut does

- 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

$q:- p_1, \dots, p_m, !, r_1, \dots, r_n.$

when we reach the cut it commits us:

- to this particular clause of q
- to the choices made by p_1, \dots, p_m
- NOT to choices made by r_1, \dots, r_n



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Green Cuts

- Cuts that do not change the meaning of a predicate are called green cuts;
- The cut in $\text{max}/3$ is an example of a green cut:
 - the new code gives exactly the same answers as the old version,
 - but it is more efficient.



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Another $\text{max}/3$ with cut

- Why not remove the body of the second clause? After all, it is redundant.

$\text{max}(X,Y,Y):- X \leq Y, !.$

$\text{max}(X,Y,X).$

- How good is it?



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Another max/3 with cut

- Why not remove the body of the second clause? After all, it is redundant.

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

`max(X,Y,X).`

- How good is it?
 - ok

`?- max(200,300,X).`

`X=300`

`yes`



- Why not remove the body of the second clause? After all, it is redundant.
- $\text{max}(X, Y, Y) :- X \leq Y, !.$
- $\text{max}(X, Y, X).$
- How good is it?
- – ok

?- $\text{max}(400, 300, X).$

$X=400$

yes



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Another max/3 with cut

- Why not remove the body of the second clause? After all, it is redundant.

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

- How good is it?
 - – oops....

```
?- max(200,300,200).
```

```
yes
```



- Unification after crossing the cut
 - $\text{max}(X,Y,Z):- X \leq Y, \text{!, } Y=Z.$
 - $\text{max}(X,Y,X).$
- This does work

```
?- max(200,300,200).
```

```
no
```




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Red Cuts

- Cuts that change the meaning of a predicate are called red cuts;
- The cut in the revised $\text{max}/3$ is an example of a red cut:
 - If we take out the cut, we don't get an equivalent program;
- Programs containing red cuts
 - Are not fully declarative;
 - Can be hard to read;
 - Can lead to subtle programming mistakes.



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Another build-in predicate: fail/0

- As the name suggests, this is a goal that will immediately fail when Prolog tries to prove it;
- That may not sound too useful...
- But remember:
 - when Prolog fails, it tries to backtrack.



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