

# Lecture 10: Cuts and Negation

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- Theory
  - Explain how to control Prolog's backtracking behaviour with the help of the cut predicate
  - Introduce negation
  - Explain how cut can be packaged into a more structured form, namely “negation as failure”

# Lecture 10: Cuts and Negation

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- Exercises
  - Exercises of LPN: 10.1, 10.2, 10.3, 10.4
  - Practical session

# The Cut

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- Backtracking is a characteristic feature of Prolog
- But backtracking can lead to inefficiency:
  - Prolog can waste time and memory exploring possibilities that lead nowhere
  - It would be nice to have some control

# The Cut

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- The cut predicate (!) offers a way to control backtracking
- The cut has no arguments, so we write (officially): !/0



# Example of cut

- The cut is a Prolog predicate, so we can add it to the body of rules:

- Example:

$p(X):- b(X), c(X), !, d(X), e(X).$

- Cut is a goal that always succeeds
- The cut commits Prolog to the choices that were made since the parent goal was called

# Explaining the cut

- In order to explain the cut, we will
  - Look at a piece of cut-free Prolog code and see what it does in terms of backtracking
  - Add cuts to this Prolog code
  - Examine the same piece of code with added cuts and look how the cuts affect backtracking

# Example: cut-free code

```
p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1).  b(2).  
c(1).  c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).
```

```
?- p(X).
```

# Example: cut-free code

$p(X):- a(X).$   
 $p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).$   
 $p(X):- f(X).$   
 $a(1).$   
 $b(1). \quad b(2).$   
 $c(1). \quad c(2).$   
 $d(2).$   
 $e(2).$   
 $f(3).$

$?- p(X).$

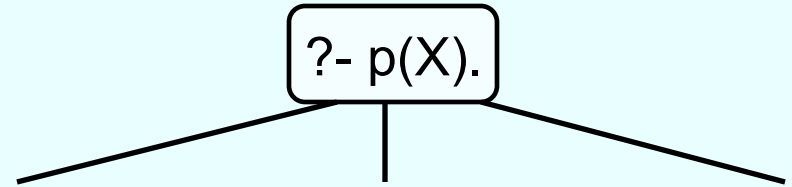
$?- p(X).$



# Example: cut-free code

$p(X):- a(X).$   
 $p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).$   
 $p(X):- f(X).$   
 $a(1).$   
 $b(1). \quad b(2).$   
 $c(1). \quad c(2).$   
 $d(2).$   
 $e(2).$   
 $f(3).$

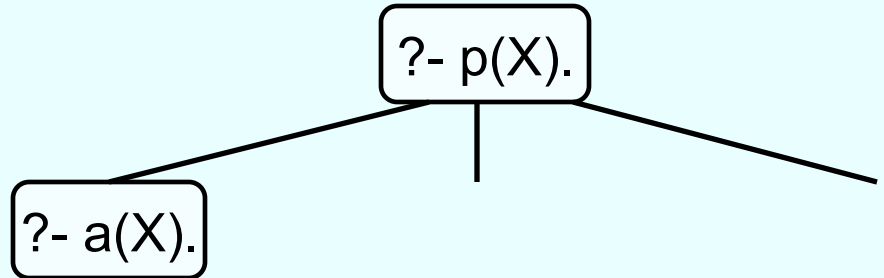
?-  $p(X).$



# Example: cut-free code

p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).

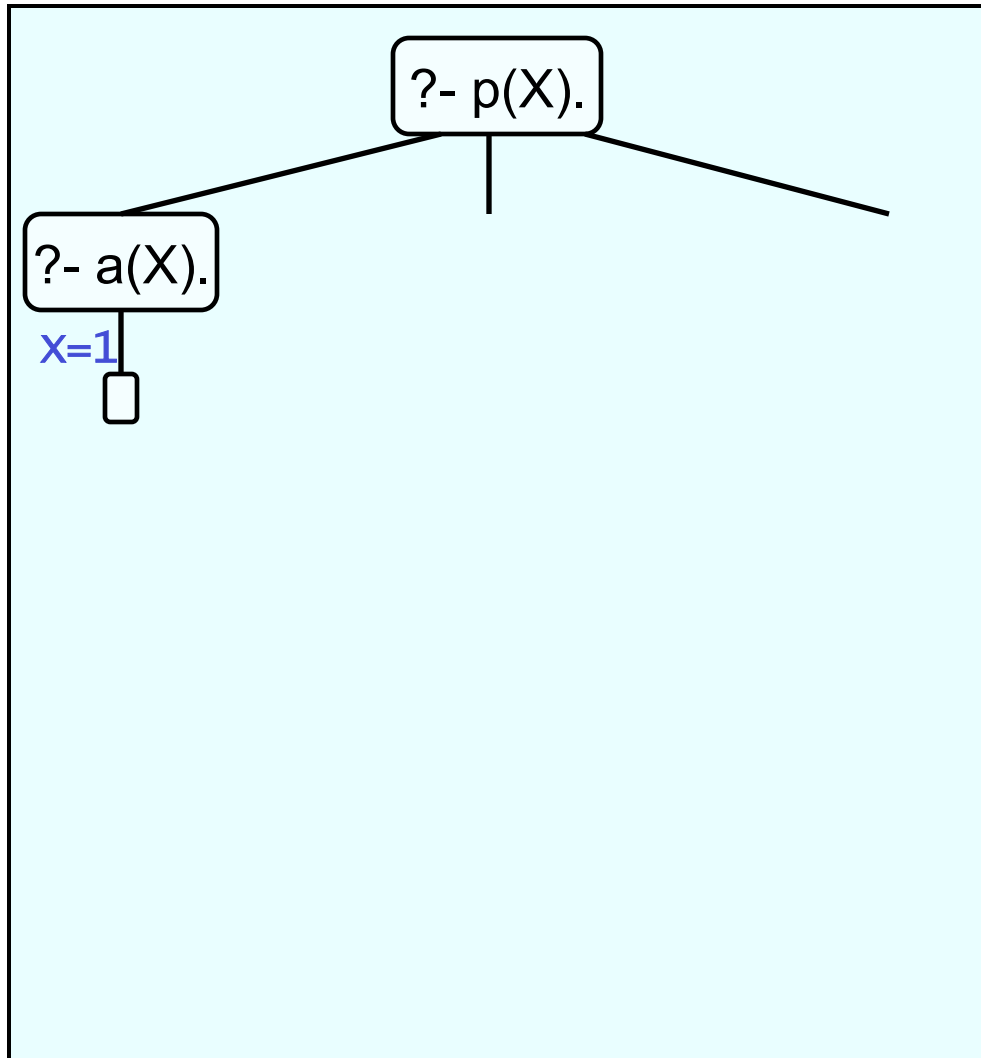
?- p(X).



# Example: cut-free code

p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).

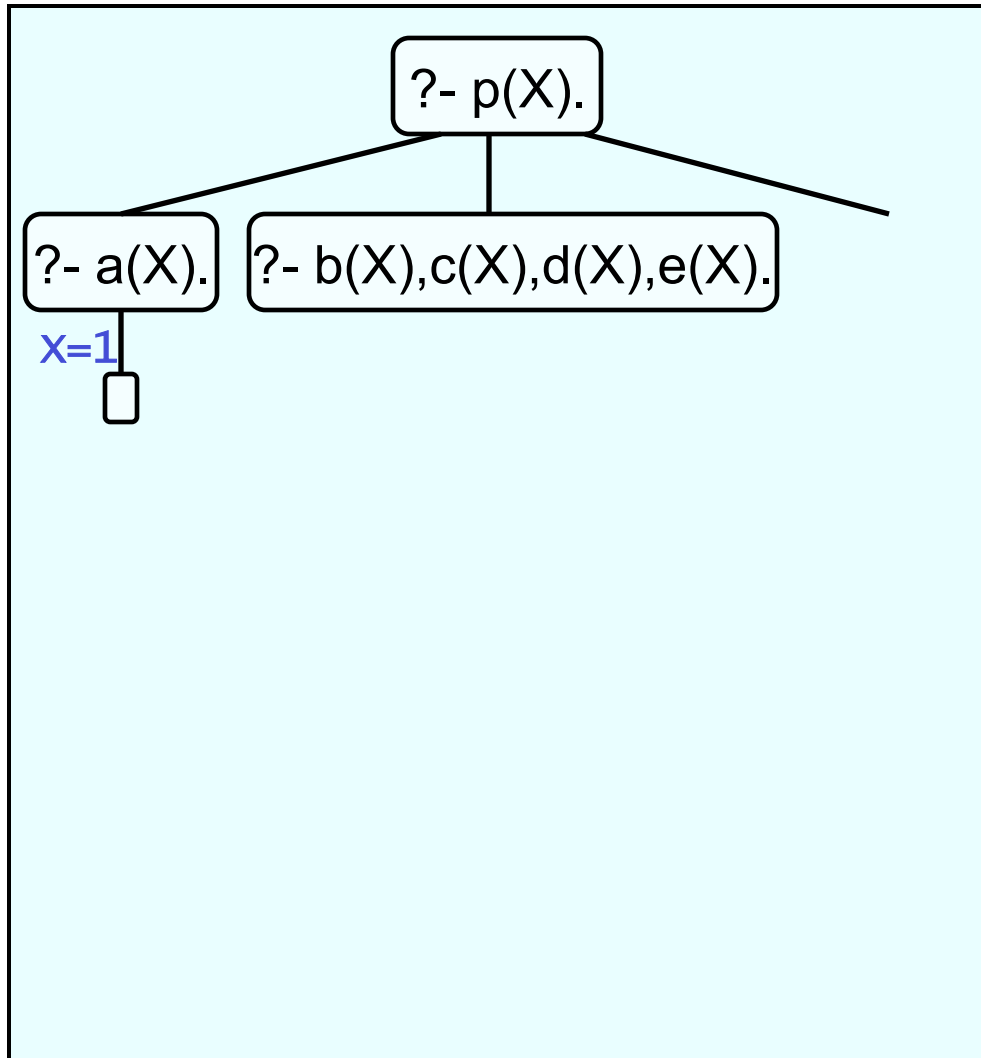
?- p(X).  
X=1



# Example: cut-free code

```
p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).
```

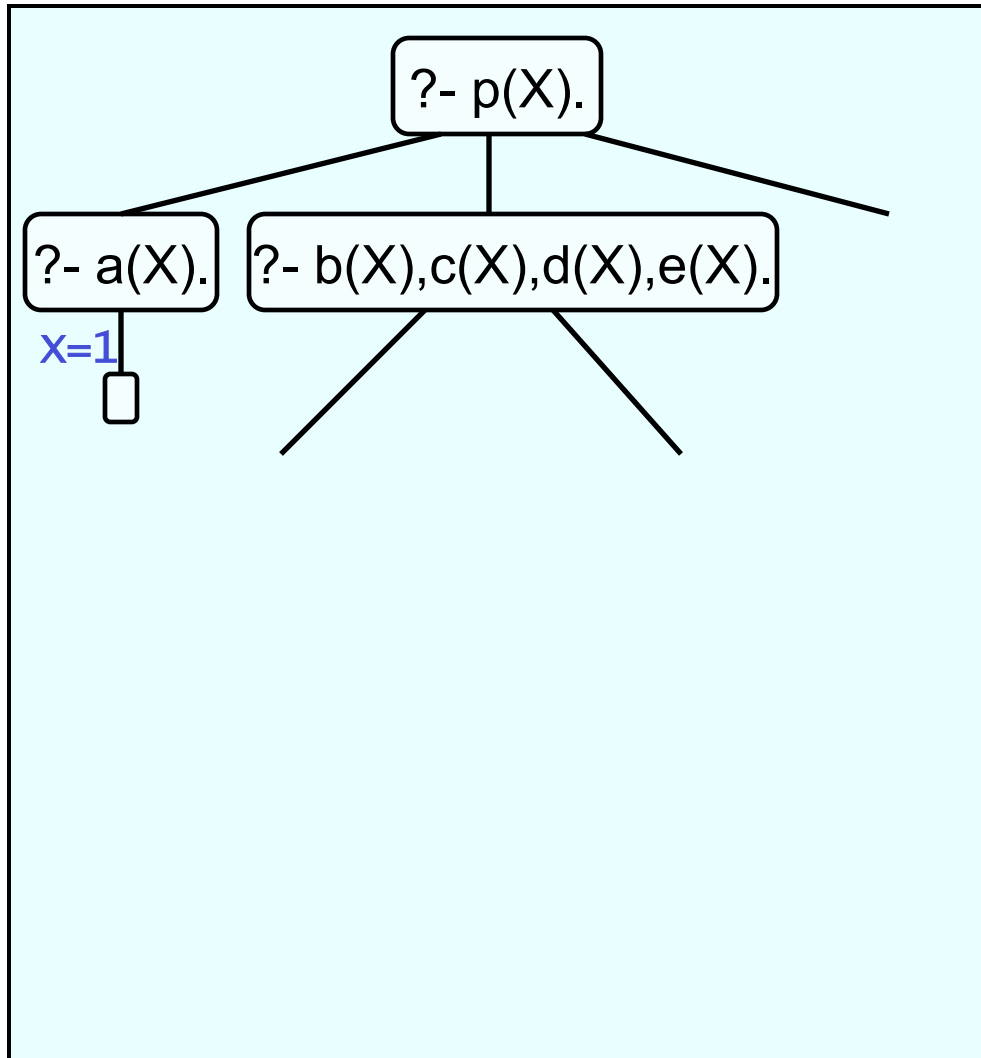
```
?- p(X).  
X=1;
```



# Example: cut-free code

```
p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).
```

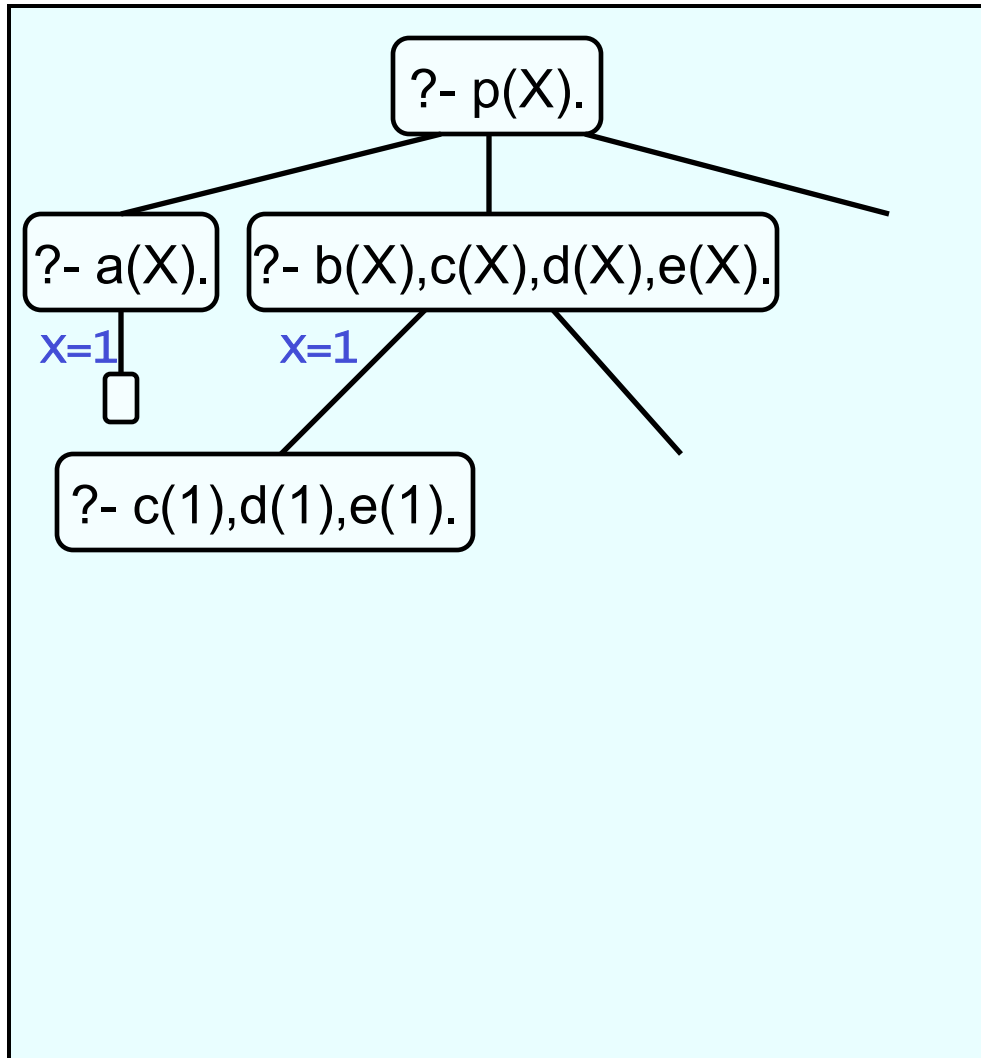
```
?- p(X).  
X=1;
```



# Example: cut-free code

```
p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).
```

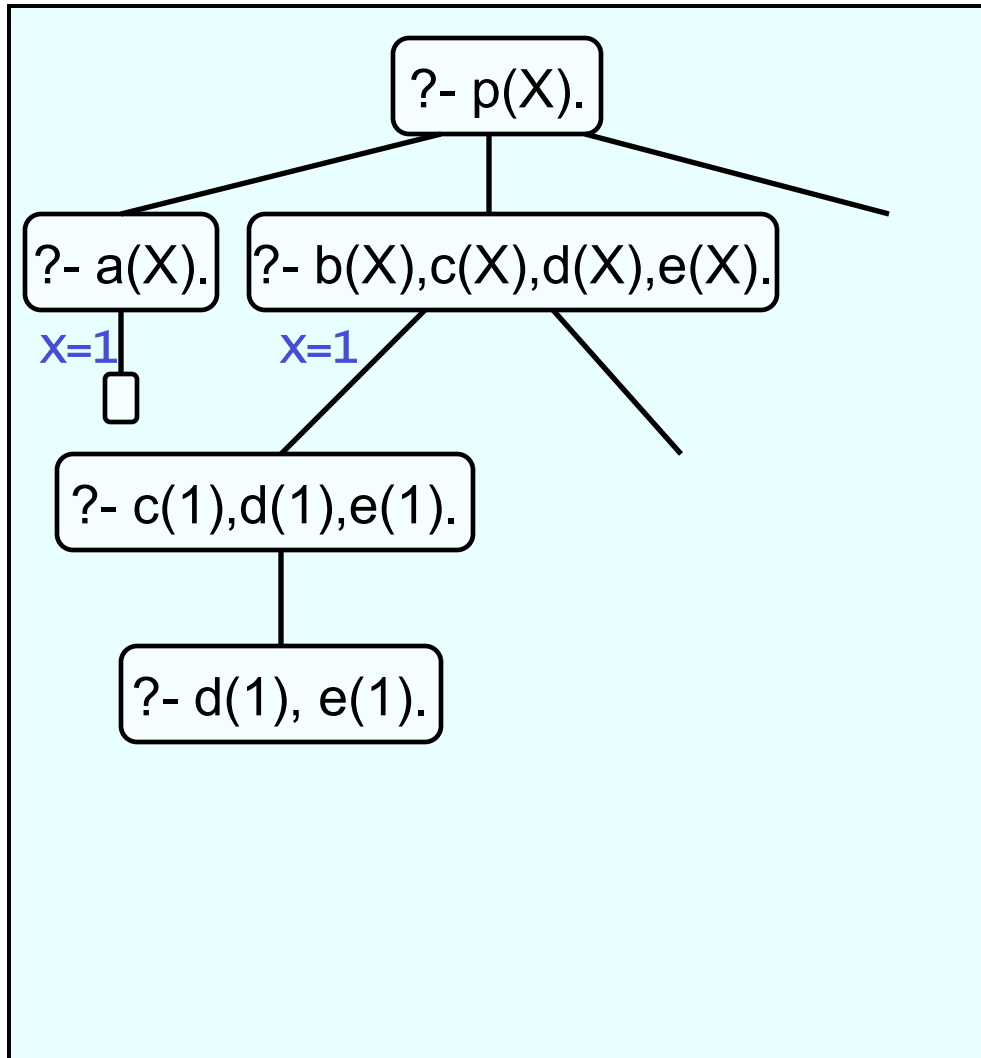
```
?- p(X).  
X=1;
```



# Example: cut-free code

p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).

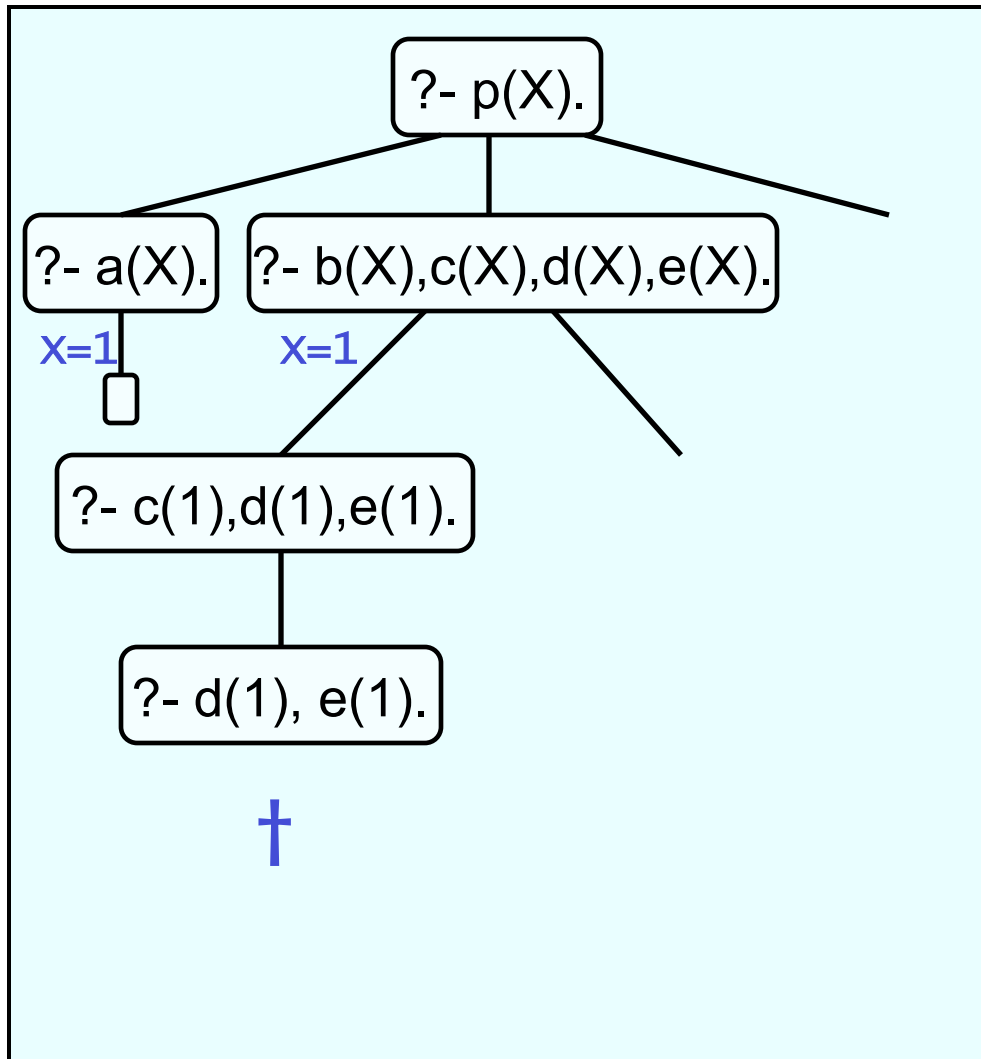
?- p(X).  
X=1;



# Example: cut-free code

p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).

?- p(X).  
X=1;

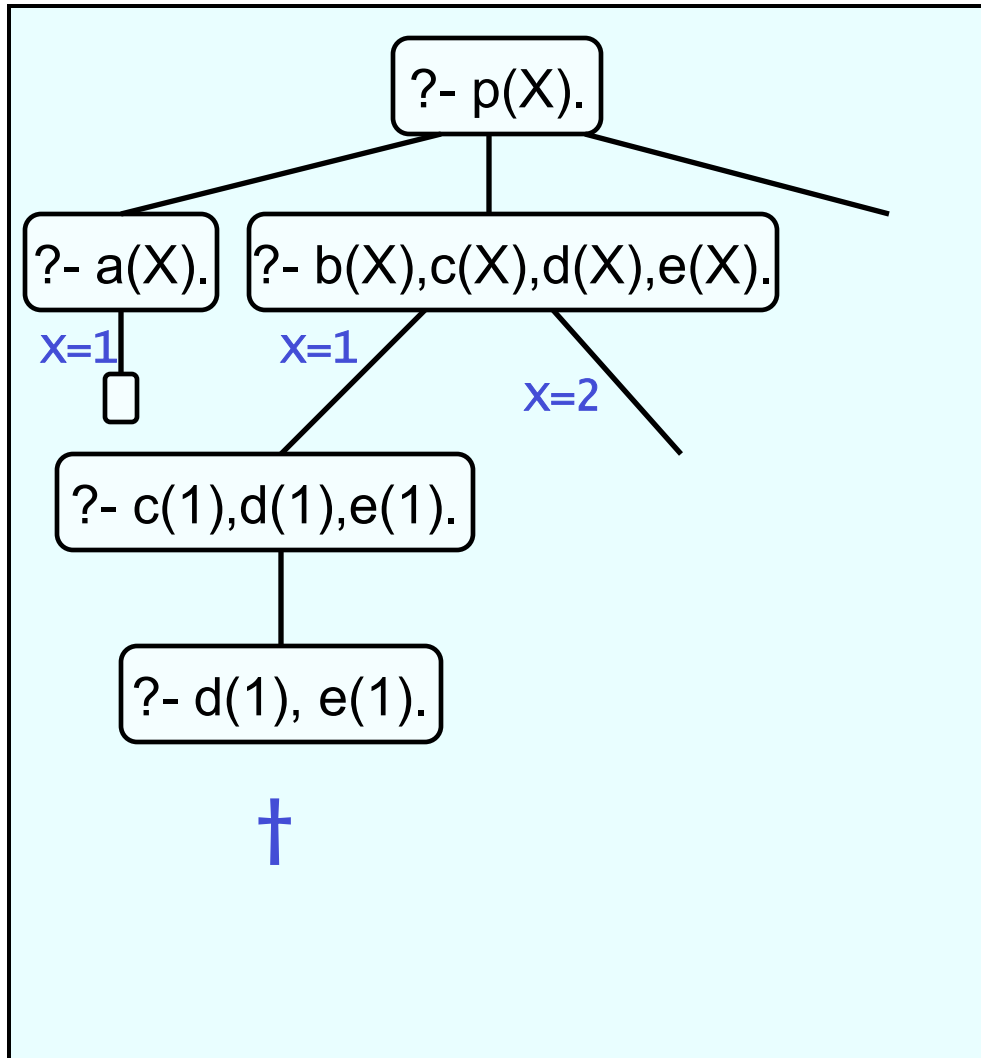




# Example: cut-free code

p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).

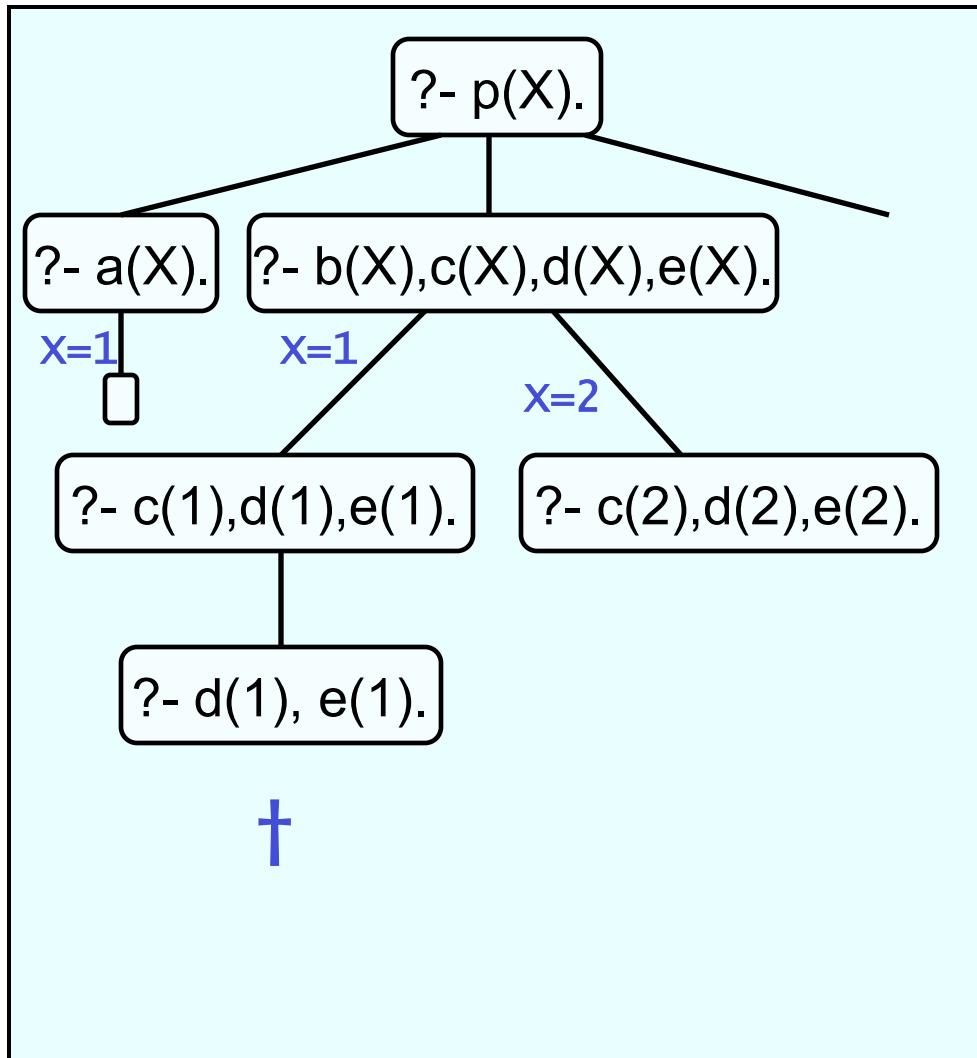
?- p(X).  
X=1;



# Example: cut-free code

p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).

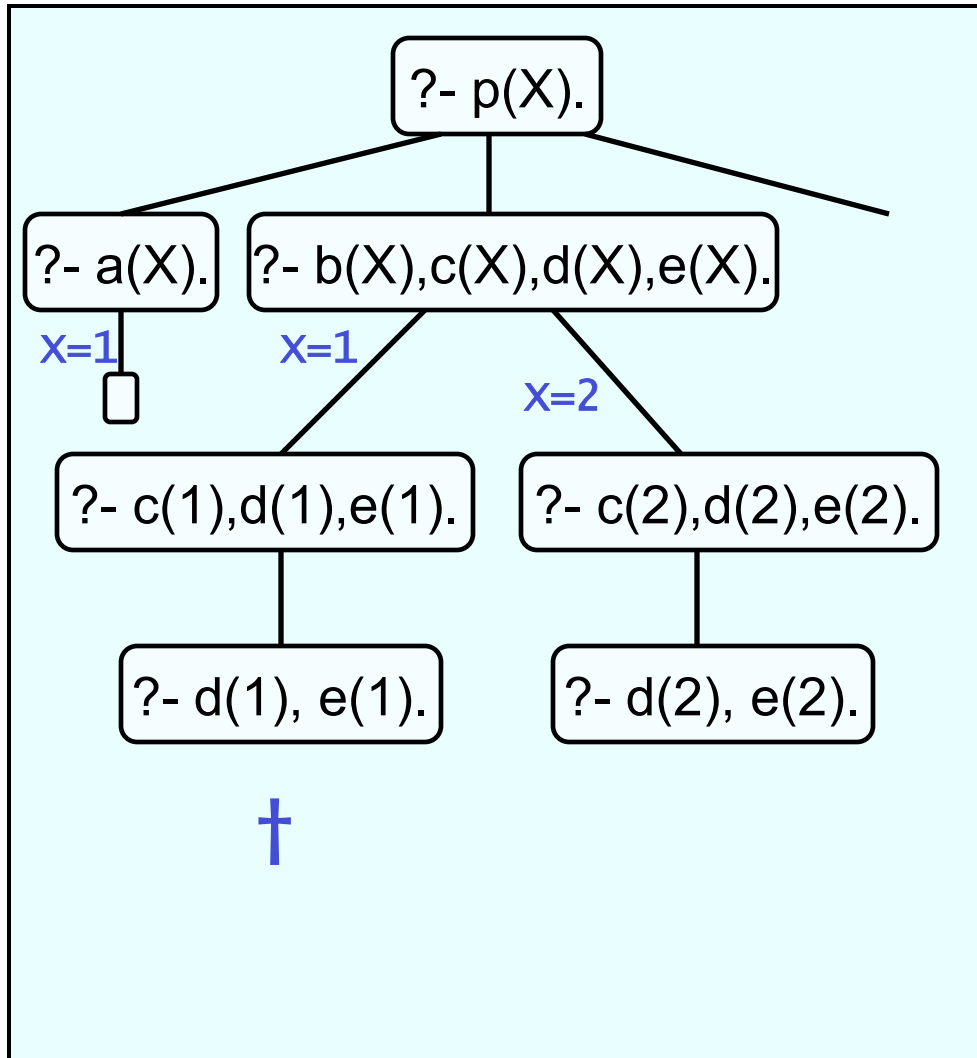
?- p(X).  
X=1;



# Example: cut-free code

$p(X):- a(X).$   
 $p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).$   
 $p(X):- f(X).$   
 $a(1).$   
 $b(1). \quad b(2).$   
 $c(1). \quad c(2).$   
 $d(2).$   
 $e(2).$   
 $f(3).$

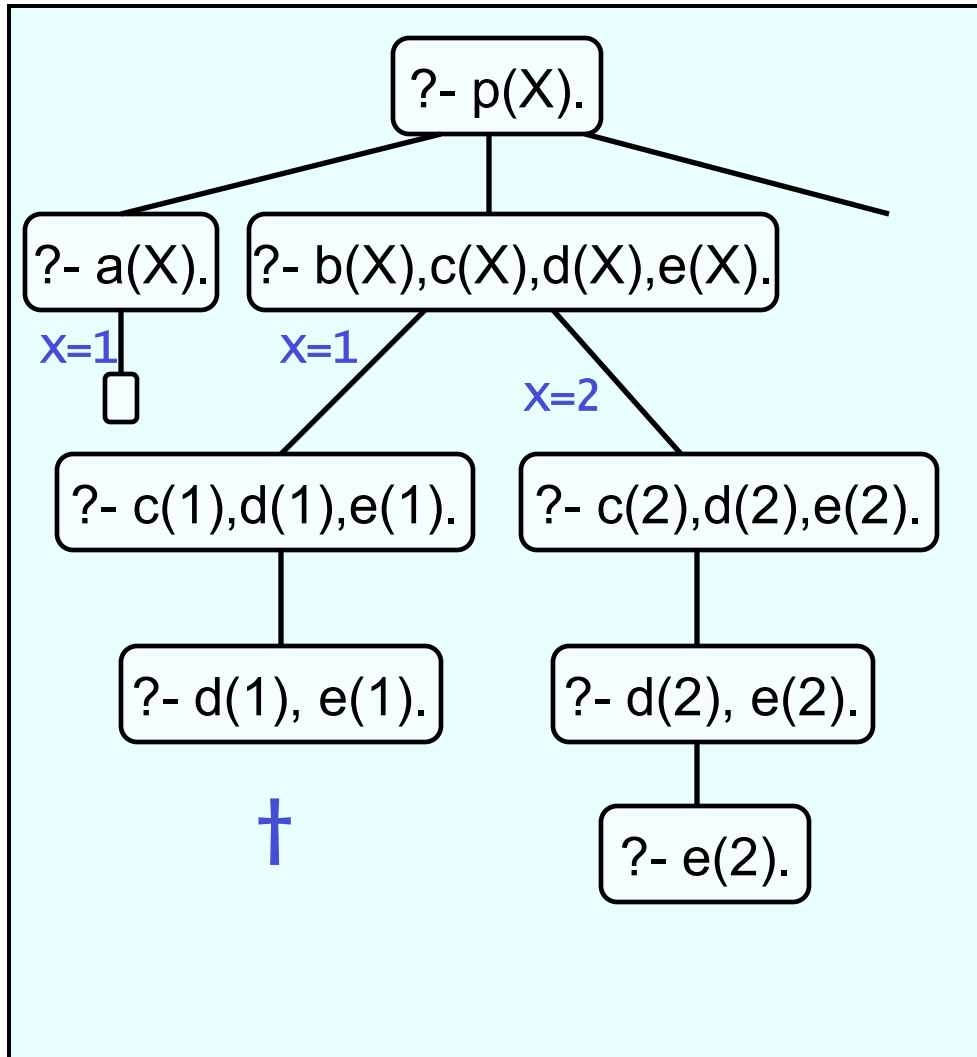
$?- p(X).$   
 $X=1;$



# Example: cut-free code

$p(X):- a(X).$   
 $p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).$   
 $p(X):- f(X).$   
 $a(1).$   
 $b(1). \quad b(2).$   
 $c(1). \quad c(2).$   
 $d(2).$   
 $e(2).$   
 $f(3).$

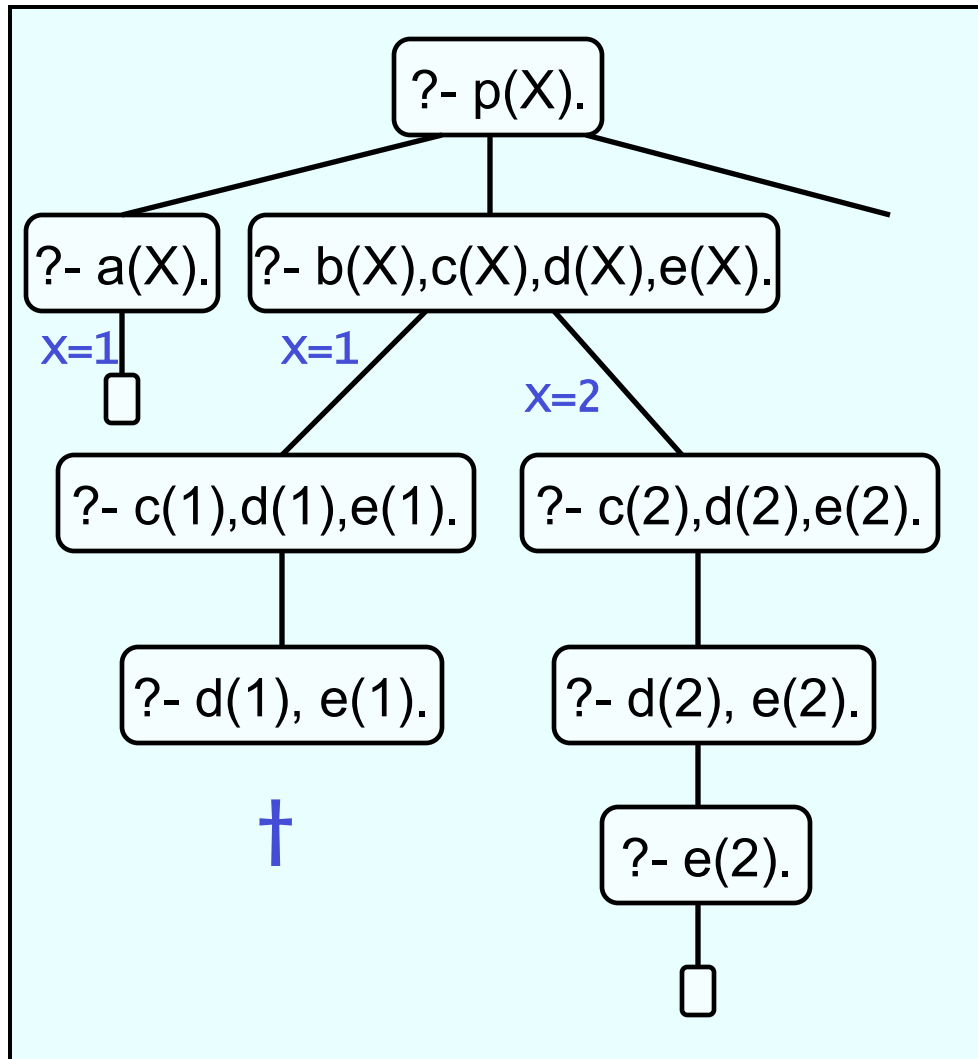
$?- p(X).$   
 $X=1;$



# Example: cut-free code

$p(X):- a(X).$   
 $p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).$   
 $p(X):- f(X).$   
 $a(1).$   
 $b(1). \quad b(2).$   
 $c(1). \quad c(2).$   
 $d(2).$   
 $e(2).$   
 $f(3).$

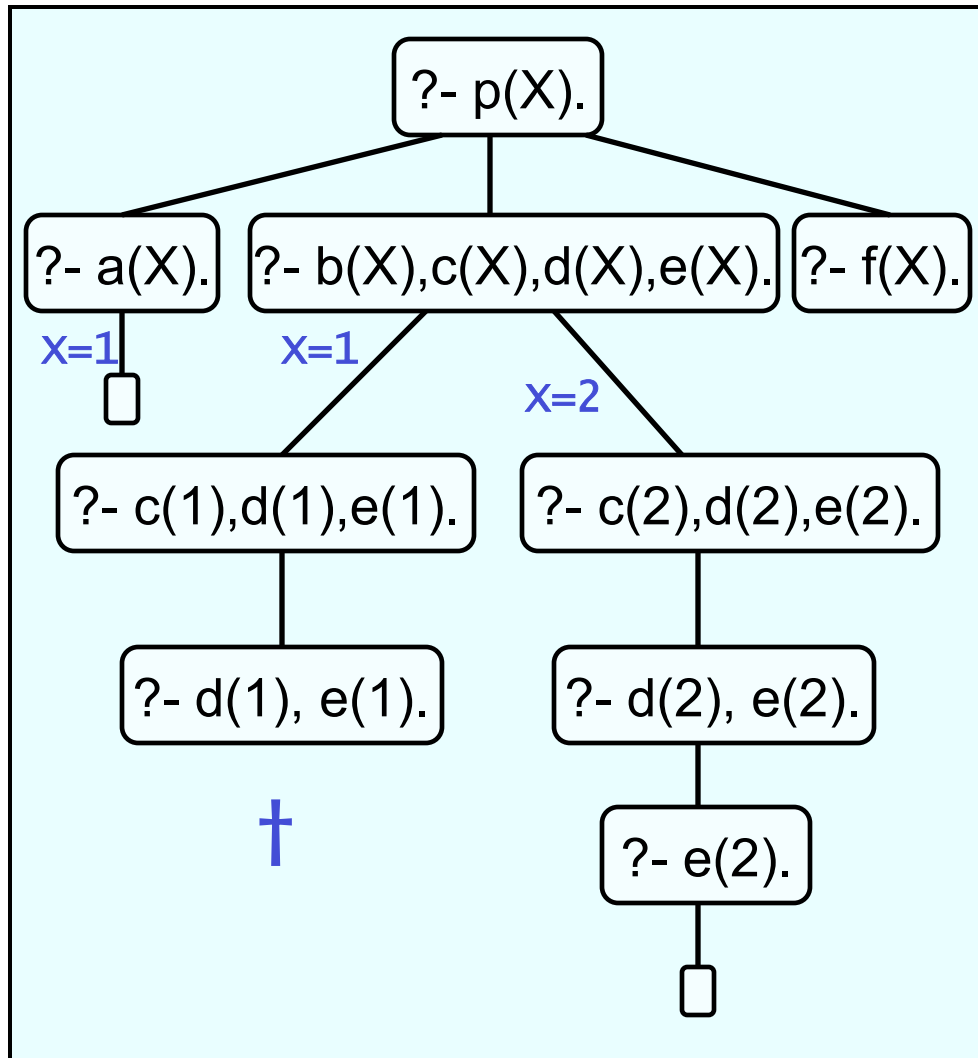
$?- p(X).$   
 $X=1;$   
 $X=2$



# Example: cut-free code

$p(X):- a(X).$   
 $p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).$   
 $p(X):- f(X).$   
 $a(1).$   
 $b(1). \quad b(2).$   
 $c(1). \quad c(2).$   
 $d(2).$   
 $e(2).$   
 $f(3).$

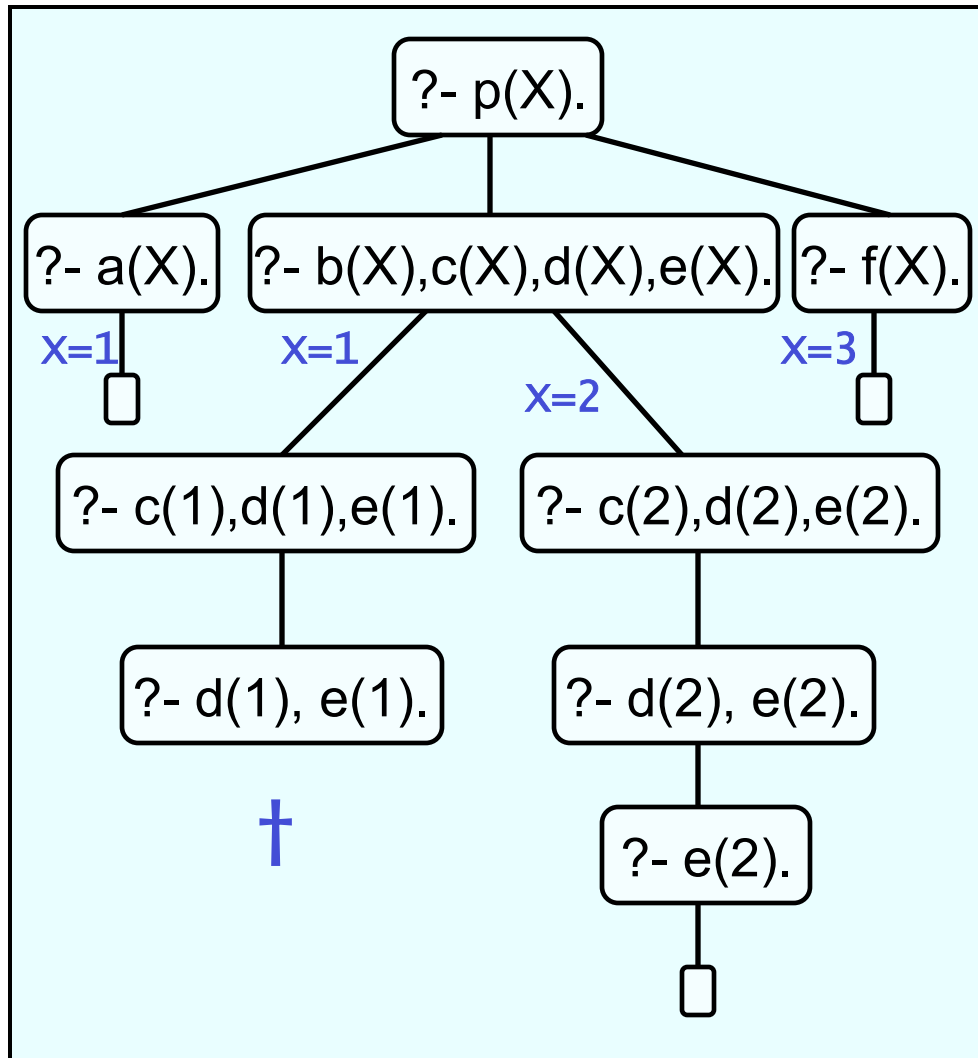
$?- p(X).$   
 $X=1;$   
 $X=2;$



# Example: cut-free code

$p(X):- a(X).$   
 $p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).$   
 $p(X):- f(X).$   
 $a(1).$   
 $b(1). \quad b(2).$   
 $c(1). \quad c(2).$   
 $d(2).$   
 $e(2).$   
 $f(3).$

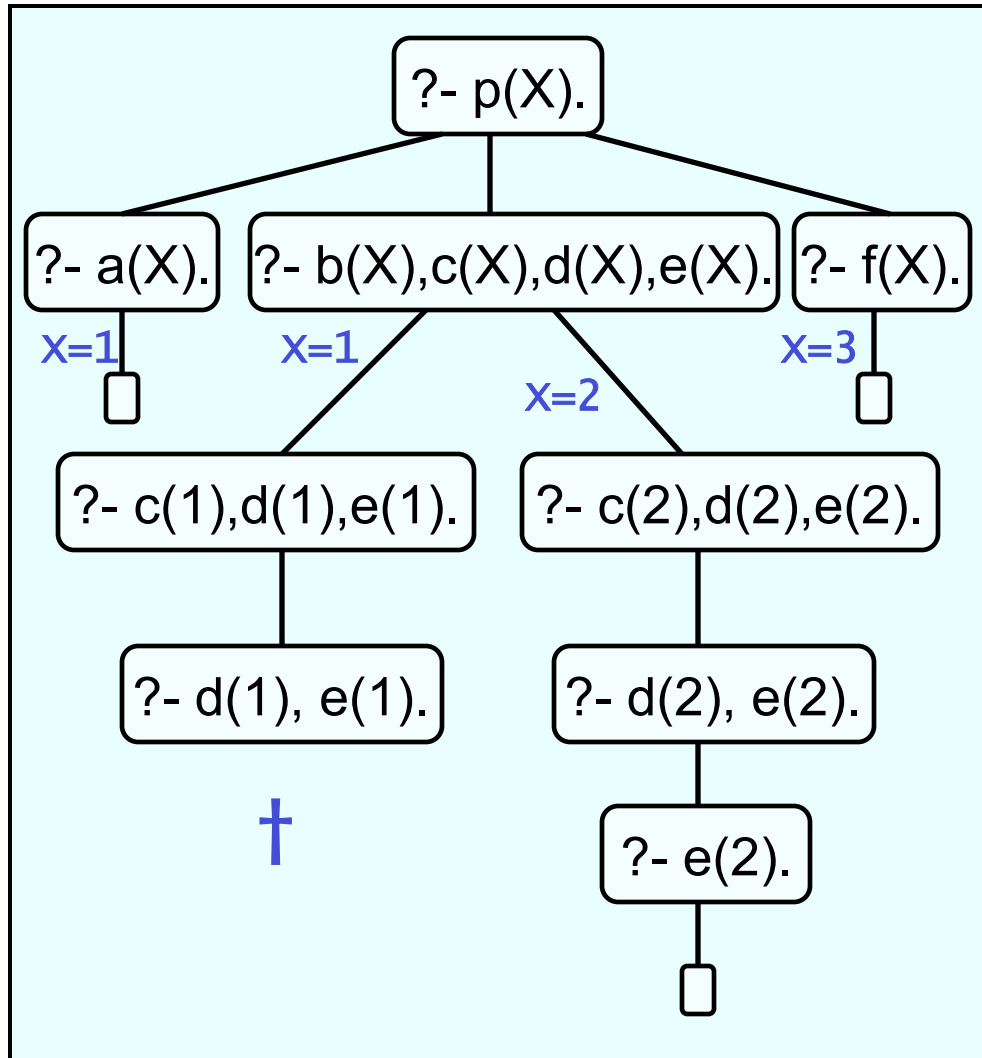
$?- p(X).$   
 $X=1;$   
 $X=2;$   
 $X=3$



# Example: cut-free code

p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X), c(X), d(X), e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).

?- p(X).  
X=1;  
X=2;  
X=3;  
no





# Adding a cut

- Suppose we insert a cut in the second clause:

```
p(X):- b(X), c(X), !, d(X), e(X).
```

- If we now pose the same query we will get the following response:

```
?- p(X).  
X=1;  
no
```

# Example: cut

```
p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X),c(X),!,d(X),e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1).  b(2).  
c(1).  c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).
```

```
?- p(X).
```

# Example: cut

$p(X):- a(X).$   
 $p(X):- b(X),c(X),!,d(X),e(X).$   
 $p(X):- f(X).$   
 $a(1).$   
 $b(1). \quad b(2).$   
 $c(1). \quad c(2).$   
 $d(2).$   
 $e(2).$   
 $f(3).$

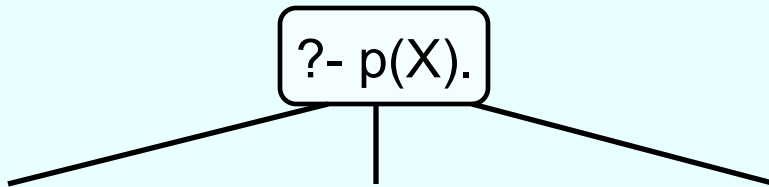
$?- p(X).$

$?- p(X).$

# Example: cut

p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X),c(X),!,d(X),e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).

?- p(X).

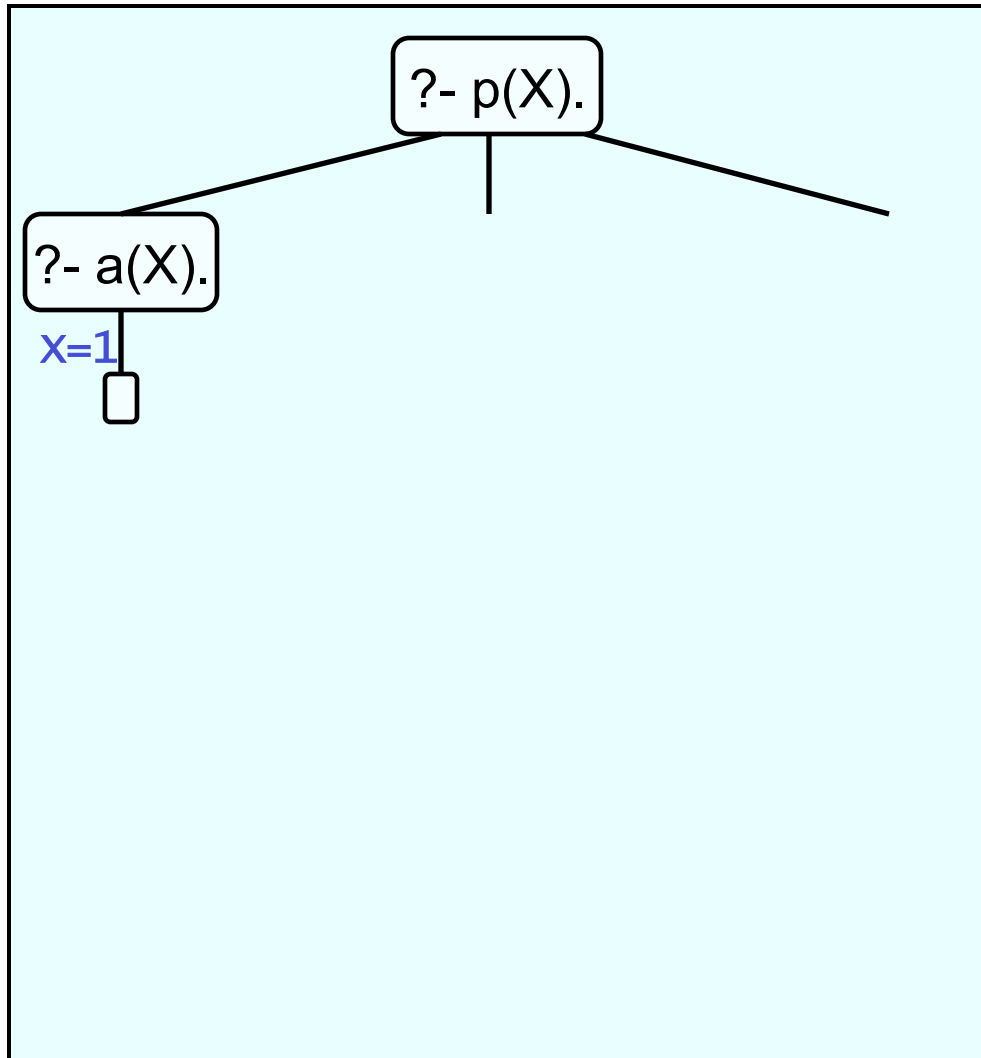


?- p(X).

# Example: cut

p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X),c(X),!,d(X),e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).

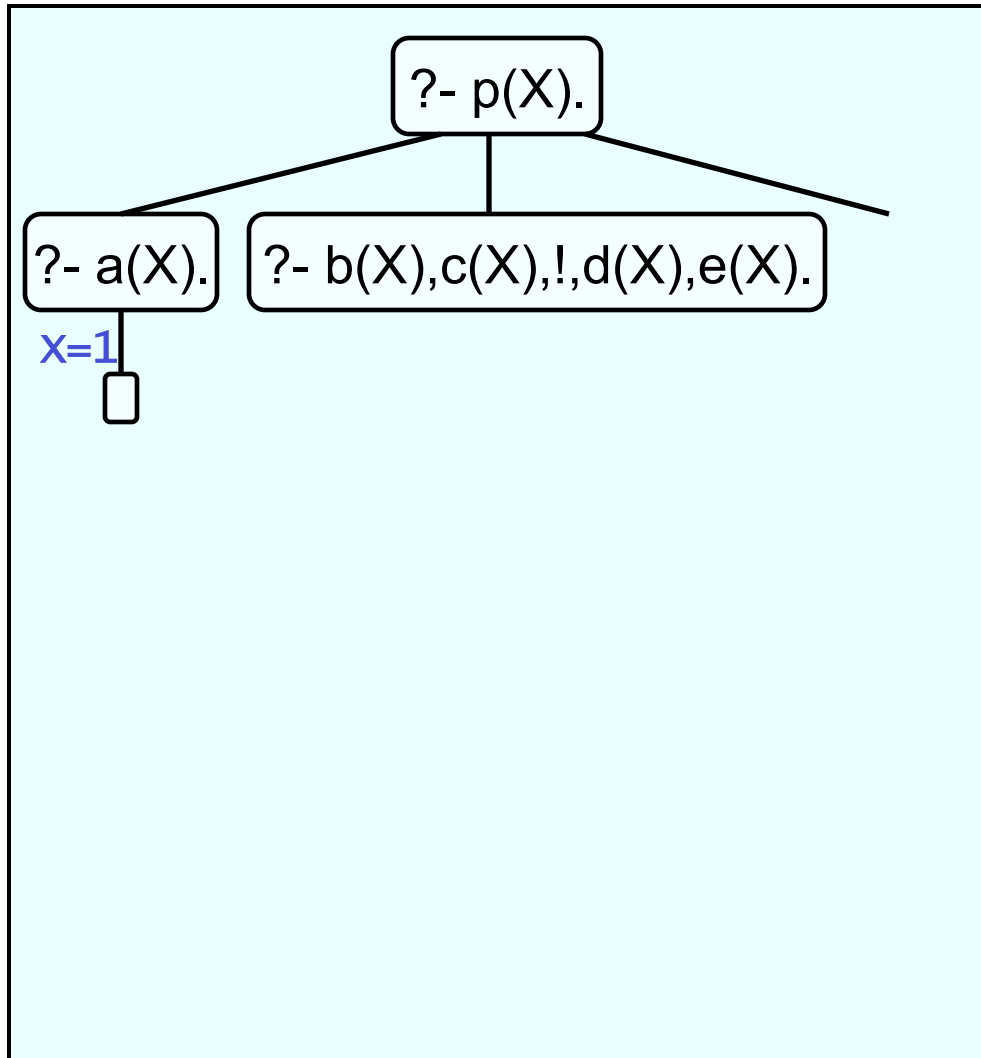
?- p(X).  
X=1



# Example: cut

p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X),c(X),!,d(X),e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).

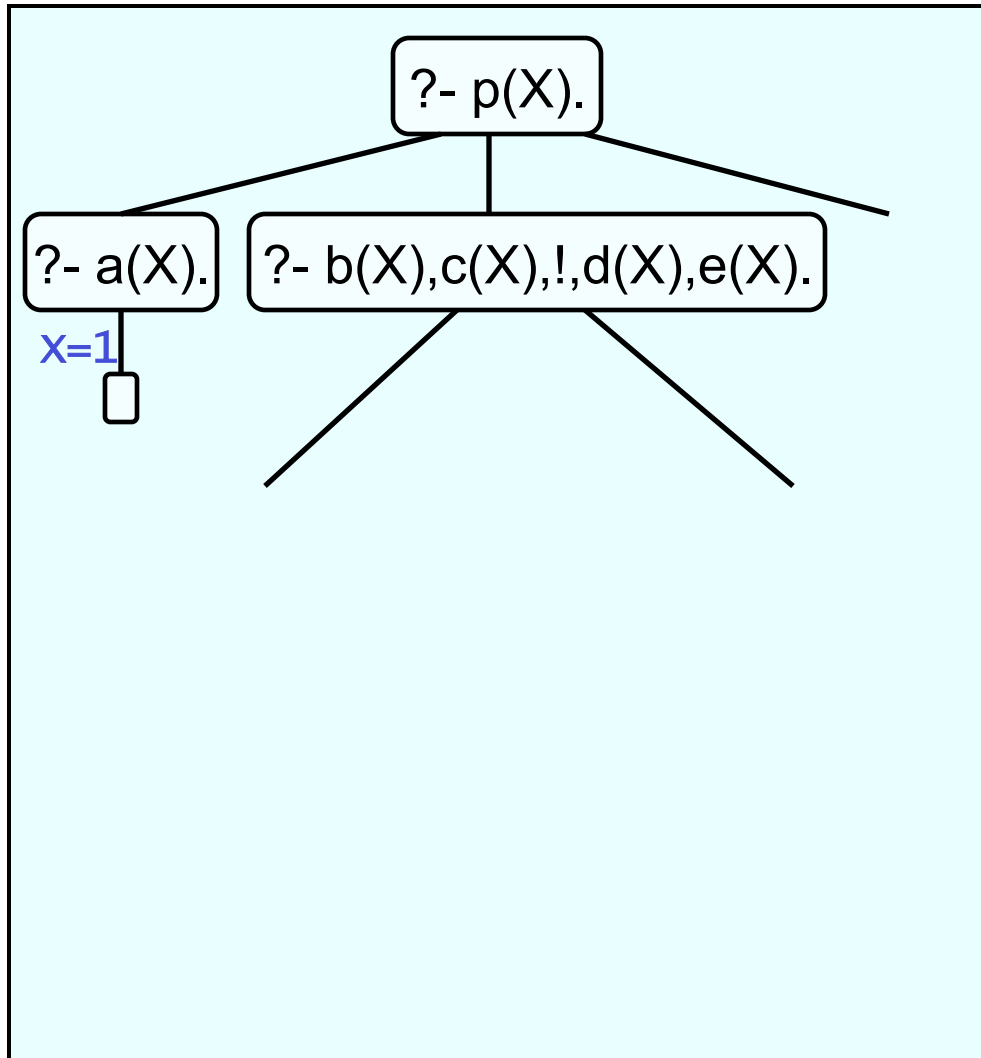
?- p(X).  
X=1;



# Example: cut

p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X),c(X),!,d(X),e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).

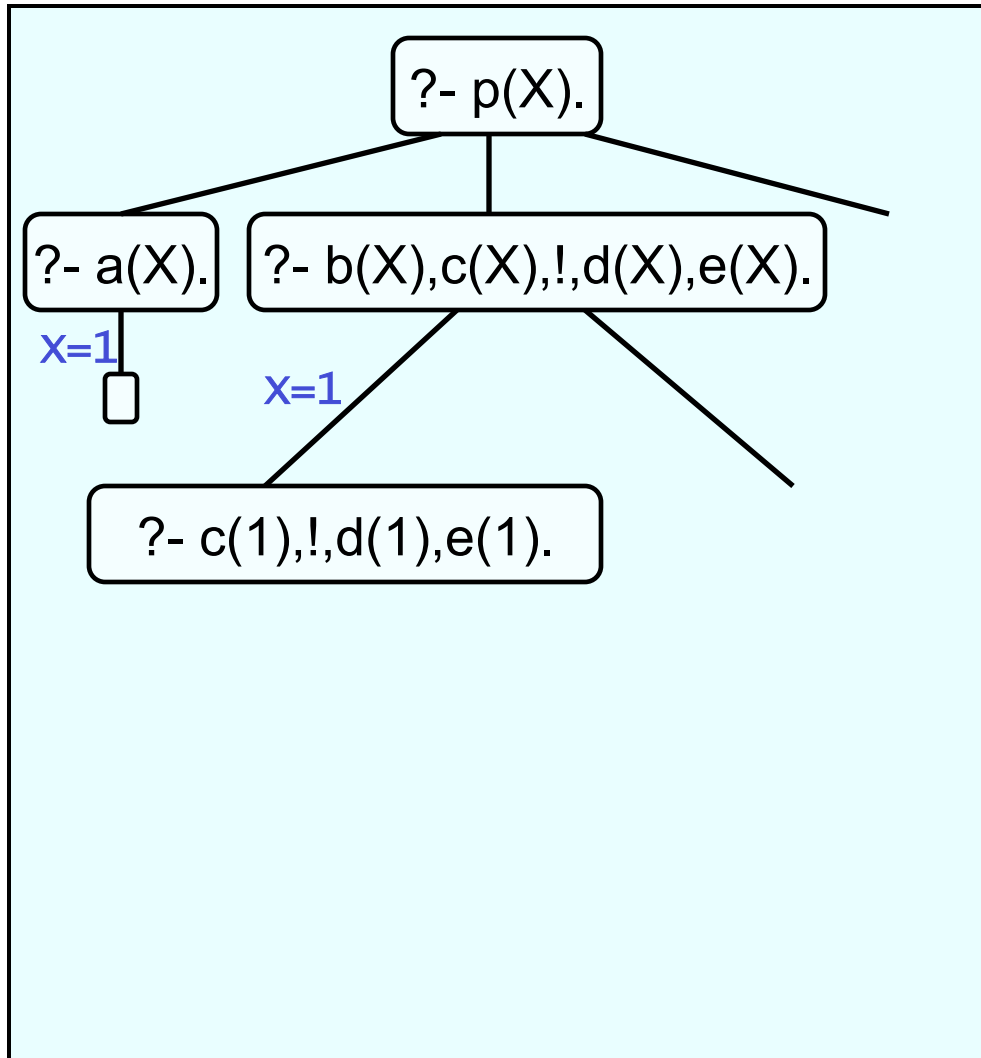
?- p(X).  
X=1;



# Example: cut

p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X),c(X),!,d(X),e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).

?- p(X).  
X=1;

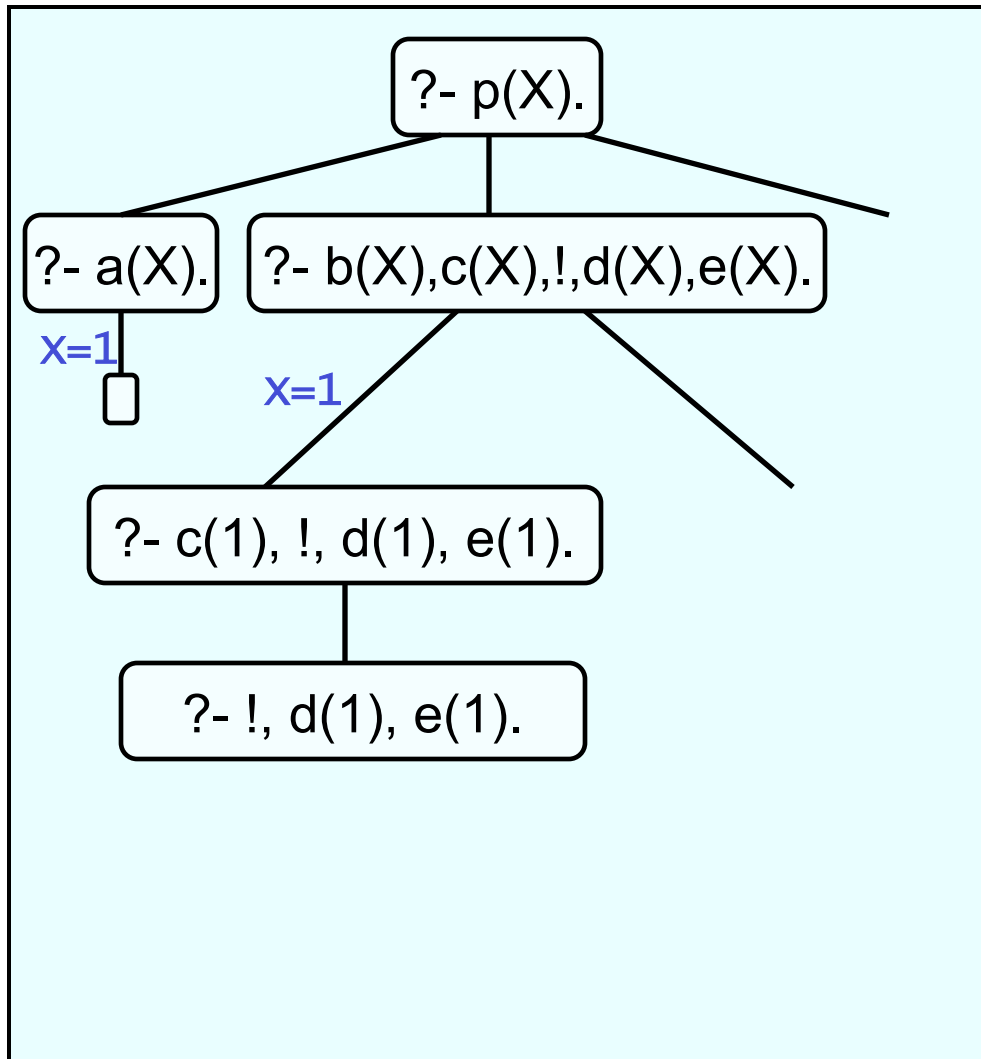




# Example: cut

p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X),c(X),!,d(X),e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).

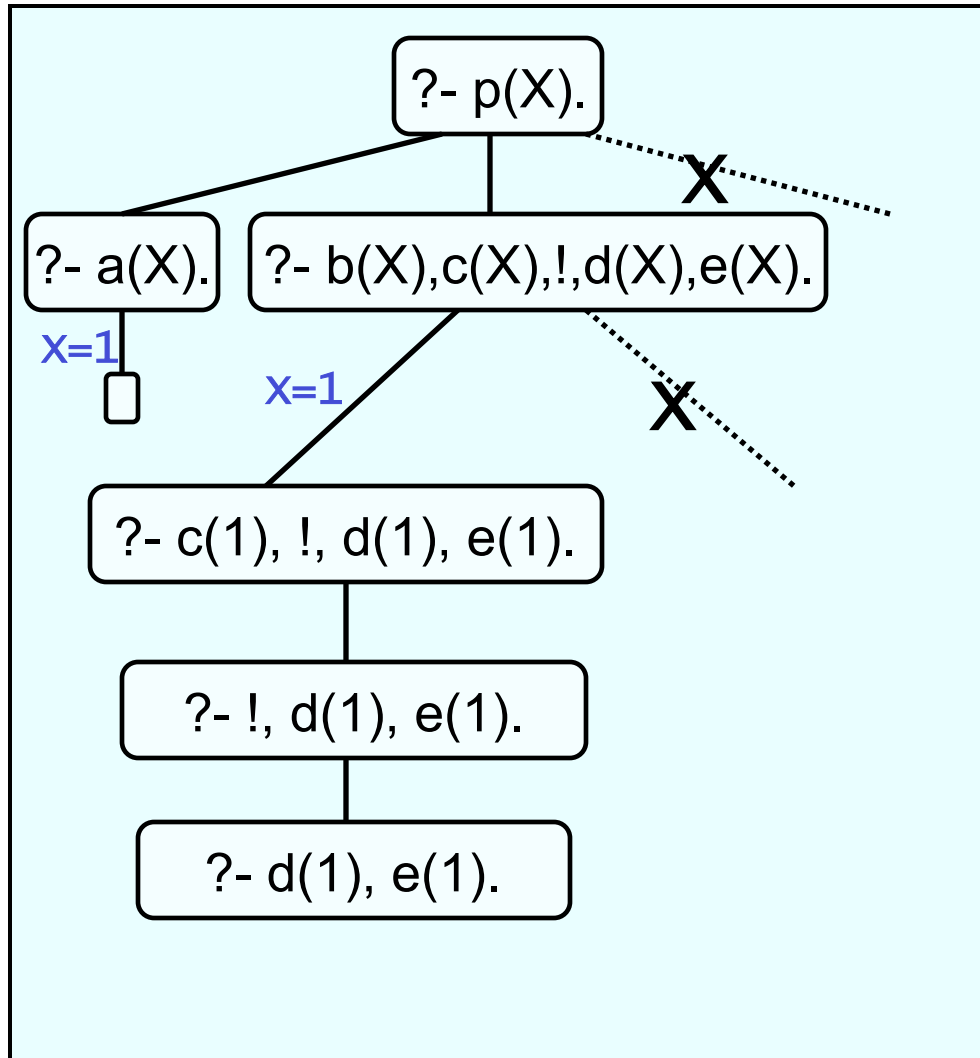
?- p(X).  
X=1;



# Example: cut

p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X),c(X),!,d(X),e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).

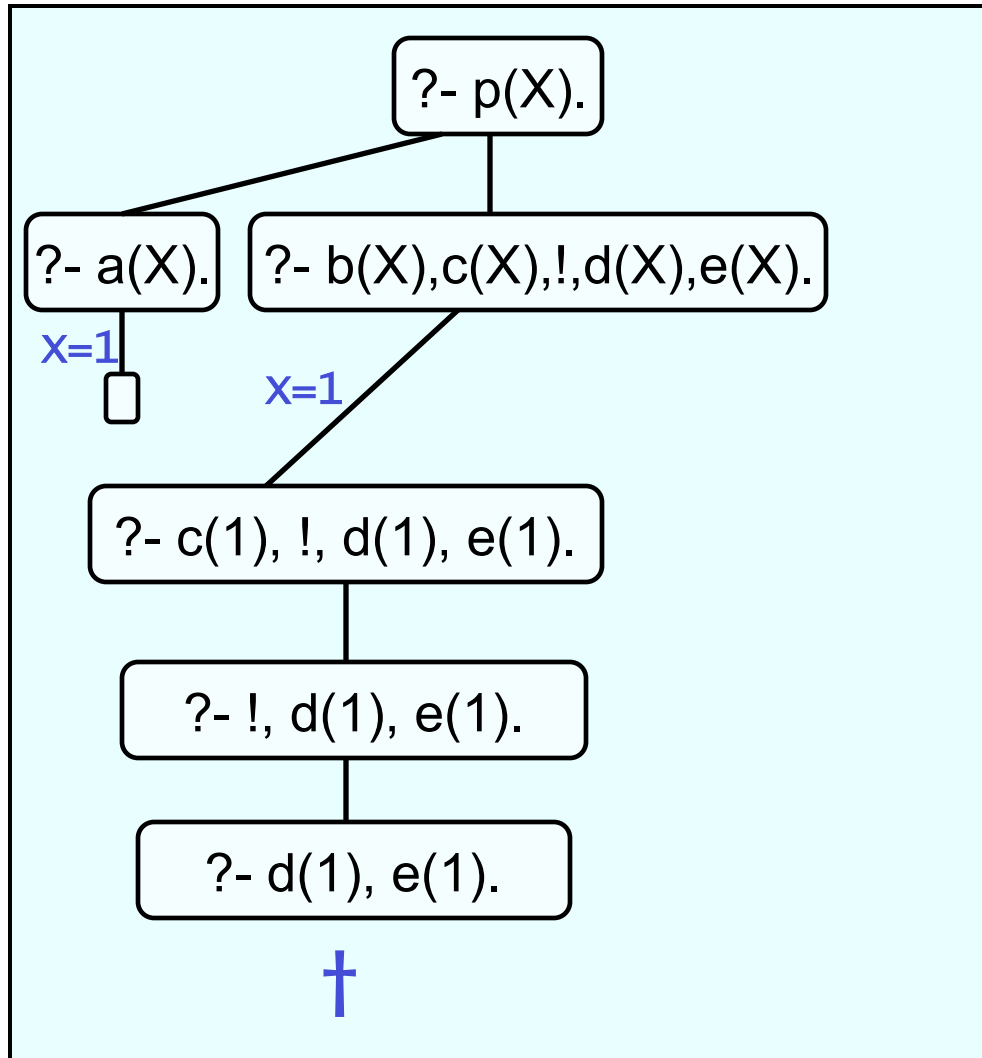
?- p(X).  
X=1;



# Example: cut

p(X):- a(X).  
p(X):- b(X),c(X),!,d(X),e(X).  
p(X):- f(X).  
a(1).  
b(1). b(2).  
c(1). c(2).  
d(2).  
e(2).  
f(3).

?- p(X).  
X=1;  
no



# What the cut does

- The cut only commits us to choices made since the parent goal was unified with the left-hand side of the clause containing the cut
- For example, in a rule of the form

$$q:- p_1, \dots, p_m, !, r_1, \dots, r_n.$$

when we reach the cut it commits us:

- to this particular clause of  $q$
- to the choices made by  $p_1, \dots, p_m$
- NOT to choices made by  $r_1, \dots, r_n$

# Using Cut

- Consider the following predicate `max/3` that succeeds if the third argument is the maximum of the first two

```
max(X,Y,Y):- X =< Y.  
max(X,Y,X):- X > Y.
```

# Using Cut

- Consider the following predicate `max/3` that succeeds if the third argument is the maximum of the first two

```
max(X,Y,Y):- X =< Y.  
max(X,Y,X):- X > Y.
```

```
?- max(2,3,3).
```

```
yes
```

```
?- max(7,3,7).
```

```
yes
```

# Using Cut

- Consider the following predicate `max/3` that succeeds if the third argument is the maximum of the first two

```
max(X,Y,Y):- X =< Y.  
max(X,Y,X):- X > Y.
```

```
?- max(2,3,2).
```

```
no
```

```
?- max(2,3,5).
```

```
no
```

# The max/3 predicate

- What is the problem?
- There is a potential inefficiency
  - Suppose it is called with `?- max(3,4,Y)`.
  - It will correctly unify `Y` with `4`
  - But when asked for more solutions, it will try to satisfy the second clause. This is completely pointless!

```
max(X,Y,Y):- X =< Y.
```

```
max(X,Y,X):- X > Y.
```



# max/3 with cut

- With the help of cut this is easy to fix

```
max(X,Y,Y):- X =< Y, !.  
max(X,Y,X):- X > Y.
```

- Note how this works:
  - If the  $X \leq Y$  succeeds, the cut commits us to this choice, and the second clause of max/3 is not considered
  - If the  $X \leq Y$  fails, Prolog goes on to the second clause

# Green and Red Cuts

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# Green Cuts

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- Cuts that do not change the meaning of a predicate are called **green cuts**
- The cut in `max/3` is an example of a green cut:
  - the new code gives exactly the same answers as the old version,
  - but it is more efficient

# Another max/3 with cut

- Why not remove the body of the second clause? After all, it is redundant.

```
max(X,Y,Y):- X =< Y, !.  
max(X,Y,X).
```



- How good is it?

# Another max/3 with cut

- Why not remove the body of the second clause? After all, it is redundant.

```
max(X,Y,Y):- X =< Y, !.  
max(X,Y,X).
```

- How good is it?
  - okay

```
?- max(200,300,X).  
X=300  
yes
```

# Another max/3 with cut

- Why not remove the body of the second clause? After all, it is redundant.

```
max(X,Y,Y):- X =< Y, !.  
max(X,Y,X).
```

- How good is it?
  - okay

```
?- max(400,300,X).  
X=400  
yes
```

# Another max/3 with cut

- Why not remove the body of the second clause? After all, it is redundant.

```
max(X,Y,Y):- X =< Y, !.  
max(X,Y,X).
```

- How good is it?
  - oops.....

```
?- max(200,300,200).  
yes
```

# Revised max/3 with cut

- Unification after crossing the cut

```
max(X,Y,Z):- X =< Y, !, Y=Z.  
max(X,Y,X).
```

- This does work

```
?- max(200,300,200).  
no
```



# Red Cuts

- Cuts that change the meaning of a predicate are called red cuts
- The cut in the revised max/3 is an example of a red cut:
  - If we take out the cut, we don't get an equivalent program
- Programs containing red cuts
  - Are not fully declarative
  - Can be hard to read
  - Can lead to subtle programming mistakes

# Another build-in predicate: fail/0

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- As the name suggests, this is a goal that will immediately fail when Prolog tries to prove it
- That may not sound too useful
- But remember:  
when Prolog fails, it tries to backtrack

# Big Kahuna Burger

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# Vincent and burgers

```
enjoys(vincent,X):- bigKahunaBurger(X), !, fail.  
enjoys(vincent,X):- burger(X).
```

```
burger(X):- bigMac(X).  
burger(X):- bigKahunaBurger(X).  
burger(X):- whopper(X).
```

```
bigMac(a).  
bigKahunaBurger(b).  
bigMac(c).  
whopper(d).
```

The cut fail combination  
allows us to code exceptions

# Vincent and burgers

```
enjoys(vincent,X):- bigKahunaBurger(X), !, fail.  
enjoys(vincent,X):- burger(X).
```

```
burger(X):- bigMac(X).  
burger(X):- bigKahunaBurger(X).  
burger(X):- whopper(X).
```

```
bigMac(a).  
bigKahunaBurger(b).  
bigMac(c).  
whopper(d).
```

```
?- enjoys(vincent,a).  
yes
```

# Vincent and burgers

```
enjoys(vincent,X):- bigKahunaBurger(X), !, fail.  
enjoys(vincent,X):- burger(X).
```

```
burger(X):- bigMac(X).  
burger(X):- bigKahunaBurger(X).  
burger(X):- whopper(X).
```

```
bigMac(a).  
bigKahunaBurger(b).  
bigMac(c).  
whopper(d).
```

```
?- enjoys(vincent,b).  
no
```

# Vincent and burgers

```
enjoys(vincent,X):- bigKahunaBurger(X), !, fail.  
enjoys(vincent,X):- burger(X).
```

```
burger(X):- bigMac(X).  
burger(X):- bigKahunaBurger(X).  
burger(X):- whopper(X).
```

```
bigMac(a).  
bigKahunaBurger(b).  
bigMac(c).  
whopper(d).
```

```
?- enjoys(vincent,c).  
yes
```

# Vincent and burgers

```
enjoys(vincent,X):- bigKahunaBurger(X), !, fail.  
enjoys(vincent,X):- burger(X).
```

```
burger(X):- bigMac(X).  
burger(X):- bigKahunaBurger(X).  
burger(X):- whopper(X).
```

```
bigMac(a).  
bigKahunaBurger(b).  
bigMac(c).  
whopper(d).
```

```
?- enjoys(vincent,d).  
yes
```



# Negation as Failure

- The cut-fail combination seems to be offering us some form of negation
- It is called negation as failure, and defined as follows:

```
neg(Goal):- Goal, !, fail.  
neg(Goal).
```

# Vincent and burgers revisited

```
enjoys(vincent,X):- burger(X),  
                    neg(bigKahunaBurger(X)).
```

```
burger(X):- bigMac(X).  
burger(X):- bigKahunaBurger(X).  
burger(X):- whopper(X).
```

```
bigMac(a).  
bigKahunaBurger(b).  
bigMac(c).  
whopper(d).
```

# Vincent and burgers revisited

```
enjoys(vincent,X):- burger(X),  
                    neg(bigKahunaBurger(X)).
```

```
burger(X):- bigMac(X).  
burger(X):- bigKahunaBurger(X).  
burger(X):- whopper(X).
```

```
bigMac(a).  
bigKahunaBurger(b).  
bigMac(c).  
whopper(d).
```

```
?- enjoys(vincent,X).  
X=a;  
X=c;  
X=d;  
no
```

# Another build-in predicate: \+

- Because negation as failure is so often used, there is no need to define it
- In standard Prolog the prefix operator \+ means negation as failure
- So we could define Vincent's preferences as follows:

```
enjoys(vincent,X):- burger(X),  
                    \+ bigKahunaBurger(X).
```

```
?- enjoys(vincent,X).
```

```
X=a;
```

```
X=c;
```

```
X=d;
```

```
no
```

# Negation as failure and logic

- Negation as failure is *not* logical negation
- Changing the order of the goals in the Vincent and burgers program gives a different behaviour:

```
enjoys(vincent,X):- \+ bigKahunaBurger(X),  
                    burger(X).
```

```
?- enjoys(vincent,X).  
no
```