

Logic Programming (PLP 11, CTM 9.3)

Prolog Imperative Control Flow:
Backtracking, Cut, Fail, Not
Lists, Append

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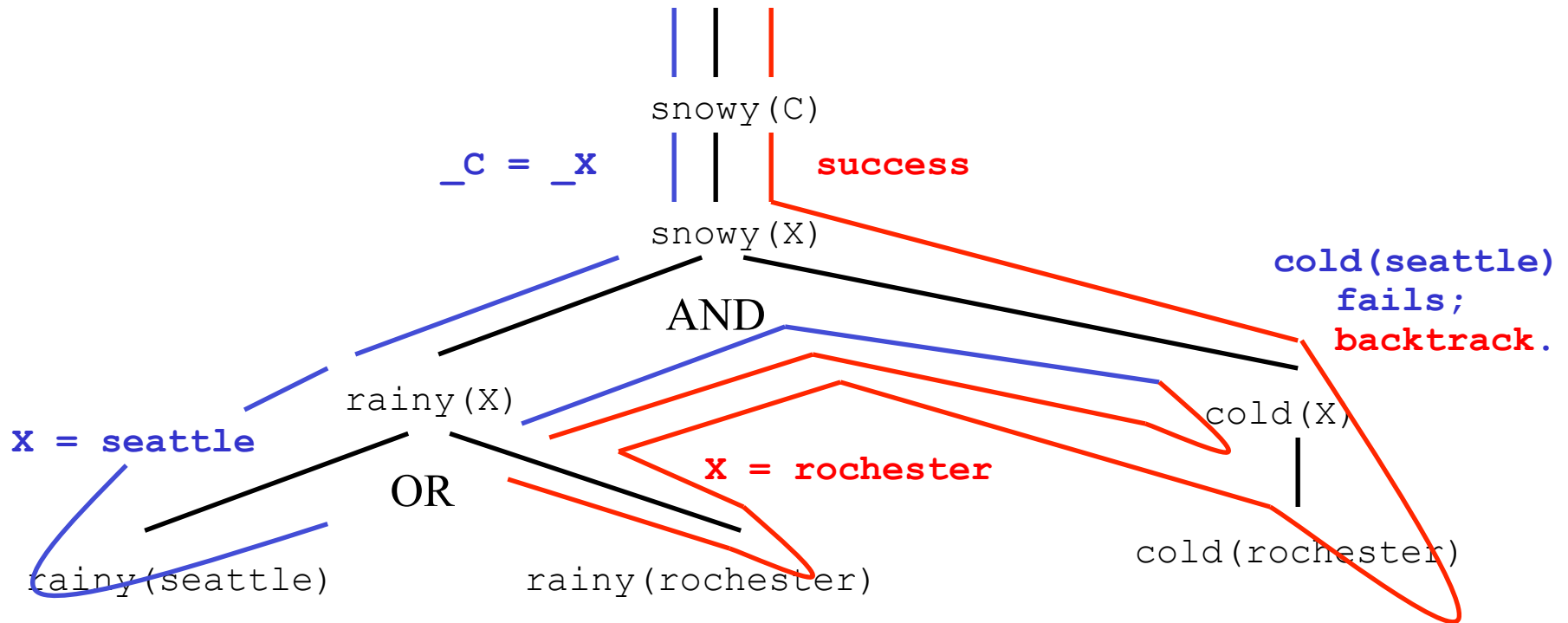
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Backtracking

- *Forward chaining* goes from axioms forward into goals.
- *Backward chaining* starts from goals and works backwards to prove them with existing axioms.

Backtracking example

```
rainy(seattle).  
rainy(rochester).  
cold(rochester).  
snowy(X) :- rainy(X), cold(X).
```



Imperative Control Flow

- Programmer has *explicit control* on backtracking process.

Cut (!)

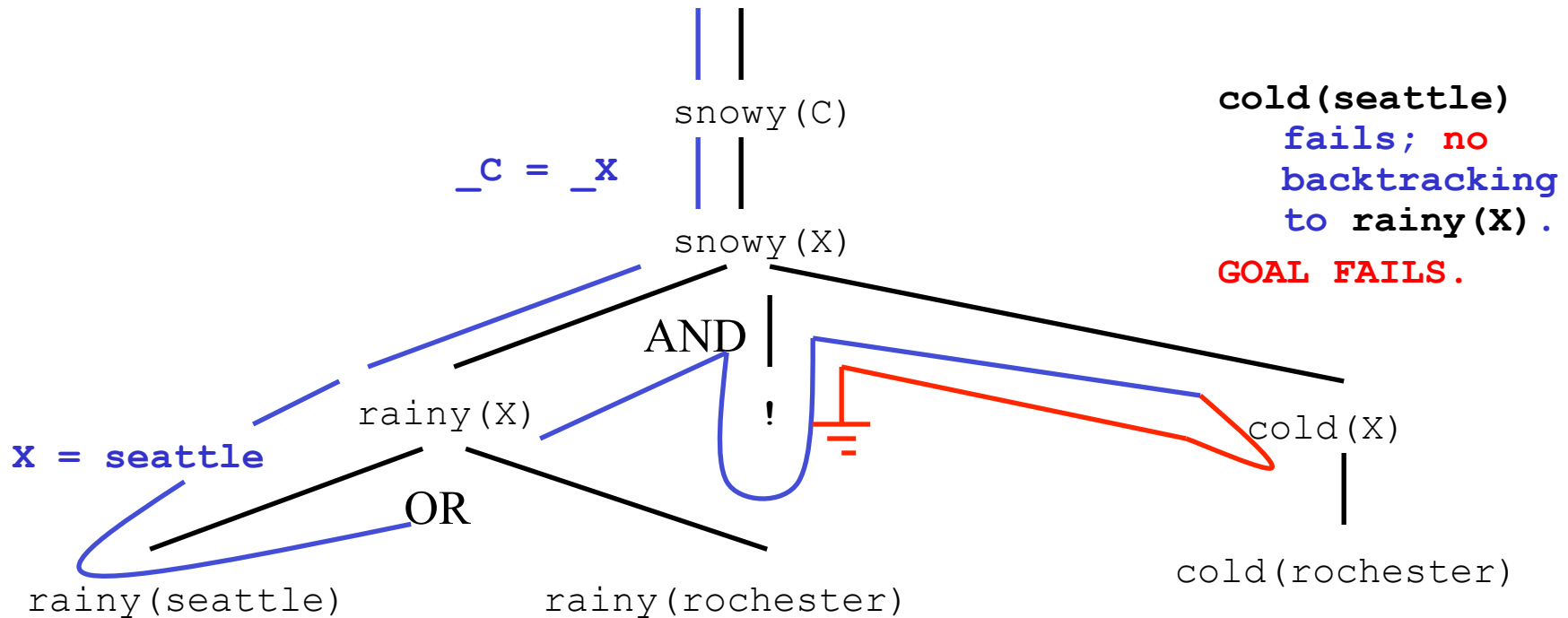
- As a goal it succeeds, but with a side effect:
 - Commits interpreter to choices made since unifying parent goal with left-hand side of current rule. Choices include variable unifications and rule to satisfy the parent goal.

Cut (!) Example

```
rainy(seattle).  
rainy(rochester).  
cold(rochester).  
snowy(X) :- rainy(X), !, cold(X).
```

Cut (!) Example

```
rainy(seattle).  
rainy(rochester).  
cold(rochester).  
snowy(X) :- rainy(X), !, cold(X).
```



Cut (!) Example 2

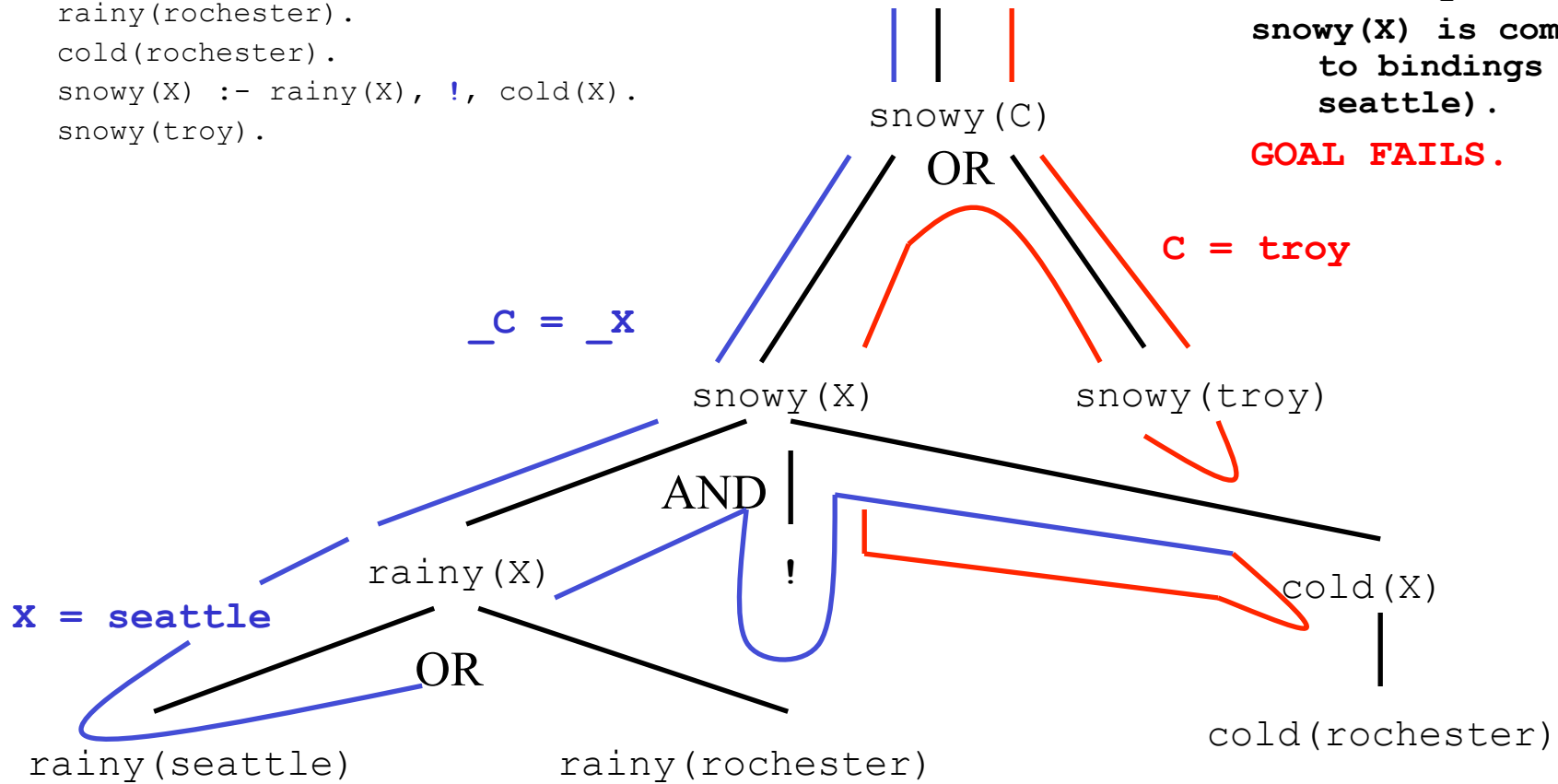
```
rainy(seattle).  
rainy(rochester).  
cold(rochester).  
snowy(X) :- rainy(X), !, cold(X).  
snowy(troy).
```

Cut (!) Example 2

```

rainy(seattle).
rainy(rochester).
cold(rochester).
snowy(X) :- rainy(X), !, cold(X).
snowy(troy).
    
```

C = troy FAILS
snowy(X) is committed
to bindings (X =
seattle).
GOAL FAILS.



Cut (!) Example 3

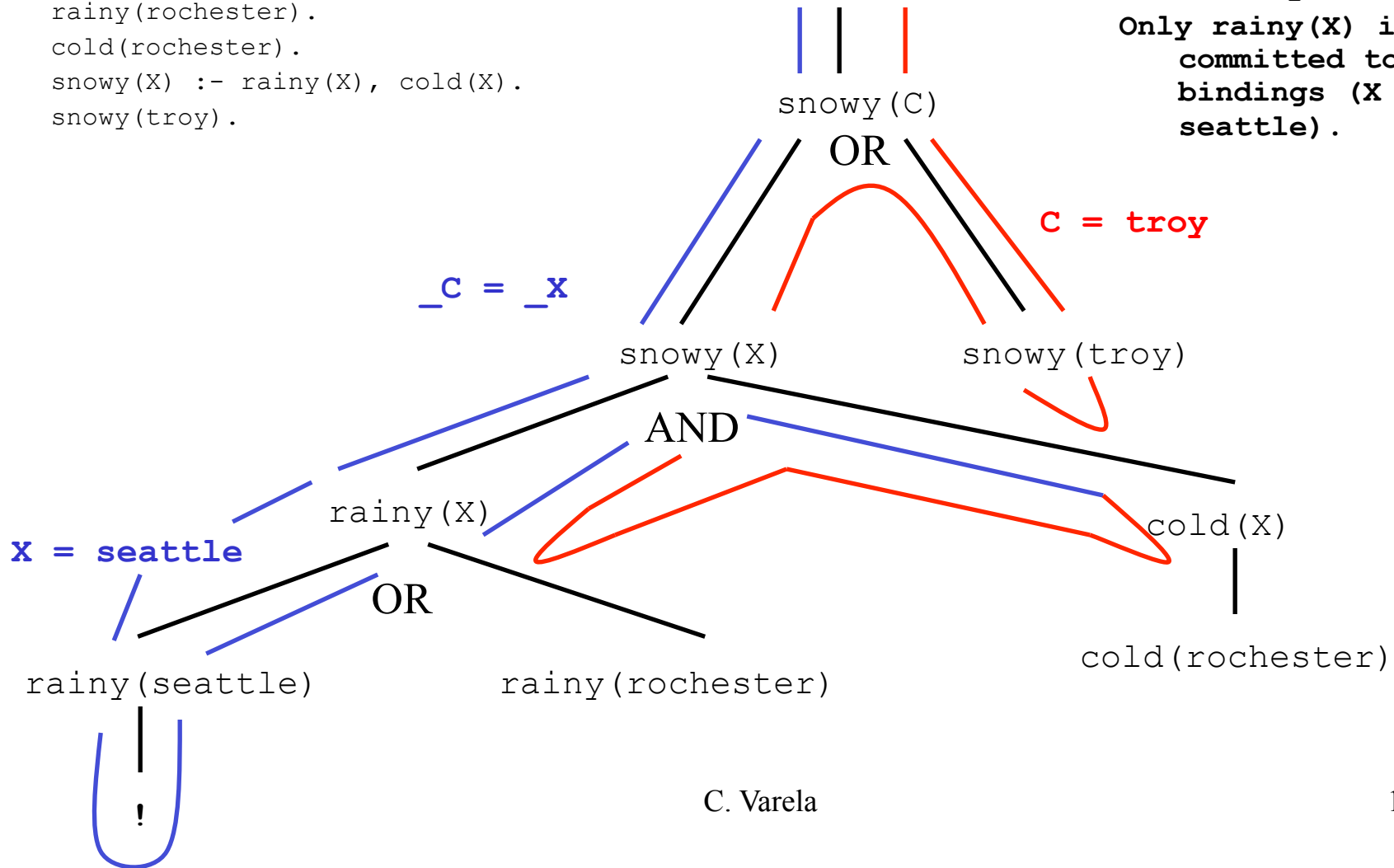
```
rainy(seattle) :- !.  
rainy(rochester).  
cold(rochester).  
snowy(X) :- rainy(X), cold(X).  
snowy(troy).
```

Cut (!) Example 3

```

rainy(seattle) :- !.
rainy(rochester).
cold(rochester).
snowy(X) :- rainy(X), cold(X).
snowy(troy).
    
```

C = troy SUCCEEDS
 Only rainy(X) is committed to bindings (X = seattle).

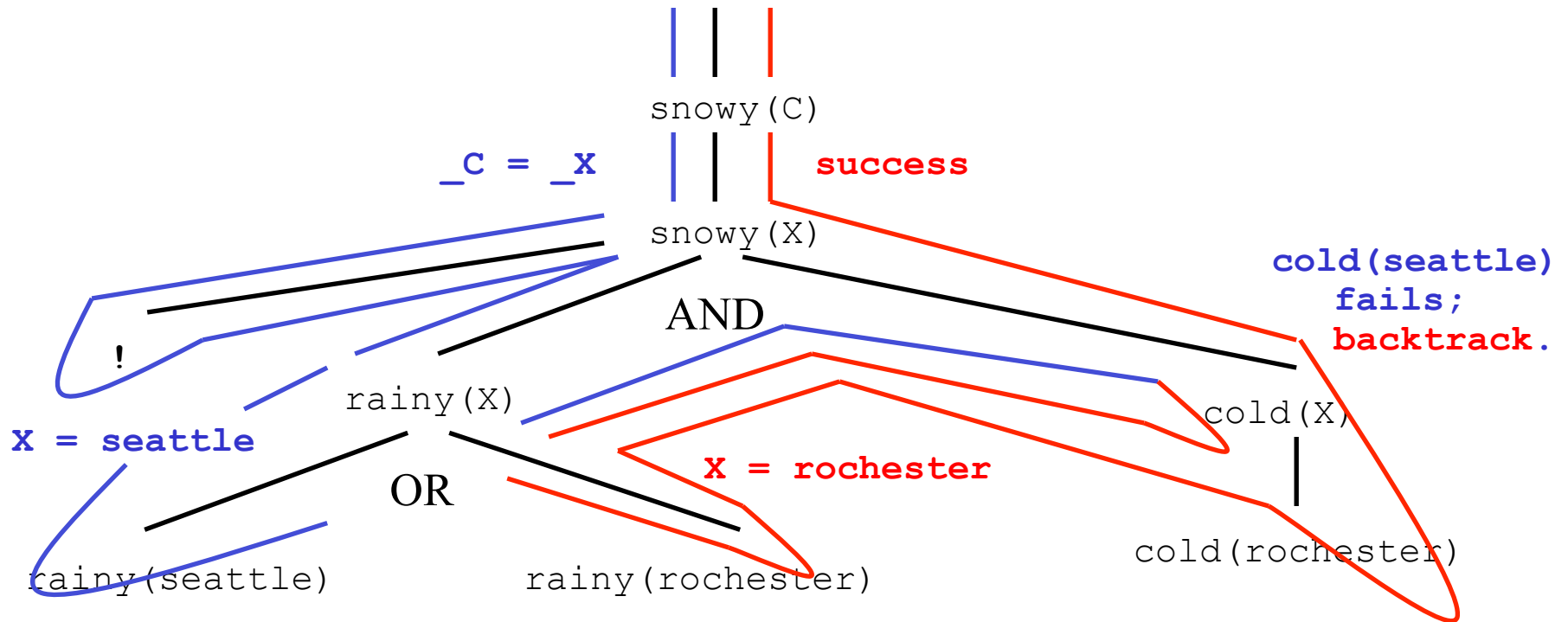


Cut (!) Example 4

```
rainy(seattle).  
rainy(rochester).  
cold(rochester).  
snowy(X) :- !, rainy(X), cold(X).
```

Cut (!) Example 4

```
rainy(seattle).  
rainy(rochester).  
cold(rochester).  
snowy(X) :- !, rainy(X), cold(X).
```

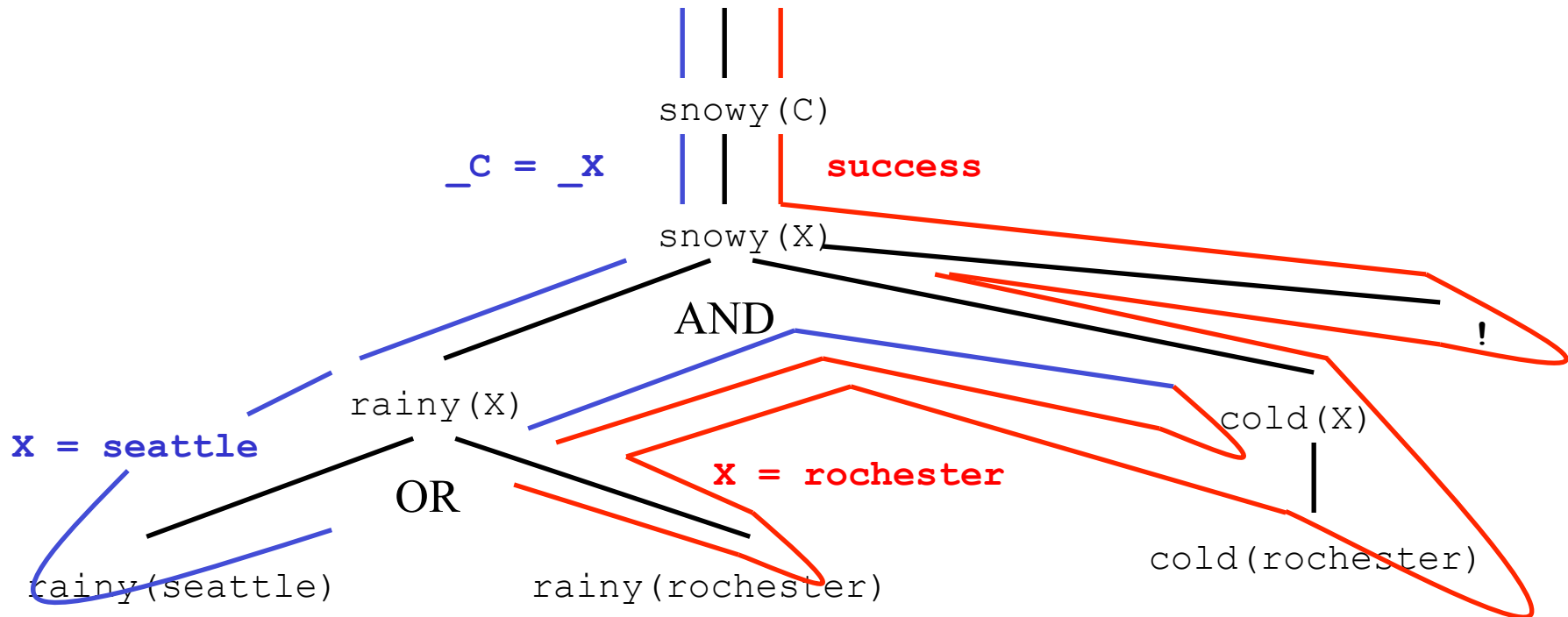


Cut (!) Example 5

```
rainy(seattle).  
rainy(rochester).  
cold(rochester).  
snowy(X) :- rainy(X), cold(X), !.
```

Cut (!) Example 5

```
rainy(seattle).  
rainy(rochester).  
cold(rochester).  
snowy(X) :- rainy(X), cold(X), !.
```



First-Class Terms

<code>call (P)</code>	Invoke predicate as a goal.
<code>assert (P)</code>	Adds predicate to database.
<code>retract (P)</code>	Removes predicate from database.
<code>functor (T, F, A)</code>	Succeeds if T is a <i>term</i> with <i>functor</i> F and <i>arity</i> A.
<code>findall (F, P, L)</code>	Returns a list L with elements F satisfying predicate P

not P is not $\neg P$

- In Prolog, the database of facts and rules includes a list of things assumed to be **true**.
- It does not include anything assumed to be **false**.
- Unless our database contains everything that is **true** (the *closed-world assumption*), the goal `not P` (or `\+ P` in some Prolog implementations) can succeed simply because our current knowledge is insufficient to prove `P`.

More not vs \neg

```
?- snowy(X) .  
X = rochester  
?- not(snowy(X)) .  
no
```

Prolog does not reply: **X = seattle.**

The meaning of `not(snowy(X))` is:

$\neg \exists X [\text{snowy}(X)]$

rather than:

$\exists X [\neg \text{snowy}(X)]$

Fail, true, repeat

<code>fail</code>	Fails current goal.
<code>true</code>	Always succeeds.
<code>repeat</code>	Always succeeds, provides infinite choice points.

`repeat.`

`repeat :- repeat.`

not Semantics

```
not(P) :- call(P), !, fail.  
not(P).
```

Definition of `not` in terms of failure (`fail`) means that variable bindings are lost whenever `not` succeeds, e.g.:

```
?- not(not(snowy(X))).  
X=_G147
```

Conditionals and Loops

```
statement :- condition, !, then.  
statement :- else.
```

```
natural(1).  
natural(N) :- natural(M), N is M+1.  
my_loop(N) :- N>0,  
              natural(I),  
              write(I), nl,  
              I=N,  
              !, fail.
```

Also called *generate-and-test*.

Prolog lists

- `[a, b, c]` is syntactic sugar for:

`.(a, .(b, .(c, [])))`

where `[]` is the empty list, and `.` is a built-in cons-like functor.

- `[a, b, c]` can also be expressed as:

`[a | [b, c]]` , or

`[a, b | [c]]` , or

`[a, b, c | []]`

Prolog lists append example

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

Oz lists (Review)

- `[a b c]` is syntactic sugar for:

`'|' (a '|' (b '|' (c nil)))`

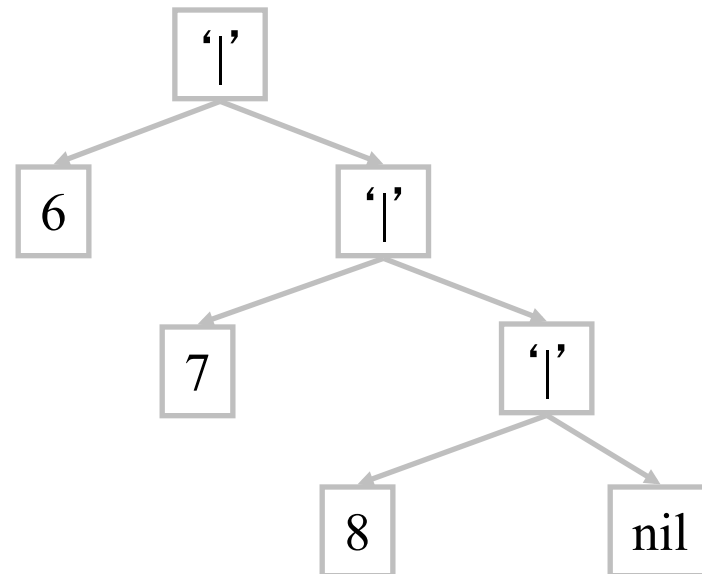
where `nil` is the empty list, and `'|'` is the tuple's functor.

- A list has two components:
a head, and a tail

`declare L = [6 7 8]`

L.1 gives 6

L.2 give [7 8]



Oz lists append example

```
proc {Append Xs Ys Zs}
  choice Xs = nil Zs = Ys
  [] X Xr Zr in
    Xs=X|Xr
    Zs=X|Zr
    {Append Xr Ys Zr}
  end
end
```

```
% new search query
proc {P S}
  X Y in
    {Append X Y [1 2 3]} S=X#Y
  end

% new search engine
E = {New Search.object script(P)}

% calculate and display one at a time
{Browse {E next($)}}

% calculate all
{Browse {Search.base.all P}}
```


Exercises

79. What do the following Prolog queries do?

```
?- repeat.
```

```
?- repeat, true.
```

```
?- repeat, fail.
```

Corroborate your thinking with a Prolog interpreter.

80. Draw the search tree for the query “`not(not(snowy(City)))`”. When are variables bound/unbound in the search/backtracking process?
81. PLP Exercise 11.7 (pg 571).
82. Write the students example in Oz (including the `has_taken(Student, Course)` inference).