Programming Paradigms

Unit 8 — Prolog Structures and Lists

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Outline

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Structures/1

- If we want to say that Wallace and Wendolene own books, we could formulate the following facts

```
owns(wallace, book).
owns(wendolene, book).
```

- However, this means that Wallace owns the same object that Wendolene owns
- Specifying the title to distinguish may not help:

```
owns(wallace, perfume).
owns(wendolene, russell_the_sheep).
```

- It's not clear that we are talking about books here
- This can be solved by introducing a structure for books

Structures/2

- A structure in Prolog is a single object which consists of a collection of other objects, called components
- A structure can be decomposed into
  - a functor and
  - one or more components
- The functor names the general kind of structure, and corresponds to a data type in other langues
- Using a structure for books, we have

```
owns(wallace, book(perfume,suesskind)).
owns(wendolene, book(russell_the_sheep,scotton)).
```

- Looking at `book(perfume,suesskind)`
  - `book` is the functor of the structure
  - `perfume` and `suesskind` are its components

Nested Structures

- Structures can be nested (arbitrarily deep)
- Since there were three Brontë writers, we might want to present the author in more detail with another structure `author`, e.g.,

```
owns(gromit, book(wuthering_heights, author(emily,bronte))).
```

- Prolog allows you to create arbitrarily complex structures to represent information/knowledge
- We could improve the book structure by adding an additional argument to represent *which copy* the book was
  - e.g., the third argument uniquely identifies the book

```
owns(gromit, book(wuthering_heights, author(emily,bronte), 3129)).
```

Querying Structures

- Structures my participate in query processing by usin variables
- Structures are matched similar to facts
- For example, if we want to know if Gromit owns any books written by one of the Brontë sisters, we would query

```
?- owns(gromit,book(X,author(Y,bronte))).
X = wuthering_heights
Y = emily
```

Structures and Facts

- The syntax for structures and facts is identical
  - A predicate (used in facts and rules) is actually the functor of a structure
  - The arguments of a fact or rule are components of a structure
- So, Prolog programs are essentially structures, which has several advantages.
- All parts of Prolog, even Prolog programs themselves, are made up of constants, variables and structures.

Outline

Equality and Matching

- Prolog has a number of built-in predicates
- One of them is equality written as "="
- The expression $X = Y$ attempts to match `X` and `Y`
  - i.e., tries to make `X` and `Y` equal
- The goal succeeds if `X` and `Y` match; otherwise it fails
- Following Prolog syntax, it should be written as `=(X,Y)`
  - While this works, Prolog also allows you to use an infix notation: `X = Y`

Equality and Matching of Atoms and Numbers

- Integers and atoms are always equal to themselves

```
?- wallace = wallace.
yes
?- cheese = cake.
no
?- 1066 = 1066.
yes
?- 1206 = 1583.
no
```

Equality and Matching of Variables/1

- A variable always matches itself, i.e., `X = X` always succeeds

```
?- X = X.
yes
```

- If we match two different variables, i.e., `X = Y`, we have to distinguish three cases
- Case 1: none of the variables is instantiated
  - The goal always succeeds

```
?- X = Y.
X = Y
yes
```

Equality and Matching of Variables/2

- Case 2: one of the two variables (say `Y`) is instantiated
  - Goal succeeds, and `X` is instantiated with the value of `Y`

```
?- X = gromit.
X = gromit.
?- X = likes(wallace,toast).
X = likes(wallace,toast).
?- X = Y, likes(X,toast).
X = wallace.
Y = wallace.
```

Knowledge base

```
likes(wallace, toast).
likes(wallace, cheese).
likes(gromit, cheese).
likes(gromit, cake).
likes(wendolene, sheep).
```

Equality and Matching of Variables/3

- Case 3: both variables are already instantiated
  - The values the two variables are instantiated with are compared
  - Might require the comparison of structures

Knowledge base

```
likes(wallace, toast).
likes(wallace, cheese).
likes(gromit, cheese).
likes(gromit, cake).
likes(wendolene, sheep).
```

```
?- likes(X,cheese), likes(Y,cake), X = Y.
X = gromit
Y = gromit
```

```
?- likes(X,toast), likes(Y,cake), X = Y.
no
```

Equality and Matching of Structures

- Two structures are equal if
  - they have the same functor and number of components and
  - all the corresponding components are equal

```
?- likes(gromit,cheese) = likes(gromit,X).
X = cheese

?- f(a,g(a,b)) = f(X,g(Y,Z)).
X = Y, Y = a,
Z = b.

?- a(b,C,d(e,F,g(h,i,J))) = a(B,c,d(E,f,g(H,i,j)))
B = b
C = c
E = e
F = f
H = h
J = j

?- letter(c) = word(c).
no.
```

Comparison and Matching

- Prolog also offers other built-in comparison operators

```
?- 2 > 3.
no
?- 3 >= 2.
yes
?- 3 =< 2.
no
?- X \= Y.
no
```

- The \= operator means that X cannot be made equal to Y
  - not(X=Y) could also be used

Arithmetic

- Prolog also offers the standard arithmetic operators: +, −, ∗, /, mod,
- Just typing in an arithmetic operation will not actually carry it out

```
?- 3 + 4.
ERROR: toplevel:  Undefined procedure:  (+)/2 ...

?- X = 3 + 4.
X = 3 + 4.

?- 7 = 3 + 4.
no
```

- Using the `is` operator will evaluate the right-hand side and match it to the left-hand side

```
?- 7 is 3 + 4.
yes

?- X is 3 + 4.
X = 7.
```

Arithmetic Example/1

- Given the following fact base, compute the population density of countries

```
pop(usa,313).
pop(italy,61).
pop(uk,63).
area(usa,9.826).
area(italy,0.301).
area(uk,0.243).
```

- The following rule computes the density

```
density(X,Y) :- pop(X,P),
                 area(X,A),
                 Y is P/A.
```

- This rule is read as follows:
  - The population density of country X is Y, if:
    - The population of X is P, and
    - The area of X is A, and
    - Y is calculated by dividing P by A.

Arithmetic Example/2

- Compute population density of USA

```
?- density(usa,Y).
Y = 31.854264197028289
yes
```

- Compute all densities

```
?- density(X,Y).
X = usa
Y = 31.854264197028289 ?  ;

X = italy
Y = 202.65780730897012 ?  ;

X = uk
Y = 259.25925925925924.
```

Outline

Lists/1

- We have already seen structures as a construct to build more complicated data types
- Another important type supported by Prolog is a list
- The elements of a list are enclosed in square brackets []

```
?- [1,2,3] = [1,2,3].
yes
?- [1,2,3] = [X,Y,Z].
X = 1,
Y = 2,
Z = 3.
```

- Lists are matched similar to structures

Lists/2

- The elements of a list can be any terms – constants, variables, structures, lists
- ... and they can be mixed
- Examples of valid lists are
  - `[]`
  - `[2,3,5,a,b]`
  - `[the,cat,sat,[on,the,mat]]`
  - `[a,V,b,[X,Y]]`
  - `[the,book([programming,in,prolog]),by,authors(C,M)]`

Internal Representation of Lists

- Internally, lists are represented as compound terms using
  - the functor "."/2 (dot, list constructor), where the first argument is the first element and the second argument is the rest of the list, and
  - the atom [] representing the empty list, which is the second argument on the innermost level.
- For example, the list

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

  corresponds to the compound term

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

- So, [1,2,3] is just a more convenient notation for an important structure
- We can verify this in Prolog:

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

- In SWI Prolog v7, the functor "." has been replaced by the functor "[|]"

Splitting Lists in Head and Tail/1

- We can split lists into a head and tail using the "|" operator
  - Head is the first element of the list
  - Tail is the (possibly empty) rest of the list, and it is a list

```
?- [Head|Tail] = [1,2,3].
Head = 1,
Tail = [2,3].

?- [Head|Tail] = [].
no.

?- [Head|Tail] = [1].
Head = 1,
Tail = [].
```

Splitting Lists in Head and Tail/2

- Some more examples

```
?- [H|T] = [[the,cat],sat].
H = [the,cat],
T = [sat].

?- [H|T] = [the,[cat,sat],down].
H = the,
T = [[cat,sat],down].

?- [H|T] = [X+Y,x+y].
H = X+Y,
T = [x+y].
```

Lists and Recursion/1

- Let's assume we want to find out if an element is part of a list
  - Prolog has the built-in predicate `member(X,Y)`, but define our own predicate
- We have to do this recursively in Prolog
  - There are no loops like in other programming languages
- Recursion in Prolog means that a predicate appears on the left- and the right-hand side of a rule
- For example, *an element is in a list* if it is
  - *the head* of the list or
  - *in the tail* of the list

```
is_in(X,[H|_]) :- X = H.
is_in(X,[_|T]) :- is_in(X,T).

?- is_in(d,[a,b,c,d,e,f]).
true
```

Lists and Recursion/2

- Step-by-step execution of the goal on the previous slide

```
is_in(X,[H|_]) :- X = H.
is_in(X,[_|T]) :- is_in(X,T).

?- is_in(d,[a,b,c,d,e,f]).
true
```

(Recursive) call	Rule 1	Rule 2
`is_in(d,[a,b,c,d,e,f])`	`X = d, H = a --> false`	`X = d, T = [b,c,d,e,f]`
`is_in(d,[b,c,d,e,f])`	`X = d, H = b --> false`	`X = d, T = [c,d,e,f]`
`is_in(d,[c,d,e,f])`	`X = d, H = c --> false`	`X = d, T = [d,e,f]`
`is_in(d,[d,e,f])`	`X = d, H = d --> true`	

Lists and Recursion/3

- Does the is_in predicate cover all cases?
- Having a closer look at the recursion, we observe that there are actually two base cases for the is_in predicate
  - Base case 1: element X is the head of the list (first predicate)
  - Base case 2: element X is not in the list, then the list is empty
- However, the second base case need not to be implemented, as none of the two predicates matches an empty list as second parameter
- However, we could add the following clause for the second base case

```
is_in(X,L) :- L = [], fail.
```

  - Predicate fail returns false
- The termination of is_in is guaranteed as in the recursive call the list passed to the goal is shorter, hence
  - eventually X is encountered as first element of the list (base case 1),
  - or the list is empty (base case 2)

Enumerating Elements and Generating Lists

- The predicate is_in can also be used to enumerate all elements of a list

```
?- is_in(X,[1,2,a]).
X = 1;
X = 2;
X = a;
false
```

- We can even use it to generate lists

```
?- is_in(a,L).
L = [a|_G5033893];
L = [_G5033893, a| _G5033898]
```

- _G5033893, ... are variables

List Predicates – last/2

- Finding the last element of a list

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

?- last(X,[talk,of,the,town]).
X = town
```

List Predicates – next_to/2

- Checking for two consecutive elements of a list

```
next_to(X,Y,[X,Y|_]).
next_to(X,Y,[_|Z]) :- next_to(X,Y,Z).

?- next_to(X,Y,[talk,of,the,town]).
X = talk,
Y = of ;
X = of,
Y = the ;
X = the,
Y = town
```

List Predicates – append/3

- append is a very useful built-in predicate that can be used in a flexible way
- Appending two lists

```
append([],L,L).
append([X|L1],L2,[X|L3]) :- append(L1,L2,L3).
```

```
?- append([i,like],[prolog],L).
L = [i,like,prolog]
```

- Generating sublists

```
?- append(X,Y,[i,like,prolog]).
X = [], Y = [i,like,prolog] ?  ;
X = [i], Y = [like,prolog] ?  ;
X = [i,like], Y = [prolog] ?  ;
X = [i,like,prolog], Y = [] ?  ;
no
```

- Computing the difference between lists

```
?- append([i],Y,[i,like,prolog]).
Y = [like,prolog]
```

List Predicates – append/3

- Prolog is very flexible with regard to the initialization of parameters
  - e.g., in append any of two parameters can be initialized
- We can easily implement `last`, `next_to`, and `is_in` using append

```
last(E,List) :- append(_,[E],List).

next_to(X,Y,List) :- append(_,[X,Y|_],List).

is_in(X,List) :- append(_,[X|_],List).
```

Strings in Prolog/1

- Strings in Prolog can be quite confusing if you come from another language
- There are two "types" of strings
- Strings enclosed in single quotes (') are atoms

```
?- 'hello' = S.
S = hello.
```

```
write('hello')
hello
true.
```

- As this class of strings are atoms, they naturally cannot be manipulated

Strings in Prolog/2

- Strings (or terms) written in double quotes (") are immediately converted to a list of character codes (ASCII)

```
?- "hello" = L.
L = [104, 101, 108, 108, 111].
```

```
write("hello").
[104, 101, 108, 108, 111]
true.
```

- As of SWI-Prolog v7, only back quoted text is converted,
  - e.g.,`text` is represented as [116,101,120,116],

  whereas text enclosed in double quotes is read as a sequence of characters

Strings in Prolog/3

- Sometimes, single-quoted strings need to be converted to character lists, e.g., to print the first character of a string or to search for a substring.
- This can be done by the `name` predicate.

```
?- name('hello', L).
L = [104, 101, 108, 108, 111].
```

- SWI-Prolog provides a large number of built-in predicates for strings, e.g., concatenate strings, string length, conversion between terms and strings, etc.

Prefix Example

- The following predicate verifies, whether a string S1 is a prefix of another string S2.

```
prefix(S1, S2) :-
    atom(S1),
    atom(S2),
    name(S1, L1),
    name(S2, L2),
    append(L1, _, L2).
```

- We can use it as follows:

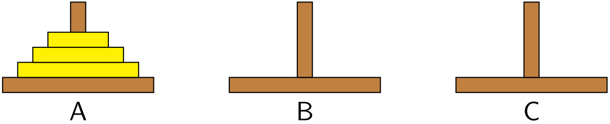
```
?- prefix('hello', 'hello world').
true.

?- prefix("hello", "hello world").
false.
```

Outline

The Towers of Hanoi/1

- Goal: move a stack of n disks from one peg to another with the help of an auxiliary peg, where
  - Only one disk can be moved at a time
  - A move can only take the upper disk of a stack
  - A larger disk can never be placed on top of a smaller disk



- Legend: Somewhere in the surrounding of Hanoi, there is a monastery, where the monks have to perform this task assigned to them by God when the world was created with $n = 64$ golden disks. At the moment they complete their task, the world will collapse.
- The minimum number of moves to solve a Tower of Hanoi puzzle is $2^n - 1$
  - This is roughly 585 billion years for the monks, if they move the disks at a rate of one move per second

The Towers of Hanoi/2

- Recursive solution
  - Termination: there are no disks on peg A
  - Move $n-1$ disks from peg A to C (notice the recursive move!)
  - Move disk n from peg A to B
  - Move $n-1$ disks from peg C to B
- Predicate `Move(N,A,B,C)` moves n disks from peg A to peg B with the help of C

```
hanoi(N) :- move(N,pegA,pegB,pegC).

move(1,A,B,_) :- write([move,disc,from,A,to,B]), nl.
move(N,A,B,C) :-
    N > 1,
    M is N-1,
    move(M,A,C,B),
    move(1,A,B,_),
    move(M,C,B,A).
```

Sudoku/1

- Sudoku is a logic-based, combinatorial number-placement puzzle.
- The objective is to fill a 9x9 grid with digits so that each column, each row, and each of the nine 3x3 sub-grids (boxes) contains all of the digits from 1 to 9.
- A partially completed grid is given, which has a unique solution.

5	3			7				
6			1	9	5			
	9	8					6	
8				6				3
4			8		3			1
7				2				6
	6					2	8	
			4	1	9			5
				8			7	9

Sudoku/2

- We make the problem easier and consider a 4x4 sudoku, where rows, columns and boxes have to be filled with a permutation of the numbers 1,. . . ,4
- We can model the Sudoku problem in Prolog using list permutations
  - Each row must be a permutation of [1,2,3,4]
  - Each column must be a permutation of [1,2,3,4]
  - Each 2x2 box must be a permutation of [1,2,3,4]
- The Sudoku is represented by a list of lists

```
[[X11, X12, X13, X14],
 [X21, X22, X23, X24],
 [X31, X32, X33, X34],
 [X41, X42, X43, X44]]
```

		4	
	2		
		1	
	3		

X11	X12	X13	X14
X21	X22	X23	X24
X31	X32	X33	X34
X41	X42	X43	X44

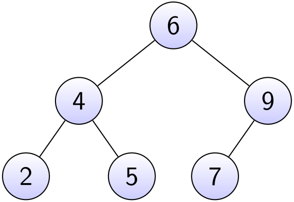
Sudoku/3

```
sudoku([R1, R2, R3, R4]) :-
    R1 = [X11,X12,X13,X14],
    R2 = [X21,X22,X23,X24],
    R3 = [X31,X32,X33,X34],
    R4 = [X41,X42,X43,X44],
    % rows
    permutation([X11,X12,X13,X14],[1,2,3,4]),
    permutation([X21,X22,X23,X24],[1,2,3,4]),
    permutation([X31,X32,X33,X34],[1,2,3,4]),
    permutation([X41,X42,X43,X44],[1,2,3,4]),
    % cols
    permutation([X11,X21,X31,X41],[1,2,3,4]),
    permutation([X12,X22,X32,X42],[1,2,3,4]),
    permutation([X13,X23,X33,X43],[1,2,3,4]),
    permutation([X14,X24,X34,X44],[1,2,3,4]),
    % boxes
    permutation([X11,X12,X21,X22],[1,2,3,4]),
    permutation([X13,X14,X23,X24],[1,2,3,4]),
    permutation([X31,X32,X41,X42],[1,2,3,4]),
    permutation([X33,X34,X43,X44],[1,2,3,4]).
```

Binary Search Trees/1

- Binary search trees can be represented in Prolog by a recursive structure with three arguments `bst(K,L,R)`, where
  - `K` is the key of the root
  - `L` is the left sub-tree
  - `R` is the right sub-tree
- The empty (null) tree is usually represented as the constant nil.
- Example tree with 6 nodes:

```
bst(6,
    bst(4,
        bst(2,nil,nil),
        bst(5,nil,nil)),
    bst(9,
        bst(7, nil, nil),
        nil)
    )
```



Binary Search Trees/2

- A basic operation is `bstmem(Tree,X)`, which succeeds if `X` is contained in `Tree`

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

- Examples:

```
?- bstmem(nil, 3).
No
?- bstmem(bst(5,bst(8,nil,nil),nil),8).
Yes
```

Binary Search Trees/3

- Another basic operation is `inorder(Tree, L)` that succeeds if `L` contains the keys in `Tree` in inorder

```
inorder(bst(K,L,R), List) :-
    inorder(L, LL),
    inorder(R, LR),
    append(LL, [K|LR], List).
inorder(nil, []).
```

- Examples:

```
?- inorder(bst(5,bst(4,nil,nil),bst(8,nil,nil)),L).
L = [4,5,8]
```

- Modify the above predicate to a predicate
  - `preorder(Tree,L)` that succeeds if `L` contains the keys in `Tree` in preorder
  - `postorder(Tree,L)` that succeeds if `L` contains the keys in `Tree` in postorder