# Logic Programming <br> Backtracking and Cut 

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## Generating Multiple Solutions

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## Finitely Many Alternatives

Simplest way: Several facts match against the question.

## Example

```
father(mary, george).
father(john, george).
father(sue, harry).
father(george, edward).
?- father(X, Y).
X=mary, Y=george ;
X=john, Y=george ;
X=sue, Y=harry ;
X=george, Y=edward
```

The answers are generated in the order in which the facts are given.

## Repeating the Same Answer

Old answers do not influence newer ones: same answer can be returned several times.

## Example

```
father(mary, george).
father(john, george).
father(sue, harry).
father(george, edward).
?- father(_,X).
X = george ;
X = george ;
X = harry ;
X = edward
```

george returned twice because George is the father of both Mary and John.

## Embedding Does Not Matter

Backtracking happens in the same way if the alternatives are embedded more deeply.

## Example

```
father(mary, george).
father(john, george).
father(sue, harry).
father(george, edward).
child(X,Y) :- father(Y,X)
?- child(X,Y).
X = george, Y = mary ;
X = george, Y = john ;
X = harry, Y = sue ;
X = edward, Y = george
```


## Mixing facts and Rules

If facts and rules are mixed, the alternatives follow again in the order in which things are presented.

## Example

```
person(adam).
person(X) :- mother(X, Y).
person(eve).
mother(cain, eve).
mother(abel, eve).
mother(jabal, adah).
mother(tubalcain, zillah).
```

```
?- person(X).
```

?- person(X).
X = adam ;
X = adam ;
X = cain ;
X = cain ;
X = abel ;
X = abel ;
X = jabal ;
X = jabal ;
X = tubalcain ;
X = tubalcain ;
X = eve

```
X = eve
```


## Multiple Goals with Multiple Solutions

More interesting case: two goals, each with several solutions.

## Example

```
pair(X, Y) :- ?- pair(X, Y).
    boy(X),
    girl(Y).
boy (johm).
boy (marmaduke).
boy (bertram).
boy(charles).
girl(griselda).
girl(ermitrude).
girl(brunhilda).
```

12 solutions.

## Infinite Number of Possibilities

Sometimes we want to generate an infinite number of possibilities.
It might not be known in advance how many of them needed.
Example
is_integer (0).
is_integer (X) :-
is_integer(Y),
X is $\mathrm{Y}+1$.
?- is_integer(X).
$\mathrm{X}=0$;
$\mathrm{X}=1$;
$\mathrm{X}=2$;

How does it work?

## Member and Multiple Solutions

Most rules give rise to alternative solutions if they are used for goals that contain many uninstantiated variables.

Example

```
member(X, [X|_]).
member(X, [_|Y]) :-
    member(X, Y).
?- member(A, X).
X = [A|_] ;
X = [_,A|_] ;
X = [_,_,A|_] ;
X = [_,_,_,A|_] ;
```

There is a way to tell Prolog to discard choices: The "cut".

## The "Cut"

Cut (written "!") tells the system which previous choices need not to be considered again when it backtracks.
Advantages:

- The program will run faster. No time wasting on attempts to re-satisfy certain goals.
- The program will occupy less memory. Less backtracking points to be remembered.


## Example of Cut

Reference library:

- Determine which facilities are available.
- If one has an overdue book can only use the basic facilities.
- Otherwise can use the general facilities.


## Reference Library

## Example

```
facility(Person, Facility) :-
    book_overdue(Person, Book),
    !,
    basic_facility(Facility).
facility(Person, Facility) :-
    general_facility(Facility).
```

basic_facility(reference).
basic_facility(enquiries).
additional_facility(borrowing).
additional_facility(inter_library_loan).
general_facility(X) :- basic_facility(X).
general_facility(X) :- additional_facility(X).

## Reference Library

## Example

book_overdue('C. Watzer', book10089).
book_overdue('A. Jones', book29907).
client('C. Watzer').
client('A. Jones').
?- client (X), facility(X,Y).

How does it proceed?

## Reference Library

The effect of cut:

- If a client has an overdue book, then only allow her/him the basic facilities.
- Don't bother going through all the clients overdue books.
- Don't remember any other rule about facilities.


## The Effect of Cut

In general, when a cut is encountered as a goal

- The system becomes committed to all choices made since the parent goal was invoked.
- All other alternatives are discarded.
- An attempt to re-satisfy any goal between the parent goal and the cut goal will fail.


## Common Uses of Cut

Three main cases:

1. To tell the system that it found the right rule for a particular goal. Confirming the choice of a rule.
2. To tell the system to fail a particular goal without trying for alternative solutions. Cut-fail combination.
3. To tell the system to terminate the generation of alternative solutions by backtracking. Terminate a "generate-and-test".

## Confirming the Choice of a Rule

Typical situation:

- We wish to associate several clauses with the same predicate.
- One clause is appropriate if the arguments are of one form, another is appropriate if the arguments have another form.
- Often (but not always) these alternatives can be made disjoint by providing just the argument patterns (e.g., empty list in one clause, and a nonempty list in another.)
- If we cannot specify an exhaustive set of patterns, we may give rules for some specific argument types and gave a "catchall" rule at the end for everything else.


## Confirming the Choice of a Rule

Example of the case when an exhaustive set of patterns can not be specified:

Example

```
sum_to(1, 1).
sum_to(N, Res):-
        N1 is N-1,
        sum_to(N1, Res1),
        Res is Res1+N.
?- sum_to(5, X).
    X=15 ;
```

It loops.

## Confirming the Choice of a Rule

What happened?

- sum_to (1,1) and sum_to (N,Res) are not disjoint alternatives.
- sum_to (1,1) matches both sum_to(1,1) and sum_to (N,Res).
- But if a goal matches sum_to $(1,1)$, there is no reason why it should try the second alternative, sum_to ( $\mathrm{N}, \mathrm{Res}$ ).
- Cut the second alternative.


## Confirming the Choice of a Rule

```
Example
```

```
sum_to(1, 1) :-
```

sum_to(1, 1) :-
sum_to(N, Res) :-
sum_to(N, Res) :-
N1 is N-1,
N1 is N-1,
sum_to(N1, Res1),
sum_to(N1, Res1),
Res is Res1+N.
Res is Res1+N.
?- sum_to(5, X).
X = 15 ;
false

```

\section*{More Usual Situation}
- In the previous example we could specify a pattern for the boundary case sum_to \((1,1)\).
- Usually, it is hard to specify pattern if we want to provide extra conditions that decide on the appropriate rule.
- The previous example still loops on goals sum_to( N, Res) where \(\mathrm{N}=<1\).
- We can put this condition in the boundary case telling Prolog to stop for such goals.
- But then the pattern can not be specified.

\section*{Cut with Extra Conditions}

\section*{Example}
```

sum_to(N, 1) :-
N =< 1,
!.
sum_to(N, Res) :-
N1 is N-1,
sum_to(N1, Res1),
Res is Res1+N.

```

\section*{Cut and Not}

General principle:
- When cut is used to confirm the choice of a rule, it can be replaced with not.
- not (X) succeeds when \(X\), seen as a Prolog goal, fails.
- Replacing cut with not is often considered a good programming style.
- However, it can make the program less efficient.
- Trade-off between readability and efficiency.

\section*{Cut and Not}

\section*{Example (With Cut)}
```

sum_to(1, 1) :- !.
sum_to(N, Res) :-
N1 is N-1,
sum_to(N1, Res1),
Res is Res1+N.

```

\section*{Example (With Not)}
```

sum_to(1, 1).
sum_to(N, Res) :-
not(N = 1),
N1 is N-1,
sum_to(N1, Res1),
Res is Res1+N.

```

\section*{Cut and Not}

\section*{Example (With Cut)}


Example (With Not)
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { sum_to(1, 1) :- } \\
& \text { N =< } 1, \\
& \text { sum_to }(N, \operatorname{Res}):- \\
& \text { not }(N=<1), \% N>1 \\
& \text { N1 is } N-1, \\
& \text { sum_to }(N 1, \operatorname{Res} 1), \\
& \text { Res is Res } 1+N .
\end{aligned}
\]

\section*{Double Work}
not might force Prolog to try the same goal twice:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& A:-B, C . \\
& A:-\operatorname{not}(B), D .
\end{aligned}
\]

B may be tried twice after backtracking.

\section*{The "Cut-fail" Combination}
fail.
- Built-in predicate.
- No arguments.
- Always fails as a goal and causes backtracking.

\section*{The "Cut-fail" Combination}
fail after cut:
- The normal backtracking behavior will be altered by the effect of cut.
- Quite useful combination in practice.

\section*{The Average Taxpayer}

Write a program to determine an average taxpayer.
Two cases:
- Foreigners are not average taxpayers.
- If a person is not a foreigner, apply the general criterion (whatever it is) to find out whether he or she is an average taxpayer.

\section*{The Average Taxpayer}

Example
```

average_taxpayer(X) :-
foreigner(X),
!, fail.
average_taxpayer(X) :-
satisfies_general_criterion(X) .

```

What would happen had we omitted the cut?

\section*{The Average Taxpayer}

Wrong version, without cut:
Example (Wrong)
```

average_taxpayer(X) :-

```
    foreigner(X),
    fail.
average_taxpayer(X) :-
    satisfies_general_criterion(X).

If there is a foreigner widslewip who satisfies the general criterion, the program will incorrectly answer yes on the goal
?- average_taxpayer(widslewip).

\section*{The Average Taxpayer}

We can use cut-fail combination to define
satisfies_general_criterion.
Two cases:
- A person whose spouse earns more than a certain amount (e.g. Euro 3000) does not satisfy the criterion of being an average taxpayer.
- If this is not the case, then a person satisfies the criterion if his income is within a certain interval (e.g. more that Euro 2000 and less than Euro 3000).

\section*{The Average Taxpayer}

Clauses for satisfies_general_criterion.

\section*{Example}
satisfies_general_criterion(X) :-
spouse (X, Y),
gross_income (Y, Inc),
Inc > 3000,
!, fail.
satisfies_general_criterion(X) :-
gross_income (X, Inc),
Inc < 3000,
Inc > 2000 .

\section*{The Average Taxpayer}

We can use cut-fail combination to define gross_income.
Two cases:
- A person who gets a pension less than certain amount (e.g. Euro 500), is considered to have no gross income.
- Otherwise, person's gross income is determined as the sum of his/her gross salary and investment income.

\section*{The Average Taxpayer}

Clauses for gross_income.
Example
```

gross_income(X, Y) :-
receives_pension(X, P),
P < 500,
!, fail.
gross_income(X, Y) :-
gross_salary(X, Z),
investment_income(X, W),
Y is Z+W.

```

\section*{not with Cut and Fail}
not can be defined in terms of cut and fail.
Example
not (P) :-
call(P),
!, fail.
not (P).
Notation: \(\backslash+\) is used more often for not .

\section*{Replacing Cut with not}
- Cut can be replaced with not in cut-fail combination.
- Unlike the first use of cut, this replacement does not affect efficiency.
- However, more reorganization of the program is required.

\section*{Example}
```

average_taxpayer(X) :-
not(foreigner(X)),
not(spouse(X,Y), gross_income(Y,Inc), Inc>3000),

```
    :

\section*{Terminating a "Generate-and-Test"}
"Generate-and-Test":
- One of the simplest AI search techniques.
- Generate: Generate all possible solutions to a problem.
- Test: Test each to see whether they are a solution.
- A possible solution is generated and then tested.
- If the test succeeds a solution is found.
- otherwise, backtrack to next possible solution.

\section*{Tic-Tac-Toe}

Tic-Tac-Toe game: Get three in a raw, column, or diagonal:
\begin{tabular}{l|l|l}
X & & O \\
\hline O & O & \\
\hline X & X & X
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{l|l|l}
X & X & O \\
\hline O & X & \\
\hline O & X &
\end{tabular}


Representation:
\begin{tabular}{l|l|l}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
\hline 4 & 5 & 6 \\
\hline 7 & 8 & 9
\end{tabular}

\section*{Tic-Tac-Toe}

We will show a part of the program to play Tic-Tac-Toe.
Used predicates:
- var: built-in predicate. var ( T ) succeeds if T is a free variable.
- arg: built-in predicate. \(\arg (\mathrm{N}, \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{A})\) succeeds if A is N th argument of the term T .
- aline: defined predicate. Generator of possible lines. For instance, aline ( \([1,5,9]\) ) is the following line:


\section*{Part of the Program for Tic-Tac-Toe}

The opponent (playing with crosses) is threatening to claim a line:
threatening([X,Y,Z], B, X) :empty (X, B), cross (Y, B), cross(Z, B).



\section*{Part of the Program}

Example
forced_move (Board, Sq) :-
aline(Squares), threatening(Squares, Board, Sq), !.
```

aline([1,2,3]).
aline([4,5,6]).
aline([7,8,9]).
aline([1,4,7]).
aline([2,5,8]).
aline([3,6,9]).
aline([1,5,9]).
aline([3,5,7]).

```

\section*{Part of the Program}

\section*{Example (Cont.)}
threatening([X,Y,Z], B, X) :-
empty (X, B),
\(\operatorname{cross}(Y, B)\),
cross (Z, B).
threatening([X,Y,Z], B, Y) :-
cross (X, B),
empty (Y, B),
cross (Z, B).
threatening([X,Y,Z], B, Z) :-
cross (X, B),
\(\operatorname{cross}(Y, B)\),
empty (Z, B).

\section*{forced_move}
forced_move implements "generate-and-test":
- Moves Generated by alines: All possible ways that cross can win.
- Moves Tested by threatening: If cross can win in the next move.
- If no forced moves are found, then the predicate fails and some other predicate would decide what move to make.

\section*{Cut}

Suppose embedded in a larger program:
- If forced_move successfully finds a move then Sq becomes instantiated to the move.
- If, later, a failure occurs (after this instantiation) forced_move would retry.
- Cut can prevent Prolog to search further (which would be futile) and not waste time.
- When we look for forced moves it is only the first solution that is important.

\section*{Problems with the Cut}

Cut changes behavior of programs:
- Introducing cuts may give a correct behavior when goals are of one form.
- There is no guarantee that anything sensible will happen if goals of another form start appearing.

\section*{Problems with the Cut}

\section*{Example}
number_of_parents (adam, 0) :- !.
number_of_parents (eve, 0) :- !.
number_of_parents(_, 2).
?- number_of_parents (eve, X).
\(\mathrm{X}=0\);
false
?- number_of_parents(john, X).
\(\mathrm{X}=2\);
false
?- number_of_parents (eve, 2).
true

\section*{Problems with the Cut}

\section*{Example}
```

number_of_parents(adam, N) :- !, N=0.
number_of_parents(eve, N) :- !, N=0.
number_of_parents(_, 2).

```
?- number_of_parents (eve, 2).
false

However, it will still not work properly if we give goals such as ?- number_of_parents (X, Y).```

