

The Prolog programming language

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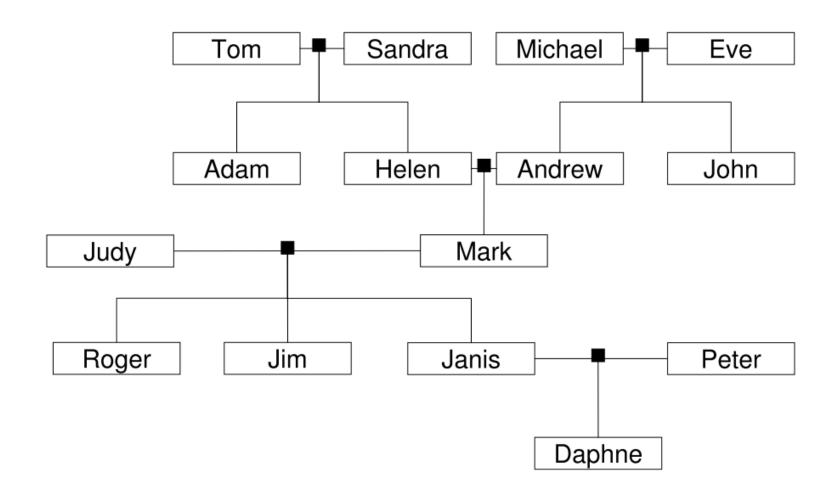
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Programming in logic

- Predicate logic can be used to represent and reason about knowledge.
- We will adopt the Prolog programming language to model and process clauses.
- In this discussion we will use a running example to express the meaning and constraints of data as well as to construct queries over their representation in order to obtain information.

A running example: A family genealogy tree



Terms

In Prolog, a term is a <u>constant</u>, <u>atom</u>, <u>variable</u> or <u>compound term</u>.

 A compound term consists of a <u>functor</u> with one or more arguments.

 For example, parent(tom, adam) is a term with functor parent and two arguments: tom and adam.

Programs and statements

```
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).
```

 Prolog programs consist of collections of <u>statements</u> (also called <u>assertions</u>, or <u>clauses</u>).

Statements and procedures

```
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
```

parent(peter, daphne).

Statements are grouped into procedures.

 In this example, we have one procedure named parent, made up of several statements.

Procedures and arguments

```
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
```

parent(peter, daphne).

 Each procedure defines a certain relationship between its <u>arguments</u>.

 The programmer decides on how to interpret this relationship.

Here, parent(tom, adam) will be interpreted as

"Tom is the parent of Adam."

Statements revisited: Facts and rules

```
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).
```

- There are two kinds of statements:
 - 1) facts, and
 - 2) rules.
- Facts are propositions declared to be true.
- In the example, the procedure named parent consists only by facts.

Questions and queries

parent(tom, adam). parent(tom, helen). parent(sandra, adam). parent(sandra, helen). parent(michael, andrew). parent(michael, john). parent(eve, andrew). parent(eve, john). parent(helen, mark). parent(andrew, mark). parent(judy, roger). parent(judy, jim). parent(judy, janis). parent(mark, roger). parent(mark, jim). parent(mark, janis). parent(janis, daphne).

parent(peter, daphne).

The collection of statements constitutes a (declarative) database.

We can pose queries on this database.

A query is the codification of a <u>question</u>.

There are only two types of queries:

- 1.Is it indeed the case that a given statement is true? (ground query)
- 2.Under what conditions, if any, is a given statement true? (non-ground query)

Ground queries

```
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).
```

- Ground queries result in a Yes/No (or True/False) response:
- For example, the question

"Is it indeed the case that Peter is the parent of Daphne?"

will be codified into a query and executed as

?- parent(peter, daphne).

Evaluation of ground queries

```
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
```

parent(peter, daphne).

Prolog will take the query

?- parent(peter, daphne).

and will start searching the database from top to bottom, one statement at a time trying to match ("unify") it with a statement.

• In trying the first statement, a match (unification) is *not* successful.

Evaluation of ground queries /cont.

```
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
```

parent(peter, daphne).

Prolog will then try to match the query?- parent(peter, daphne).against the next statement in the program.

 Again, if not successful, it will try the next statement in the program...etc. until either a match is found or until the database is exhausted.

Evaluation of ground queries /cont.

```
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
```

parent(peter, daphne). ←

```
In this example, Prolog will eventually succeed,
having matched the query
?- parent(peter, daphne).
with the last statement.
```

Prolog will respond Yes (or true) to the query.

 We have managed to prove that it is indeed the case that parent(peter, daphne) is true.

Non-ground queries

 A non-ground query involves one or more variables.

The question "Who is a parent of Daphne" can be transformed into a non-ground query as
 ?- parent(X, daphne).
 where X (note the capitalization) is a variable.

We are asking Prolog to seek <u>instantiation(s)</u>
 for variable x, provided any exist, that could make the query succeed.

```
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
```

parent(sandra, helen).

parent(michael, andrew).

parent(michael, john).

parent(eve, andrew).

parent(eve, john).

parent(helen, mark).

parent(andrew, mark).

parent(judy, roger).

parent(judy, jim).

parent(judy, janis).

parent(mark, roger).

parent(mark, jim).

parent(mark, janis).

parent(janis, daphne).

parent(peter, daphne).

Unification revisited

```
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).
```

 Unification (or matching) is a basic operation on terms.

A ground query can unify with a statement, e.g.

?- parent(tom, adam).

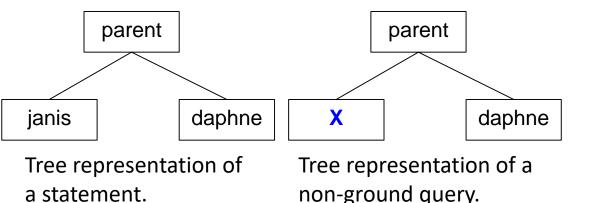
Unification revisited

parent(tom, adam). parent(tom, helen). parent(sandra, adam). parent(sandra, helen). parent(michael, andrew). parent(michael, john). equal. parent(eve, andrew). parent(eve, john). parent(helen, mark). parent(andrew, mark). parent(judy, roger). parent(judy, jim). parent(judy, janis). parent(mark, roger). janis parent(mark, jim). parent(mark, janis).

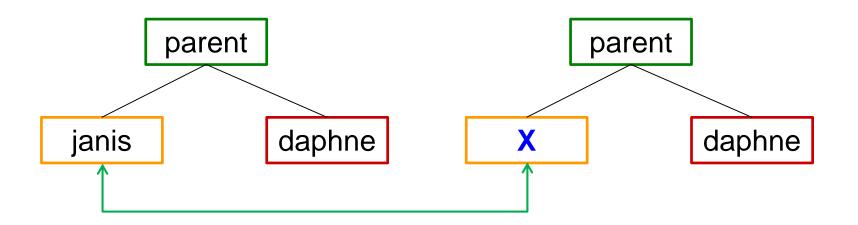
parent(janis, daphne).

parent(peter, daphne).

- A non-ground query can unify with a statement only if substitution can be made for any variables so that the two terms can be made equal.
- In this example, we have?- parent(X, daphne).



Unification revisited /cont.



- The terms parent(janis, daphne) and parent(X, daphne) unify, instantiating X to janis.
- There is in fact one more solution, because there are two possible choices to unify with parent(X, daphne).

Rules: Head and body

- A rule is an implication between propositions.
- The general form is

can succeed."

```
head:-body.

which reads

"The head (of the rule) is true, if the body is true.",

or, alternatively:

"The head of the rule can succeed if the body of the rule
```

Formulae and rules

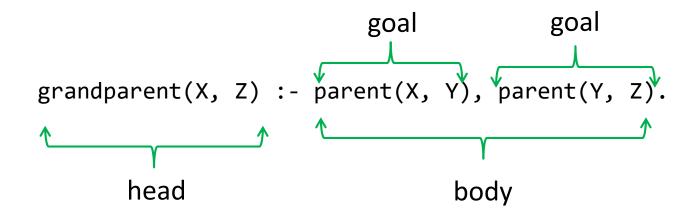
- Let us extend the database with a new procedure grandparent.
- Let p stand for the <u>binary relation</u> isParentOf and let g stand for the binary relation isGrandParentOf.
- We can define g in terms of p by the following formula: For persons
 x, y, z:

$$G = \forall x, y, z((p(x, z) \land p(z, y)) \rightarrow g(x, y))$$

We can represent the formula with the rule below:
 grandparent(X, Z) :- parent(X, Y), parent(Y, Z).

Rules and goals

Consider the following rule :



- The body of rule grandparent/2 contains two goals.
- The goals are related by a <u>conjunction</u> (denoted by the comma symbol).
- The rule is now added to the database.

```
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
                         Consider the query grandparent(judy, daphne).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
                         Prolog will search its database from top to bottom,
parent(michael, andrew).
                         and
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
                         a) unify the query with the head of the rule,
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
                         b) instantiate X to judy and Z to daphne,
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
                             grandparent(X, Z) :- parent(X, Y), parent(Y, Z).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
                             ?- grandparent(judy, daphne).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
```

parent(peter, daphne).

```
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).
grandparent(X, Z) :- parent(X, Y),
```

parent(Y, Z).

```
c) resolve to two new queries (that correspond to the two goals of the rule): parent(judy, Y), parent(Y, daphne).
```

 Both queries must now be evaluated (in the order specified) and if both prove true, then the rule succeeds (and the answer to the query is Yes/True).

```
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).
grandparent(X, Z) :- parent(X, Y),
```

parent(Y, Z).

```
    The two goals
        parent(judy, Y), parent(Y, daphne).
    will be evaluated as follows:
```

The first goal parent(judy, Y), will be executed as any other query, unifying with parent(judy ,roger), and instantiating Y to roger.

```
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).
grandparent(X, Z) :- parent(X, Y),
                     parent(Y, Z).
```

- Once the first goal succeeds, Prolog will try the next one on the right, for the same instantiation:
- Can roger make the second goal succeed?
 No.
- The query parent(roger, daphne) is not successful.

parent(tom, adam). parent(tom, helen). parent(sandra, adam). parent(sandra, helen). parent(michael, andrew). parent(michael, john). parent(eve, andrew). parent(eve, john). parent(helen, mark). parent(andrew, mark). parent(judy, roger). parent(judy, jim). parent(judy, janis). parent(mark, roger). parent(mark, jim). parent(mark, janis).

parent(janis, daphne).

parent(peter, daphne).

grandparent(X, Z) :- parent(X, Y),

parent(Y, Z).

- Prolog will continue searching the database to find matches that can satisfy both goals: parent(judy, Y), parent(Y, daphne).
- The first goal, parent(judy, Y), can unify with parent(judy, jim), instantiating Y to jim.
- Can jim make the second goal succeed?No.
- The query parent(jim, daphne) is not successful.

parent(tom, adam). parent(tom, helen). parent(sandra, adam). parent(sandra, helen). parent(michael, andrew). parent(michael, john). parent(eve, andrew). parent(eve, john). parent(helen, mark). parent(andrew, mark). parent(judy, roger). parent(judy, jim). parent(judy, janis). parent(mark, roger).

parent(mark, jim).

parent(mark, janis).

parent(janis, daphne).

parent(peter, daphne).

grandparent(X, Z) :- parent(X, Y),

parent(Y, Z).

- Prolog will continue searching the database to find matches that can satisfy both goals parent(judy, Y), parent(Y, daphne).
- The first goal, parent(judy, Y), can unify with parent(judy, janis), instantiating Y to janis.
- Can janis make the second goal succeed?Yes.
- The query parent(janis, daphne) is successful.

```
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).
grandparent(X, Z) :- parent(X, Y),
```

parent(Y, Z).

```
    The question
    "Who are the grandparents of Daphne?"
    is codified into the query
    ?- grandparent(G, daphne).
```

This will unify with the head of rule grandparent, instantiating variable z to daphne and resolving into two goals: parent (G, Y), parent(Y, daphne).

```
parent(tom, adam).
parent(tom, helen).
parent(sandra, adam).
parent(sandra, helen).
parent(michael, andrew).
parent(michael, john).
parent(eve, andrew).
parent(eve, john).
parent(helen, mark).
parent(andrew, mark).
parent(judy, roger).
parent(judy, jim).
parent(judy, janis).
parent(mark, roger).
parent(mark, jim).
parent(mark, janis).
parent(janis, daphne).
parent(peter, daphne).
grandparent(X, Z) :- parent(X, Y),
                     parent(Y, Z).
```

```
?- grandparent(X, daphne).
X = judy 
X = mark:
                 Upon finding a match, Prolog
No
                 will stop here and wait for
                 instructions. The semicolon
                 symbol (;) inquires whether
                 more matches can be found.
                 A period symbol (.) would
                 indicate our intention to stop
                 the search.
```

Multi-line rules: Disjunction

- We can now further extend the database with a rule to define the binary relation "is ancestor of."
- Suppose we let p stand for the binary relation isParentOf and let a stand for the binary relation isAncestorOf relation.
- We can now define a in terms of p by the following formula we will call A:

$$A = \forall x, y(p(x, y) \rightarrow a(x, y))$$

 $A = \forall x, y, z((p(x, z) \text{ and } a(z, y)) \rightarrow a(x, y))$

Multi-line rules: Disjunction /cont.

In other words, x is an ancestor of y if either x is a parent of y, or x
is a parent of an ancestor of y. We can represent this in Prolog with
the following multi-line rule:

```
disjunction \begin{cases} \text{ancestor}(X,\ Y) :- \text{parent}(X,\ Y). \\ \text{ancestor}(X,\ Y) :- \text{parent}(X,\ Z), \text{ ancestor}(Z,\ Y). \\ \text{conjunction} \end{cases}
```

- A rule can be placed in more than one lines.
- In this case, there is a <u>disjunction</u> between the two lines, and there
 is a <u>conjunction</u> between the two goals of the body of the second
 rule.

Further extending the database

```
man(tom).
man(michael).
man(adam).
man(andrew).
man(john).
man(mark).
man(roger).
man(jim).
man(peter).
woman(sandra).
woman(eve).
woman(helen).
woman(judy).
woman(janis).
woman(daphne).
father(X, Y) :- man(X),
             parent(X, Y).
mother(X, Y) :- woman(X),
               parent(X, Y).
```

```
We extend the database by introducing
four procedures:
man, woman: made up of facts,
and
father, mother: made up of rules:
father(X, Y) :- man(X),
                 parent(X, Y).
mother(X, Y) :- woman(X),
                 parent(X, Y).
```

Anonymous variables in rules

 If any parameter of a relation is not important, we can replace it with an <u>anonymous variable</u> denoted by the underscore character (_) as follows:

```
is_father(X) :- father(X, _).
is_mother(X) :- mother(X, _).
```

- We can now pose more queries such as "Is Tom a father?"
- To answer this type of question, it does not matter who Tom is the father of, as long as Tom is found as the first term in a father statement. The query is as follows:

```
?-is_father(tom).
true
```

Anonymous variables in queries

Alternatively we can use anonymous variables in queries, such as

```
?- father(tom, _).
true
```

Complex terms

- Terms can be complex.
- In the following example,

```
directed("Wim Wenders", movie("Until the End of the World", 1991)).
directed("Wim Wenders", movie("Wings of Desire", 1987)).
```

directed/2 is a complex term with two arguments.

```
?- directed("Wim Wenders", X).
X = movie("Until the End of the World",1991)
X = movie("Wings of Desire",1987)
```

Complex terms /cont.

Complex terms /cont.

```
directed("Wim Wenders", movie("Until the End of the World", 1991)).
directed("Wim Wenders", movie("Wings of Desire", 1987)).
?- findall(Year, directed("Wim Wenders", movie(_, Year)), Year_List).
    Year List = [1991, 1987]
```

Lists

- Lists are represented in square brackets [...].
- The <u>empty list</u> is represented by [].
- Every non-empty list can be represented in two parts:
 - The head, which is the first element.
 - The <u>tail</u>, which is the list containing the remaining elements.
- In the list [john, eve, paul]
 - The head is john, and
 - The tail is the list [eve, paul].

List representations

- The symbol | in [H|T] represents a list whose head is H and whose tail is T.
- We can represent the above example as [john | [eve, paul]].
- Since [eve, paul] is also a list with head eve and tail [paul], we can write the above list as [john | [eve | [paul]]].
- Any one-element list can be written as that element joined to the empty list. Thus, [paul] is the same as [paul | []].
- We can now write the full list as [john | [eve | [paul | []]]].

Example: Checking for list membership

- We want to define a procedure member/2 which succeeds if an element is found inside a list.
- We can define list membership <u>recursively</u> as follows:
- Element X is a member of a list L if X is the head of L (regardless of what the tail is), i.e. member(X, [X|_]) or X is a member of the tail of L (regardless of what the head is), i.e. member(X, [_|T]) :- member(X, T).

Example: Checking for list membership /cont.

 The complete rule is the disjunction of the following two statements:

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

Example: Checking for list membership /cont. Alternative implementation using the 'cut' operator

• An alternative implementation of member/2 is shown:

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

- The! tells the interpreter to stop looking for alternatives once the LHS succeeds.
- However, if member(X, [X|_]) fails, then the interpreter will check
 member(X, [_|T]).

Example: Checking for list membership /cont.

<u>Initial implementation</u>

Implementation using 'cut'

```
?- member(a, [a, b, c]).
                                     ?- member(a, [a, b, c]).
true
?- member(a, []).
                                     ?- member(a, []).
false.
                                     false.
                                     ?- member([b, c], [[a], [b, c]]).
?- member([b, c], [[a], [b, c]]).
true
?- member(X, [a, b]).
                                     ?- member(X, [a, b]).
                                     X = a;
X = a;
                                     false.
X = b;
false.
```

- In this example, we want to define a rule last/2 which succeeds if an element is found to be in the last position of a non-empty list.
- We can identify two cases for this:
 - The list has one element.
 - The list has more than one element.

- Case 1: The list has only one element.
- In this case, the last element is the only existing element of the list.
- The following rule,

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

reads "The rule succeeds if element L is found to be the only element of a given list."

- Case 2: The list has more than one element.
- In this case, we need to reduce the problem to the one that can be handled by case 1.
- In other words, the clause will succeed once it chops off all elements, one by one, until it ends up with one element.

• The following rule, last(L, [H|T]) :- last(L, T). reads "The rule can succeed for a list whose head is H and whose tail is T, if it can succeed for a new list which is the tail T of the original list."

- In other words, let us get rid of the first element and see if we end up with only one element in which case the rule of case 1 will determine that this remaining element is indeed the last element.
- However, if after getting rid of the first element we end up with a
 list with more than one elements, we must repeat this chopping off
 the head of the list, until we end up with a list which has only one
 element and subsequently handled by the first rule (of case 1).

Example: The last element in a list /cont. Evaluation of a ground query [1 of 3].

Given the following rule:

```
last(L, [L]).
last(L, [H|T]) :- last(L, T).
```

Consider the query

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

- Prolog will search its database (from top to bottom) and
 unify the query with the head of the second statement of the rule,
 instantiate variable L to c and variable [H|T] to [a | b, c], and
 resolve to a new query (that corresponds to the body of the rule):
 last(c, [b, c]).
- This new query must now be evaluated.

Example: The last element in a list /cont. Evaluation of a ground query [2 of 3].

Given the rule,

```
last(L, [L]).
last(L, [H|T]) :- last(L, T).
```

The query

```
?- last(c, [b, c]).
```

will cause Prolog to (perform a new search and)

unify the query with the head of the second statement of the rule, instantiate variable L to c and variable [H|T] to $[b \mid c]$, and

resolve to a new query (that corresponds to the body of the rule):

```
last(c, [c]).
```

This new query must now be evaluated.

Example: The last element in a list /cont. Evaluation of a ground query [3 of 3].

Given the rule

```
last(L, [L]).
last(L, [H|T]) :- last(L, T).
```

The query

```
?- last(c, [c]).
```

will cause Prolog to (perform a new search and)

unify the query with the head of the first statement of the rule, and yield a success, indicating that it is indeed the case that c is found in the last position of the list.

Arithmetic, relational and logical operators

- Available arithmetic operators: +, -, *, /, **, mod.
- Keyword is denotes an assignment, and evaluates the RHS, e.g.
 X is (1 + 2).
- Relational operators: <, >, =<, >=, =:=, =\=
 = is used for unification, e.g. X = 7.
 == is used to denote identical terms, e.g. 5 == 5.
 =:= evaluates both sides, e.g. (1 + 3) =:= (2 + 2).
- Logical operators: \+

Example: Find the largest between two numbers

Correct (using 'cut')

<u>Incorrect</u>

```
larger(X, Y, X) :- X > Y, !.
larger(X, Y, Y).

?- larger(5, 7, X).
X = 7 .

?- larger(11, 7, X).
X = 11;
false.
```

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

?- larger(11, 7, X).
X = 11;
X = 7;
false.
```

Example: Calculating the size of a list

- We can recursively obtain the length of a list as follows:
- If the list is empty, then its length is 0.
- If the list is not empty, then its length is 1 + length of its tail.
- Consider rule size/2 to read in a list and calculate its length.

```
size([],0).
size([H|T], N) :- size(T, N1), N is N1 + 1.
```

Example: Calculating the size of a list /cont.

We can execute queries as follows:

```
?- size([], N).
N = 0.
?- size([a,b,c], N).
N = 3.
?- size([[a,b],c], N).
N = 2.
?- size([[a,b,c]], N).
N = 1.
```

Example: Removing all occurrences of an element from a list

• If the list is empty, then return the empty list:

```
remove_all(_, [], []).
```

• If the element is found to be the head of the list, then recur on the tail of the list:

```
remove_all(X,[X|T], T2) :- remove_all(X, T, T2).
```

 Otherwise, keep the head of the list in the result, and recur on the tail of the list:

```
remove_all(X, [H|T], [H|T2]) :-
    X \= H, remove_all(X, T, T2).
```

Example: Removing all occurrences of an element from a list /cont.

```
remove all( , [], []).
remove_all(X,[X|T], T2) :- remove_all(X, T, T2).
remove_all(X, [H|T], [H|T2]) :- X \= H, remove_all(X, T, T2).
?- remove all(a, [], Result).
Result = [];
false.
?- remove all(a, [a, b, c], Result).
Result = [b, c];
false.
?- remove_all(a, [a, b, a, c], Result).
Result = [b, c];
false.
```

Example: Removing the first occurrence of an element from a list

• If the list is empty, then return the empty list:

```
remove(_, [], []).
```

 If the element is found to be the head of the list, then return the tail of the list:

```
remove(X,[X|T], T).
```

 Otherwise, keep the head of the list in the result, and recur on the tail of the list:

```
remove(X, [H|T], [H|T1]) :-
X \= H, remove(X, T, T1).
```

Example: Removing the first occurrence of an element from a list

```
remove(_, [], []).
remove(X,[X|T], T).
remove(X, [H|T], [H|T1]) :- X \= H, remove(X, T, T1).
?- remove(a, [], Result).
Result = [];
false.
?- remove(a, [a], Result).
Result = [];
false.
?- remove(a, [a, b, c, d, a], Result).
Result = [b, c, d, a];
false.
?- remove(a, [a, a, a, b, c, d, a], Result).
Result = [a, a, b, c, d, a];
false.
```

Built-in utility functions

- The built-in function findall(X, P, L) returns a list L with all values for X that satisfy predicate P.
- To eliminate redundancies in a list, we can use the built-in function list_to_set(List, Set) that converts the list (with possibly repeated elements) into a set.
- The built-in function length(List, L) returns the length L of a given list.

Example with **findall** and **list_to_set** in a query

Let us obtain a set of all fathers:

Example with findall and list_to_set in a rule

The query

```
findall(F, father(F, _), Lst), list_to_set(Lst, Set)
is rather long and complex.
```

We can encapsulate its size and complexity in a rule get_all_fathers/1:

```
get_all_fathers(Set) :-
   findall(F, father(F, _), Lst),
   list_to_set(Lst, Set).
```

```
?- get_all_fathers(Set).
Set = [tom, michael, andrew, mark, peter].
```

Example with findall and length in a rule

 Let us construct a rule qualifies_for_benefits/1 that succeeds if the argument is a mother of at least three children.

```
qualifies_for_benefits(P):-
   woman(P),
     findall(P, parent(P, _), L),
     length(L, N),
     N >= 3.
?- qualifies_for_benefits(Name).
Name = judy;
false.
```