Recursion, Structures, and Lists

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The central ideas of Prolog

- SUCCESS/FAILURE
 - any computation can "succeed" or "fail", and this is used as a 'test' mechanism.
- MATCHING
 - any two data items can be compared for similarity, and values can be bound to variables in order to allow a match to succeed.

SEARCHING

- the whole activity of the Prolog system is to search through various options to find a combination that succeeds.
 - Main search tools are backtracking and recursion
- BACKTRACKING
 - when the system fails during its search, it returns to previous choices to see if making a different choice would allow success.



Likes program

- 1) drinks(alan,beer).
- 2) likes(alan,coffee).
- 3) likes(heather, coffee).
- 4) likes(Person, Drink):-

drinks(Person,Drink).

5) likes(Person,Somebody):likes(Person,Drink),

likes (Somebody, Drink).

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Representing Proof using Trees

- To help us understand Prolog's proof strategy we can represent its behaviour using AND/OR trees.
- 1. Query is the top-most point (node) of the tree.
- 2. Tree grows downwards (looks more like roots!).
- 3. Each branch denotes a subgoal.
 - 1. The branch is labelled with the number of the matching clause and
 - 2. any variables instantiated when matching the clause head.

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- 4. Each branch ends with either: |?- likes(alan, X).
 - 1. A successful match 🔘
 - 2. A failed match \bigotimes , or
 - 3. Another subgoal.

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Representing Proof using Trees (2)

 Using the tree we can see what happens when we ask for another match (;)











Infitite Recursive Loop

 If a recursive clause is called with an incorrect goal it will loop as it can neither prove it





Why use recursion?

- It allows us to define very clear and elegant code.
 - Why repeat code when you can reuse existing code.
- Relationships may be recursive
 e.g. "X is my ancestor if X is my Ancestor's ancestor."
- Data is represented recursively and best processed iteratively.
 - Grammatical structures can contain themselves
 - E.g. NP → (Det) N (PP), PP → P (NP)
 - Ordered data: each element requires the same processing
- Allows Prolog to perform complex search of a problem space without any dedicated algorithms.





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Structures

- To create a single data element from a collection of related terms we use a *structure*.
- A structure is constructed from a *functor* (a constant symbol) and one of more components.

 functor somerelationship(a,b,c,[1,2,3])
- The components can be of any type: atoms, integers, variables, or structures.
- As functors are treated as data objects just like constants they can be unified with variables

```
|?-X| = date(04, 10, 04).
X = date(04, 10, 04)?
yes
```

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Structure unification

- 2 structures will unify if
 - the functors are the same,
 - they have the same number of components,
 - and all the components unify.

```
| ?- person(Nm,london,Age) = person(bob,london,48).
Nm = bob,
Age = 48?
yes
| ?- person(Someone,_,45) = person(harry,dundee,45).
Someone = harry ?
yes
```

• (A plain underscore '_' is not bound to any value. By using it you are telling Prolog to ignore this argument and not report it.)



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Structure unification (2)

• A structure may also have another structure as a component.

|?-addr(flat(4), street('Home Str.'), postcode(eh8_91w))
= addr(flat(Z), Yy, postcode(Xxx)).
Z = 4,
Yy = street('Home Str.'),
Xxx = eh8_91w ?
yes

Reported variables are
ordered according to
number of characters
in the variable name.

- Unification of nested structures works recursively:
 - first it unifies the entire structure,
 - then it tries to unify the nested structures.



Structures = facts?

- The syntax of structures and facts is identical but:
 - Structures are not facts as they are not stored in the database as being true (followed by a period '.');
 - Structures are generally just used to group data;
 - Functors do not have to match predicate names.
- However predicates can be stored as structures

```
command(X):-
```

Χ.

By instantiating a variable with a structure which is also a predicate you can pass commands.

```
?- X = write('Passing a command'), command(X).
```

```
Passing a command
```

```
X = write('Passing a command') ?
```

yes



Lists

- A collection of ordered data.
- Has zero or more elements enclosed by square brackets ('[]') and separated by commas (',').

← a list with one element← an empty list

- 2,3]] \leftarrow a list with 3 elements where the 3rd element is a list of 2 elements.
- Like any object, a list can be unified with a variable

```
|?- [Any, list, 'of elements'] = X.
X = [Any, list, 'of elements']?
```

yes

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[a]



List Unification

• Two lists unify if they are the same length and all their elements unify.

|?-[a,B,c,D]=[A,b,C,d]. |?-[(a+X),(Y+b)]=[(W+c),(d+b)]. W = a, A = a, $B = b_{r}$ X = CC = CY = d?D = d ? yes yes |?-[[a],[B,c],[]]=[X,[b,c],Y]. |?-[[X,a]]=[b,Y].B = b, no X = [a],Length 1 Length 2 Y = [] ?ves 30/09/04 AIPP Lecture 3: Recursion, Structures, and Lists 17



Definition of a List

• Lists are *recursively defined* structures.

"An empty list, [], is a list. A structure of the form [X, ...] is a list if X is a term and [...] is a list, possibly empty."

- This recursiveness is made explicit by the bar notation
 [Head | Tail] (']' = bottom left PC keyboard character)
- Head must unify with a single term.
- Tail unifies with a list of any length, including an empty list, [].
 - the bar notation turns everything after the Head into a list and unifies it with Tail.



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Head and Tail

```
|?-[a,b,c,d]=[Head|Tail]. |?-[a,b,c,d]=[X|[Y|Z]].
Head = a_{r}
                       X = a
Tail = [b, c, d]?
                         Y = b,
                            Z = [c,d];
yes
                            yes
|?-[a] = [H|T].
                            |?-[a,b,c]=[W|[X|[Y|Z]]].
H = a,
                            W = a_{r}
T = [];
                            X = b,
                            Y = C
yes
                            Z = []? yes
                            |?-[a|[b|[c|[]]]]= List.
|?-[] = [H|T].
                            List = [a,b,c]?
no
                            yes
```

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Summary

- Prolog's proof strategy can be represented using AND/OR trees.
- Tree representations allow us trace Prolog's search for multiple matches to a query.
- They also highlight the strengths and weaknesses of recursion (e.g. economical code vs. infinite looping).
- Recursive data structures can be represented as structures or lists.
- Structures can be unified with variables then used as commands.
- Lists can store ordered data and allow its sequential processing through recursion.