

The current topic: Prolog

- ✓ Introduction
- ✓ Object-oriented programming: Python
- ✓ Functional programming: Scheme
- ✓ Python GUI programming (Tkinter)
- ✓ Types and values
- Logic programming: Prolog
 - ✓ Introduction
 - ✓ Rules, unification, resolution, backtracking, lists.
 - ✓ More lists, math, structures.
 - ✓ More structures, trees, cut.
 - Next up: Negation.
- Syntax and semantics
- Exceptions

Announcements

- Term Test 2 has been marked.
 - Handed back at the end of class today.
 - The deadline for submitting a re-mark request is **the end of class, Friday November 28th**. Make sure you understand the posted solutions before submitting a re-mark request.
 - Average: 68.4%

Using not instead of cut to avoid wrong answers

- Prolog has a `not` operator, but its behaviour is more subtle than in other languages.
- Example: Replacing a cut with `not`:
 - With cut:

```
A :- B, !, C.  
A :- D.
```
 - With not:

```
A :- B, C.  
A :- not(B), D.
```
- Observe that `not` can be more cumbersome than `cut`.
 - repetitive if-then-else

Using not for inequality

- Example:

```
crispy(snap).  
crispy(crackle).  
crispy(pop).  
breakfast(A,B,C) :- crispy(A), crispy(B), crispy(C).  
  
?- breakfast(A,B,C).  
A = snap  
B = snap  
C = snap ;  
  
A = snap  
B = snap  
C = crackle ;  
...
```
- But we really want A, B, and C to be different from each other.

Using not for inequality

```
crispy(snap).
crispy(crackle).
crispy(pop).
breakfast(A,B,C) :- crispy(A), crispy(B), crispy(C), not(A=B),
                    not(A=C), not(B=C).
```

```
?- breakfast(A,B,C).
```

```
A = snap
```

```
B = crackle
```

```
C = pop ;
```

```
A = snap
```

```
B = pop
```

```
C = crackle ;
```

```
...
```

Negation in Prolog

- `not(B)` can also be written as `\+ B`.
 - And `not(X=Y)` can also be written as `X \= Y`.

- The goal `\+ X` succeeds iff `X` fails.

- Examples:

```
?- \+ member(b, [a,b,c]).
```

```
No
```

```
?- \+ member(x, [a,b,c]).
```

```
Yes
```

```
?- \+ member(X, [a,b,c]).
```

```
No
```

Negation in Prolog

```
?- \+ member(X, [a,b,c]).
```

```
No
```

- It might look like this query is asking "Does there exist an `X` for which `member(X, [a,b,c])` does not succeed?".
 - We know there are lots of values of `X` for which `member(X, [a,b,c])` does not succeed.
 - But that's not what negation means in Prolog.
 - There exists `X` for which `member(X, [a,b,c])` succeeds.
 - So then `\+ member(X, [a,b,c])` fails.

Negation as failure

- Prolog assumes that if it can't prove an assertion, then the assertion is false.
 - And Prolog assumes that if it *can* prove an assertion, then the assertion is true.
- This is the "closed world assumption": in the universe of facts Prolog knows about, failure to prove is proof of failure.
 - But if we know something Prolog doesn't, this can lead to surprises: things that Prolog thinks are false when we know they're true, and the opposite.
 - Example:

```
university(uoft).
```

```
?- university(york).
```

```
No
```

```
?- \+ university(york).
```

```
Yes
```

Be careful with negation

```
sad(X) :- \+ happy(X).
happy(X) :- beautiful(X), rich(X).
rich(bill).
beautiful(michael).
rich(michael).
beautiful(cinderella).
```

```
?- sad(bill).
Yes
?- sad(cinderella).
Yes
```

```
?- sad(michael).
No
?- sad(jim).
Yes
?- sad(Someone).
No
```

- Isn't *anyone* sad?
- No, that just means that it's not true we can't find anyone happy.
 - In other words, there exists someone who *is* happy.

Tracing negation

- Let's look at how Prolog answers `sad(Someone)` .:

```
?- sad(Someone).
Call: (7) sad(_G283) ? creep
Call: (8) happy(_G283) ? creep
Call: (9) beautiful(_G283) ? creep
Exit: (9) beautiful(michael) ? creep
Call: (9) rich(michael) ? creep
Exit: (9) rich(michael) ? creep
Exit: (8) happy(michael) ? creep
Fail: (7) sad(_G283) ? creep
```

No

Set overlap

- Write a predicate `overlap(S1, S2)` that succeeds if lists `S1` and `S2` have a common element. Then write a predicate `disjoint(S1, S2)` that succeeds if `S1` and `S2` have no common element.

```
overlap(S1, S2) :- member(X, S1), member(X, S2).
disjoint(S1, S2) :- \+ overlap(S1, S2).
```

```
?- overlap([a,b,c], [c,d,e]).
Yes
?- disjoint([a,b,c], [c,d,e]).
No
?- overlap([a,b,c], [d,e,f]).
No
?- disjoint([a,b,c], [d,e,f]).
Yes
?- disjoint([a,b,d], S).
No
```

What does that mean?

```
?- disjoint([a,b,d], S).
No
```

- The query should mean "can you find a list `S` that is disjoint from the list `[a,b,d]` (and if so what is it)?".
- Obviously there are many such sets, so why "No"?
- Answer: because Prolog succeeded in finding a set that did overlap with `S`, so it announced failure of the original query.

```
?- overlap([a,b,d], S).
S = [a|_G226] ;
S = [_G225, a|_G229] ;
S = [_G225, _G228, a|_G232] ;
...
```

Safe use of negation

- The goal `not(G)` is *safe* if either:
 - `G` is fully instantiated when `not(G)` is processed, or
 - `G` has uninstantiated variables, but they don't appear anywhere else in the clause.
- Safe example:

```
childlessMan(X) :- male(X), \+ parent(X,Y).
```

 - `X` is instantiated in `male(X)`, and `Y` isn't used elsewhere.
- Unsafe example:

```
childlessMan(X) :- \+ parent(X,Y), male(X).
```

 - `X` is not instantiated before the negation, and is used elsewhere.
- If necessary, add a precondition to warn the programmer.
 - recall that `+Var` means that `Var` must be instantiated.

```
% disjoint(+S1, +S2) succeeds if...  
disjoint(S1, S2) :- \+ overlap(S1, S2).
```

 - When the precondition is satisfied, this negation is safe.

Double-negation doesn't "cancel out"

- In other languages, `not(not(<expression>))` is equivalent to `<expression>`.
 - But not in Prolog.

```
?- member(X, [a,b,c]).  
X = a ;  
X = b ;  
X = c ;  
No
```

```
?- not(not(member(X, [a,b,c]))).  
X = _G166 ;  
No
```

Double-negation doesn't "cancel out"

```
?- not(not(member(X, [a,b,c]))).  
X = _G166 ;  
No
```

- Why is `X` uninstantiated in this example?
 - Since `member(X, [a,b,c])` succeeds (by instantiating `X` to, say, `a`), `not(member(X, [a,b,c]))` fails.
 - When a goal fails, the variables it instantiated get uninstantiated. So `X` gets uninstantiated.
 - But since `not(member(X, [a,b,c]))` fails, `not(not(member(X, [a,b,c])))` succeeds.

fail

- The `fail` predicate fails immediately. Example:

```
p(X) :- fail.  
  
?- p(csc326).  
No
```

- We can use `fail` to state that something is false.

fail

- Example: We want to represent "Colbert does not like bears (regardless of whatever else he likes)."

– One solution: Add "not(bear(X))" to every rule describing what Colbert likes.
For example:

```
likes(colbert, X) :- animal(X), not(bear(X)).
likes(colbert, X) :- toy(X), not(bear(X)).
likes(colbert, X) :- livesInArctic(X), not(bear(X)).
```

...

– Let's try to use fail instead.

– First attempt:

```
bear(yogi).
animal(yogi).
likes(colbert, X) :- bear(X), fail.
likes(colbert, X) :- animal(X).
```

```
?- likes(colbert, yogi).
```

Yes

fail

- We need to add a cut to prevent other rules from being tried after the first rule reaches fail.

– Second attempt:

```
bear(yogi).
cat(tom).
animal(yogi).
animal(tom).
likes(colbert, X) :- bear(X), !, fail.
likes(colbert, X) :- animal(X).
```

```
?- likes(colbert, yogi).
```

No

```
?- likes(colbert, tom).
```

Yes

```
?- likes(colbert, X).
```

No

– Downside: This solution only works when X is instantiated.

fail

- Another example: Define a predicate different(X, Y) that succeeds if X and Y don't unify.

```
different(X, Y) :- X=Y, !, fail.
different(_, _).
```

```
?- different(a, b).
```

Yes

```
?- different(a, a).
```

No

- Notice that the above definition is equivalent to:

```
different(X, Y) :- not(X=Y).
```

Defining "not" using cut and fail

- We can define the not predicate as follows:

```
not(X) :- X, !, fail.
not(_).
```

- (To test this out, use a name other than "not", since Prolog won't let you redefine the built-in "not").

fail

- Recall the original version of `bstmem(Tree, X)`:

```
bstmem(node(X, _, _), X).
bstmem(node(K, L, _), X) :- X < K, bstmem(L, X).
bstmem(node(K, _, R), X) :- X > K, bstmem(R, X).
```

- Recall that this version was inefficient.

Inefficiency in `bstmem`

```
[trace] ?- bstmem(node(5, node(3,empty,empty), empty), 1).
  Call: (8) bstmem(node(5, node(3, empty, empty), empty), 1) ?
  creep
^ Call: (9) 1<5 ? creep
^ Exit: (9) 1<5 ? creep
  Call: (9) bstmem(node(3, empty, empty), 1) ? creep
^ Call: (10) 1<3 ? creep
^ Exit: (10) 1<3 ? creep
  Call: (10) bstmem(empty, 1) ? creep
  Fail: (10) bstmem(empty, 1) ? creep
  Redo: (9) bstmem(node(3, empty, empty), 1) ? creep
^ Call: (10) 1>3 ? creep
^ Fail: (10) 1>3 ? creep
  Redo: (8) bstmem(node(5, node(3, empty, empty), empty), 1) ?
  creep
^ Call: (9) 1>5 ? creep
^ Fail: (9) 1>5 ? creep
No
```

fail

- We solved the inefficiency illustrated on the previous slide as follows:

```
bstmem(node(X, _, _), X).
bstmem(node(K, L, _), X) :- X < K, !, bstmem(L, X).
bstmem(node(K, _, R), X) :- X > K, bstmem(R, X).
```

- What if we try to instead solve this inefficiency by using `fail`:

```
bstmem(empty,_) :- !, fail.
bstmem(node(X, _, _), X).
bstmem(node(K, L, _), X) :- X < K, bstmem(L, X).
bstmem(node(K, _, R), X) :- X > K, bstmem(R, X).
```

Tracing the new `bstmem`

```
[trace] ?- bstmem(node(5, node(3,empty,empty), empty), 1).
  Call: (8) bstmem(node(5, node(3, empty, empty), empty), 1) ? creep
^ Call: (9) 1<5 ? creep
^ Exit: (9) 1<5 ? creep
  Call: (9) bstmem(node(3, empty, empty), 1) ? creep
^ Call: (10) 1<3 ? creep
^ Exit: (10) 1<3 ? creep
  Call: (10) bstmem(empty, 1) ? creep
  Call: (11) fail ? creep
  Fail: (11) fail ? creep
  Fail: (10) bstmem(empty, 1) ? creep
  Redo: (9) bstmem(node(3, empty, empty), 1) ? creep
^ Call: (10) 1>3 ? creep
^ Fail: (10) 1>3 ? creep
  Redo: (8) bstmem(node(5, node(3, empty, empty), empty), 1) ? creep
^ Call: (9) 1>5 ? creep
^ Fail: (9) 1>5 ? creep
No
```

fail

- What went wrong?
 - `fail` only affects the present goal (`bstmem(empty, 1)` in the example).
 - It does not directly cause the failure of a previous goal (so, in the example, Prolog still looks for other rules for the goal `bstmem(node(3, empty, empty), 1)`).

Advice on writing Prolog

To minimize bugs, especially with `cut` and `not`:

- Use `cut` and `not` as necessary to avoid wrong answers.
- Follow the rules for safe use of `not`.
- Follow the rules for doing arithmetic.
- Always use `;` when testing to check all possible answers.
 - It's easy to get first answer right and rest wrong if `"else"` misused.
- Test with variables in every combination of positions.
- Use preconditions to state where variables are disallowed.
- Use `cut` to avoid duplicate answers.
- Use `cut` where possible for efficiency.
- Use `_` where possible for efficiency.

Summary: logic programming and Prolog

- Logic programming:
 - Unification, resolution, backtracking.
 - Specify kind of result wanted (*what* you want), not *how* to get it.
- Prolog:
 - The major logic programming language.
 - Efficiency can be a worry:
 - `cut`
 - ordering the predicates

Bubble sort

- Write a predicate `bsort(+Before, ?After)` that succeeds if `After` is a sorted version of `Before`. `bsort` should use bubble sort to sort the list.

```
bsort(Before, After) :- bsortaux(Before, [], After).
```

- Helper predicate `bsortaux(+Prelower, +Preupper, ?Sorted)` succeeds if `Sorted` is a list that consists of a sorted version of `Prelower` followed by (an unchanged) `Preupper`.

```
bsortaux([], Preupper, Preupper) :- !.  
bsortaux(Prelower, Preupper, Sorted) :-  
    bubble(Prelower, Preupper, Postlower, Postupper),  
    bsortaux(Postlower, Postupper, Sorted).
```

Bubble sort

- Helper predicate `bubble(+Prelower, +Preupper, ?Postlower, ?Postupper)` succeeds if performing one round of bubble sort on unsorted portion `Prelower` and sorted portion `Preupper` results in unsorted portion `Postlower` and sorted portion `Postupper`.

```
bubble([X, Y | Rest], Preupper, [X | Bubbled], Postupper) :-
    X =< Y,    % No swap needed.
    !,
    bubble([Y | Rest], Preupper, Bubbled, Postupper).

bubble([X, Y | Rest], Preupper, [Y | Bubbled], Postupper) :-
    bubble([X | Rest], Preupper, Bubbled, Postupper).

bubble([X], Preupper, [], [X|Preupper]) :- !.

bubble([], Preupper, [], Preupper). % not needed, we hope
```

Tracing bsort

```
[trace] ?- bsort([2,1], S).
Call: (7) bsort([2, 1], _G290) ? creep
Call: (8) bsortaux([2, 1], [], _G290) ? creep
Call: (9) bubble([2, 1], [], _L206, _L207) ? creep
^ Call: (10) 2=<1 ? creep
^ Fail: (10) 2=<1 ? creep
Redo: (9) bubble([2, 1], [], _L206, _L207) ? creep
Call: (10) bubble([2], [], _G346, _L207) ? creep
Exit: (10) bubble([2], [], [], [2]) ? creep
Exit: (9) bubble([2, 1], [], [1], [2]) ? creep
Call: (9) bsortaux([1], [2], _G290) ? creep
Call: (10) bubble([1], [2], _L245, _L246) ? creep
Exit: (10) bubble([1], [2], [], [1, 2]) ? creep
Call: (10) bsortaux([], [1, 2], _G290) ? creep
Exit: (10) bsortaux([], [1, 2], [1, 2]) ? creep
Exit: (9) bsortaux([1], [2], [1, 2]) ? creep
Exit: (8) bsortaux([2, 1], [], [1, 2]) ? creep
Exit: (7) bsort([2, 1], [1, 2]) ? creep

S = [1, 2]
```

Tracing bsort

```
[trace] ?- bsort([3,2,1], S).
Call: (7) bsort([3, 2, 1], _G293) ? creep
Call: (8) bsortaux([3, 2, 1], [], _G293) ? creep
Call: (9) bubble([3, 2, 1], [], _L206, _L207) ? creep
^ Call: (10) 3=<2 ? creep
^ Fail: (10) 3=<2 ? creep
Redo: (9) bubble([3, 2, 1], [], _L206, _L207) ? creep
Call: (10) bubble([3, 1], [], _G352, _L207) ? creep
^ Call: (11) 3=<1 ? creep
^ Fail: (11) 3=<1 ? creep
Redo: (10) bubble([3, 1], [], _G352, _L207) ? creep
Call: (11) bubble([3], [], _G358, _L207) ? creep
Exit: (11) bubble([3], [], [], [3]) ? creep
Exit: (10) bubble([3, 1], [], [1], [3]) ? creep
Exit: (9) bubble([3, 2, 1], [], [2, 1], [3]) ? creep
```

Tracing bsort

```
Call: (9) bsortaux([2, 1], [3], _G293) ? creep
Call: (10) bubble([2, 1], [3], _L266, _L267) ? creep
^ Call: (11) 2=<1 ? creep
^ Fail: (11) 2=<1 ? creep
Redo: (10) bubble([2, 1], [3], _L266, _L267) ? creep
Call: (11) bubble([2], [3], _G367, _L267) ? creep
Exit: (11) bubble([2], [3], [], [2, 3]) ? creep
Exit: (10) bubble([2, 1], [3], [1], [2, 3]) ? creep
Call: (10) bsortaux([1], [2, 3], _G293) ? creep
Call: (11) bubble([1], [2, 3], _L305, _L306) ? creep
Exit: (11) bubble([1], [2, 3], [], [1, 2, 3]) ? creep
Call: (11) bsortaux([], [1, 2, 3], _G293) ? creep
Exit: (11) bsortaux([], [1, 2, 3], [1, 2, 3]) ? creep
Exit: (10) bsortaux([1], [2, 3], [1, 2, 3]) ? creep
Exit: (9) bsortaux([2, 1], [3], [1, 2, 3]) ? creep
Exit: (8) bsortaux([3, 2, 1], [], [1, 2, 3]) ? creep
Exit: (7) bsort([3, 2, 1], [1, 2, 3]) ? creep

S = [1, 2, 3]
```


Exercises

- Fix the `sibling` predicate (that we previously defined) so that it doesn't consider a person to be their own sibling. Then make sure that this fix has eliminated any unusual behaviour in the `aunt`, `uncle`, `nephew`, and `niece` predicates that you defined in a previous set of exercises.
- Trace `bsort` on more interesting (and larger) examples. For example, trace the call:
`bsort([1,5,2,6,3,4], S)`.
- Challenge: Recall that the efficiency of bubble sort can be improved by halting after the first iteration during which no swaps are performed (we can halt at that point since if no swaps are performed, the list must be already sorted). Modify `bsort` by adding this improvement.