## Steps to a Recursive Predicate

#### 1 Predicate Form:

- Choose a predicate name appropriate for something that is true or false.
- Choose mnemonic argument names.
- 2. **Spec:** Write the specification in this form: *pred* succeeds iff ...

#### 3 Base Cases:

- When is it so easy to tell the predicate is true that you needn't check any further?
- Write these base case(s).

### 4. Recursive Cases:

- When it's not trivial, what do you need to know is true before you can be sure the predicate is true?
- This is the antecedent of your rule.
- There may be several non-trivial cases, each needing a rule.

35

## Lists in Prolog

Two ways to describe a list:

1. [ elements-with-commas ]

2. [ first | rest ] (rest must be a list)

Question: Why use the second form with |?

36

## **Unifying Lists**

```
?-[X, Y, Z] = [john, likes, fish].
```

?-[cat] = [X|Y].

?- [1,2] = [X|Y].

?- [a,b,c] = [X|Y].

?- [a,b|Z]=[X|Y].

?- [X,abc,Y]=[X,abc|Y].

?- [[the|Y]|Z] = [[X,hare] | [is,here]].

## Let's Write Some List Predicates

- 1. member(X, List).
- 2. append(List1, List2, Result).
- 3. swapFirstTwo(List1, List2).
- 4. length(List).

37

## List Membership

```
Definition of member...
?- member(a, [a, b]).
Yes
?- member(a,[b,c]).
No
?- member(X,[a,b,c]).
X=a;
X=b;
X=c ;
No
?-member(a,[c,b,X]).
X=a;
No
?- member(X,Y).
X = _G72, Y = [_G72|_G73];
X = _G74, Y = [_G72,_G74|_G75];
X = _{G76}, Y = [_{G72}, _{G74}, _{G76}|_{G77}];
Lazy evaluation of potentially infinite data structures
                                              30
```

#### Trace of Member

```
[trace] ?- member(c,[a,b,c,d]).
   Call: (7) lists:member(c, [a, b, c, d]) ? creep
   Call: (8) lists:member(c, [b, c, d]) ? creep
   Call: (9) lists:member(c, [c, d]) ? creep
   Exit: (9) lists:member(c, [c, d]) ? creep
   Exit: (8) lists:member(c, [b, c, d]) ? creep
   Exit: (7) lists:member(c, [a, b, c, d]) ? creep
Yes
```

40

## Append - More than "appending"

Definition of append

```
Build a list:

?- append([a],[b],Y).

Y=[a,b]

Yes

Break a list up:
?- append(X,[b],[a,b]).

X=[a]

Yes
?- append([a],Y,[a,b]).

Y=[b]
```

Yes

## Append (cont.)

```
?- append(X,Y,[a,b]).
        X=[],Y=[a,b]
        X=[a],Y=[b]
        X=[a,b],Y=[]
        No
Generate lists:
        ?- append(X,[b],Z).
        X=[],Z=[b];
        X = [\_G98], Z = [\_G98, b];
        X = [_G98,_G102], Z = [_G98,_G102,b];
Trace:
[trace] ?- append([a,b,c],[p,q,r],L).
 Call: (7) lists:append([a, b, c], [p, q, r], _G303) ? creep
Call: (8) lists:append([b, c], [p, q, r], _G426) ? creep
 Call: (9) lists:append([c], [p, q, r], _G429) ? creep
 Call: (10) lists:append([], [p, q, r], _G432) ? creep

Exit: (10) lists:append([], [p, q, r], [p, q, r]) ? creep

Exit: (9) lists:append([c], [p, q, r], [c, p, q, r]) ? creep

Exit: (8) lists:append([b, c], [p, q, r], [b, c, p, q, r]) ?
 Exit: (7) lists:append
       ([a, b, c], [p, q, r], [a, b, c, p, q, r])? creep
L = [a, b, c, p, q, r];
No
```

### Computing the Length of a List

Definition of length...

```
?- length([a,b,c],L).
L = 3
?- length([],L).
L = 0
?- length(X,3).
X = [_G66,_G68,_G70]
?- length(X,0).
X = []
```

NOTE: Use built-in length function!!

## **Trace of Length:**

Observe why this doesn't work!

```
xlength([],0).
xlength([_|Y],N) :- xlength(Y,N-1).

[trace] ?- xlength([a,b,c,d],X).
    Call: (7) xlength([a, b, c, d], _G296) ? creep
    Call: (8) xlength([b, c, d], _G296-1) ? creep
    Call: (9) xlength([c, d], _G296-1-1) ? creep
    Call: (10) xlength([d], _G296-1-1-1) ? creep
    Call: (11) xlength([], _G296-1-1-1) ? creep
    Fail: (11) xlength([], _G296-1-1-1) ? creep
    Fail: (10) xlength([d], _G296-1-1-1) ? creep
    Fail: (9) xlength([c, d], _G296-1-1) ? creep
    Fail: (8) xlength([b, c, d], _G296-1) ? creep
    Fail: (7) xlength([a, b, c, d], _G296) ? creep
No
```

44

## Trace of Length (cont)

But this does work

```
mylength([],0).
mylength([_|Y],N) := mylength2(Y,M), N is M+1.
[trace] ?- mylength([a,b,c,d],X).
   Call: (7) mylength([a, b, c, d], _G296) ? creep
   Call: (8) mylength([b, c, d], _L206) ? creep
   Call: (9) mylength([c, d], _L225) ? creep
   Call: (10) mylength([d], _L244) ? creep
   Call: (11) mylength([], _L263) ? creep
   Exit: (11) mylength([], 0) ? creep
^ Call: (11) _L244 is 0+1 ? creep
^ Exit: (11) 1 is 0+1 ? creep
  Exit: (10) mylength([d], 1) ? creep
  Call: (10) _L225 is 1+1 ? creep
^ Exit: (10) 2 is 1+1 ? creep
  Exit: (9) mylength([c, d], 2) ? creep
  Call: (9) _L206 is 2+1 ? creep
  Exit: (9) 3 is 2+1 ? creep
  Exit: (8) mylength([b, c, d], 3) ? creep
^ Call: (8) _G296 is 3+1 ? creep
^ Exit: (8) 4 is 3+1 ? creep
  Exit: (7) mylength([a, b, c, d], 4) ? creep
Yes
```

# Accessing More Than One Initial Element

Definition of swap\_first\_two...

```
?- swap_first_two([a,b], [b,a]).
Yes
?- swap_first_two([a,b], [b,c]).
No
?- swap_first_two([a,b,c], [b,a,c]).
Yes
?- swap_first_two([a,b,c], [b,a,d]).
?- swap_first_two([a,b,c], X).
X = [b,a,c];
No
?- swap_first_two([a,b|Y], X).
Y = _56, X = [b,al_56];
Nο
?- swap_first_two([],X).
No
?- swap_first_two([a],X).
?- swap_first_two([a,b],X).
X = [b,a];
No
```

43

## Lists of a Specified Length

#### Definition of list\_of\_elem...

## Lists of a Specified Length

New definition of list\_of\_elem...

```
?- list_elem(X,b,3).
X = [b,b,b];
ERROR: Out of global stack
?- list_of_elem(X,Y,2).
X = [_50,_50]
Y = _50;
ERROR: Out of global stack
```

```
?- working_list_elem(X,b,3).
X = [b,b,b];
No
?- working_list_elem(X,Y,2).
X = [_50,_50]
Y = _50;
No
```

47

48

## **Beyond Horn Logic**

- So far, we have studied what is known as *pure* logic programming, in which all the rules are Horn.
- For some applications, however, we need to go beyond this.
- For instance, we often need
  - Arithmetic
  - Negation
- Fortunately, these can easily be accomodated by simple extensions to the logicprogramming framework,

## **Arithmetic in Prolog**

What is the result of these queries:

?- 
$$X = 97-65$$
,  $Y = 32-0$ ,  $X = Y$ .  
?-  $X = 97-65$ ,  $Y = 67$ ,  $Z = 95-Y$ ,  $X = Z$ .

To get an expression evaluated, use X is expression where expression

- is an arithmetic expression, and
- is fully instantiated.

#### Examples:

```
?- X is 10+17.
?- Y is 7, Z is 3+4, Y=Z.
```

# Let's Write Some Predicates with Arithmetic

- 1. factorial(N, Ans).
- 2. sumlist(List, Total).

#### **Factorial**

What are the preconditions for factorial?

#### Factorial with an Accumulator:

```
factorial2(0,X,X).

factorial2(N,A,F) :-
    N > 0,
    A1 is N*A,
    N1 is N -1,
    factorial2(N1,A1,F).
```

What are the preconditions?

vvnat are the preconditions:

# 51

#### 52

#### Trace of Factorial

```
[trace] ?- factorial(3,X).
  Call: (7) factorial(3, \_G284) ? creep
  Call: (8) _L205 is 3-1 ? creep
Exit: (8) 2 is 3-1 ? creep
  Call: (8) factorial(2, _L206) ? creep
  Call: (9) _L224 is 2-1 ? creep
  Exit: (9) 1 is 2-1 ? creep
  Call: (9) factorial(1, _L225) ? creep
  Call: (10) _L243 is 1-1 ? creep
Exit: (10) 0 is 1-1 ? creep
  Call: (10) factorial(0, _L244) ? creep
  Exit: (10) factorial(0, 1) ? creep
  Call: (10) _L225 is 1*1 ? creep
Exit: (10) 1 is 1*1 ? creep
  Exit: (9) factorial(1, 1)? creep
  Call: (9) _L206 is 1*2 ? creep
  Exit: (9) 2 is 1*2 ? creep
  Exit: (8) factorial(2, 2)? creep
  Call: (8) _G284 is 2*3 ? creep
  Exit: (8) 6 is 2*3 ? creep
  Exit: (7) factorial(3, 6) ? creep
X = 6
Yes
```

# Trace of Factorial w/ an Accumulator

```
[trace] ?- factorial2(3,1,Z).
   Call: (8) factorial2(3, 1, _G288) ? creep
   Call: (9) 3>0 ? creep
^ Exit: (9) 3>0 ? creep
^ Call: (9) _L206 is 3*1 ? creep
^ Exit: (9) 3 is 3*1 ? creep
^ Call: (9) _L207 is 3-1 ? creep
^ Exit: (9) 2 is 3-1 ? creep
   Call: (9) factorial2(2, 3, _G288) ? creep
^ Call: (10) 2>0 ? creep
^ Exit: (10) 2>0 ? creep
^ Call: (10) _L226 is 2*3 ? creep
^ Exit: (10) 6 is 2*3 ? creep
^ Call: (10) _L227 is 2-1 ? creep
  Exit: (10) 1 is 2-1 ? creep
   Call: (10) factorial2(1, 6, _G288) ? creep
  Call: (11) 1>0 ? creep
^ Exit: (11) 1>0 ? creep
^ Call: (11) _L246 is 1*6 ? creep
^ Exit: (11) 6 is 1*6 ? creep
  Call: (11) _L247 is 1-1 ? creep
^ Exit: (11) 0 is 1-1 ? creep
   Call: (11) factorial2(0, 6, _G288) ? creep
   Exit: (11) factorial2(0, 6, 6) ? creep
   Exit: (10) factorial2(1, 6, 6) ? creep
   Exit: (9) factorial2(2, 3, 6) ? creep
   Exit: (8) factorial2(3, 1, 6) ? creep
Yes
```

53

#### Sum of List

```
sumlist([],0).
```

#### Trace:

```
[trace] ?- sumlist([5,10,3],Y).
  Call: (7) sumlist([5, 10, 3], _G293) ? creep
   Call: (8) sumlist([10, 3], _L207) ? creep
  Call: (9) sumlist([3], _L227) ? creep
  Call: (10) sumlist([], _L247) ? creep
  Exit: (10) sumlist([], 0) ? creep
  Call: (10) _L227 is 0+3 ? creep
Exit: (10) 3 is 0+3 ? creep
  Exit: (9) sumlist([3], 3) ? creep
  Call: (9) _L207 is 3+10 ? creep
^ Exit: (9) 13 is 3+10 ? creep
  Exit: (8) sumlist([10, 3], 13) ? creep
  Call: (8) _G293 is 13+5 ? creep
  Exit: (8) 18 is 13+5 ? creep
  Exit: (7) sumlist([5, 10, 3], 18) ? creep
Y = 18
```

Yes

55

# Arithmetic Predicates may not be Invertible

We may not be able to "invert" a predicate that involves arithmetic.

That is, we may not be able to put a variable in a different place.

**Tip:** Every time you write is, you must be sure the expression will be fully instantiated. If necessary, put a precondition on your predicate.

56

#### Negation as Failure

No equivalent of logical not in Prolog:

- Prolog can only assert that something is true.
- Prolog cannot assert that something is false.
- Prolog can assert that the given facts and rules do not allow something to be proven true.

### Negation as Failure

Assuming that something unprovable is false is called **negation as failure**.

(Based on a closed world assumption.)

The goal  $\backslash +(G)$  succeeds whenever the goal G fails.

```
?- member(b,[a,b,c]).
Yes
?- \+(member(b,[a,b,c])).
No
?- \+(member(b,[a,c])).
yes
```

#### **Example: Disjoint Sets**

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

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

?- overlap([a,b,c],[c,d,e]).

Yes
?- overlap([a,b,c],[d,e,f]).
No
?- disjoint([a,b,c],[c,d,e]).
No
?- disjoint([a,b,c],[d,e,f]).
Yes
?- disjoint([a,b,c],X).
No %<-----Not what we wanted
```

59

#### Proper use of Negation as Failure

 $\backslash +(G)$  works properly only in the following cases:

1. When G is fully instantiated at the time prolog processes the goal  $\backslash +(G)$ .

(In this case,  $\backslash +(G)$  is interpreted to mean "goal G does not succeed".)

When all variables in G are unique to G, i.e., they don't appear elsewhere in the same clause.

(In this case,  $\backslash +(G(X))$  is interpreted to mean "There is no value of X that will make G(X) succeed".)

#### **Example: Disjoint Sets (cont.)**

Νo

60

### Safety

Consider the following rule:

(\*) hates(tom,X):- not loves(tom,X).

This may NOT be what we want, for several reasons:

The answer is *infinite*, since for any person p not mentioned in the database, we cannot infer loves(tom,p), so we must infer hates(tom,p).

Rule (\*) is therefore said to be unsafe.

The rule does not require X to be a person.
 e.g., since we cannot infer

```
loves(tom,hammer)
loves(tom,verbs)
loves(tom,green)
loves(tom,abc)
```

we must infer that tom hates all these things.

## Safety (Cont'd)

To avoid these problems, rules with negation should be guarded:

```
\label{eq:hates} \begin{array}{ll} \text{hates(tom,X)} & :- \text{ vegetable(x), green(X),} \\ & \text{not loves(tom,X).} \end{array}
```

 $\it i.e.$ , Tom hates every green vegetable that he does not love.

Here, vegetable and green are called guard literals. They guard against safety problems by binding  ${\tt X}$  to specific values in the database.