	Manipulating the Database
<section-header><section-header><section-header><section-header><section-header><text><text><text><text><text></text></text></text></text></text></section-header></section-header></section-header></section-header></section-header>	 So far we have assumed that the Prolog database is static, i.e. that it is loaded once with the program and never changes thereafter. This is not necessarily true; we can add or remove facts and rules from the database at will. This is not necessarily good programming practice, but sometimes it is necessary and sometimes it makes for elegant programs. In a nutshell: Allows us to program with side effects. Ustified under some circumstances. Often inefficient.
Assert	Assert
 assert(X) adds a clause to the database. Not defined in gprolog! asserta(X) adds a clause to the <i>beginning</i> of the database. assertz(X) adds a clause to the <i>end</i> of the database. assert always succeeds, and backtracking does not undo the assertion. 	 assert can be used in <i>machine learning</i> programs, program which learn new facts as they progress. In some Prolog implementations you have to specify whether a certain clause is dynamic (new clauses can be added to the database during execution) or static: - dynamic(hanoi/5). This means that we can add and remove clauses with five arguments whose functor is hanoi.

Assert ... – Example

Assert ... – Example

- Write a program that learns the addresses of places in a city.
- This program assumes a Manhattan-style city layout: locations are given as the intersection of streets and avenues.

```
?- loc(whitehorse, Ave, St).
Ave = 8, St = 11
?- loc(airport, Ave, St).
    -- this airport
    what avenue? 5.
    what street? 32.
Ave = 5, St = 32
?- loc(airport, Ave, St).
    Ave = 5, St = 32
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```

location(whitehorse, 8, 11). location(microsoft, 8, 42). location(condomeria, 8, 43). location(plunket, 7, 32). % Do we know the location of X? loc(X, Ave, Str) :- location(X, Ave, Str), !. % if not, learn it! loc(X, Ave, Street) :nonvar(X), var(Ave), var(Str),

write('-- this '), write(X), nl, write('what avenue? '), read(Ave), write('what street? '), read(Street), assert(location(X, Ave, Str)).

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Retract

- retract(X) removes the first clause that matches X.
- assert and retract behave differently on backtracking. When we backtrack through assert nothing happens. When we backtrack to retract Prolog continues searching the database trying to find another matching clause. If one is found it is removed.
- If the argument to retract(clause(X)) contains some uninstantiated variables they will be instantiated.
- retract(X) fails when no matching clause can be found.

Retract...

Backtracking does not undo the removal.

```
retractall(X) :-
   retract(X), fail.
retractall(X) :-
   retract((X :- Y))),
   fail.
retractall(_).
```

Clause	Clause
 clause(X, Y) finds all clauses in the database with head x and body Y. append([], X, X). append([A B],C,[A D]) :- append(B, C, D). Clause(append(X, Y, Z), T). x=[], Y=_3, Z=_3, Y=true ; x=[_4 _5], Y=_6, Z=[_4 _7],	 The goal clause(X, Y) instantiates X to the head of a goal (the left side of :-) and Y to the body. X can be just a variable (in which case it will match all the clauses in the database), a fully instantiated (<i>ground</i>) term, or a term which contains some uninstantiated variables. Note that a fact has a body true.
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Clause	Clausal Representation of Data Structure
<pre>List all the clauses whose head matches X. list(X) :- clause(X, Y), print(X, Y), write('.'), nl, fail. list(_).</pre>	 Normally we represent a data structure using a combination of Prolog lists and structures. A graph can for example be represented as a list of edges, where each edge is represented by a binary structure: <pre>[edge(a,b), edge(c,b), edge(a,d), edge(c,d)]</pre>
<pre>print(X, true) :- !, write(X). print(X, Y) :- write((X :- Y))). ?- list(append(X, Y, Z)). append([], _4, _4). append([_5 _6],_7,[_5 _8]) :- append([_6, _8, _8).</pre>	 However, it is also possible to use <i>clauses</i> to represent data structures such as lists, trees, and graphs. It is usually not a good idea to do this, but sometimes it is useful, particularly when we are faced with a <i>static</i> data structure (one which does not change, or changes very little).



Clausal Representation...

Switches

 In general it is a bad idea to represent data in this way. Inserting and removing data has to be done using assert and retract, which are fairly expensive operations. However, in Prolog implementations which support <i>clause indexing</i>, storing data in clauses gives us a way to access information <i>directly</i>, rather than through sequential search. 	 From Prolog by Example, Coelho & Cotta. In some cases it is a good idea to use global data rather than passing it around as a parameter. Assume we want to be able to switch between short and long error messages. Instead of extending every clause by an extra parameter (clumsy and inefficient) we use a global switch. The first clause in turnon will fire if the switch is
 The reason for this is that <i>indexing</i> uses hash tables to access clauses. Fall 2005 – 22 [17] 	 already turned on. The first clause in turnoff fails if Switch was already off. The first clause in flip fails if Switch was turned off, in which case the second clause fires and the switch is turned on.
Switches	Switches
<pre>turnon(Switch) :- call(Switch), !. turnon(Switch) :- assert(Switch). turnoff(Switch) :- retract(Switch). turnoff(_). flip(Switch) :- retract(Switch), !. flip(Switch) :- assert(Switch).</pre>	<pre>turnon(terse_mess). flip(terse_mess). message(C) :- terse_mes, write ('Error!'), nl, !. message(C) :- write ('We are sorry to'), write ('error has occurred near the symbol '), write(C), write('. Please accept our'), nl, !.</pre>

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Memoization

Memoization – Towers of Hanoi

 Many recursive program are extremely inefficient because they solve the same subproblem several times. In dynamic programming the idea is simply to store the results of a computation in a table, and when we try to solve the same problem again we retrieve the value from the table rather than computing the value once more. There is a variation of dynamic programming known as memoization. 	 I'm sure you've heard of the Towers of Hanoi problem. It is one first year computer science students are tortured with to no end. The problem is to move a number of disks from a peg A to a peg B, using a peg C as intermediate storage. Additionally, we are only allowed to put smaller disks onto larger disks. A recursive solution of the problem to move N disks from A to B is as follows: Move N - 1 disks from A to C. Move the remaining (largest) disk from A to B.
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Memoization – Towers of Hanoi	Memoization – Towers of Hanoi
	<pre>:- op(100, xfx, to). hanoi(1, A, B, C, [A to B]). hanoi(N, A, B, C, Ms) :- N > 1, N1 is N-1, hanoi(N1, A, C, B, M1), hanoi(N1, C, B, A, M2), append(M1, [A to B M2], Ms). go(N, Moves) :- hanoi(N, a, b, c, Moves).</pre>

Memoization – Towers of Hanoi...



Memoization – Towers of Hanoi...

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Example – Gensym...

gensym(Root, Atom) : get_num(Root, Num),
 name(Root, Name1),
 int_name(Num, Name2),
 append(Name1, Name2, Name),
 name(Atom, Name).

```
get_num(Root, Num) :-
   retract(current_num(Root, Num1)),
   !, Num is Num1 + 1,
   asserta(current_num(Root, Num)).
get_num(Root, 1) :-
   asserta(current_num(Root, 1)).
```

Example – Gensym...

```
int_name(Int, List) :- int_name(Int, [], List).
int_name(I, Sofar, [C|Sofar]) :-
I<10, !, C is I+48.
int_name(I, Sofar, List) :-
Tophalf is I/10, Bothalf is I mod 10,
C is Bothalf + 48,
int_name(Tophalf, [C|Sofar], List).
?- gensym(chris, A).
A = chris1
?- gensym(chris, A).
A = chris2
?- gensym(chris, A).
A = chris3
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```

Readings and References

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Read Clocksin-Mellish, Chapter 6.

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