

CS370



Symbolic Programming Declarative Programming

LECTURE 10: Programming Style

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Programming Style

- ⊙ **General principles of good programming**
- ⊙ **How to think about Prolog programs**
- ⊙ **Programming style**
- ⊙ **Debugging**
- ⊙ **Improving efficiency**

General principles

◎ Criteria

- ◆ Correctness
- ◆ User-friendliness
- ◆ Efficiency
- ◆ Readability
- ◆ Modifiability
- ◆ Robustness
- ◆ Documentation

General principles

© Top-down Stepwise Refinement

- ◆ rough solutions: most relevant
- ◆ succinct and simple: likely to be correct
- ◆ small refinement steps: intellectually manageable

How to think about Prolog programs

◎ Use of recursion

- ◆ boundary cases and general cases
- ◆ Example

```
maplist(List,F,NewList)
```

```
maplist([ ],_,[ ]).
```

```
maplist([X|Tail],F,[NewX|NewTail]) :-
```

```
    G =.. [F,X,NewX],
```

```
    call(G),
```

```
    maplist(Tail,F,NewTail).
```

```
?- maplist([2,6,5],square,Squares).
```

How to think about Prolog programs

◎ Generalization

- ◆ enables recursive formulation;
- ◆ makes the original a special case.

- ◆ Example

eightqueens(Pos)

nqueens(Pos,N)

- boundary case: $N = 0$

- general case: $N > 0$

eightqueens(Pos) :- nqueens(Pos,8).

How to think about Prolog programs

◎ Using pictures

- ◆ With pictorial representation, essential relations are easily perceived.
- ◆ Mapping to Prolog
 - nodes and arcs in graphs can be modeled by objects and relations.
 - trees are mapped by structured objects
 - declarative meaning makes the order of translation irrelevant

Programming style

© Why follow stylistic conventions?

© Some rules

short clauses

short procedures

mnemonic names

layout of the programs

consistent stylistic conventions

cut and **not** should be used with much care

assert/retract with much care

semicolon

Programming style

◎ Tabular organization

- ◆ for long procedures
 - Clear structure
 - Incrementality
 - Modification

◎ Commenting

Debugging

◎ Principle of debugging

- ◆ Test smaller units first.

◎ Debugging aids

trace

notrace

spy(P)

nospyp(P)

Improving Efficiency

◎ Factors

- ◆ execution time
- ◆ space requirements
- ◆ the time for program development
- ◆ frequency of use

Improving Efficiency

© Areas of successful Prolog applications

- ◆ symbolic solutions for equations, planning, and databases
- ◆ general problem solving, prototyping
- ◆ implementation of programming languages
- ◆ discrete and qualitative simulation
- ◆ architectural design, machine learning
- ◆ natural language understanding, expert systems

Improving Efficiency

© Improving the efficiency of an eight queens program

```
member(Y,[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8]).
```

```
member(Y,[1,5,2,6,3,7,4,8]).
```

Improving Efficiency

◎ Map colouring program

- ◆ The goal is to assign each country in a given map one of four given colours such that no two neighbouring countries are painted with the same colour.
- ◆ A map is specified by the neighbor relation
`ngb(Country, Neighbours)`

`ngb(andorra, [france, spain]).`

`ngb(austria, [czech_republic, germany, hungary, italy,
liechtenstein, slovakia, slovenia, switzerland])`

- ◆ Let a solution be represented as a list of pairs of the form: `Country/Colour`
 - `[albania/C1, andorra/C2, austria/C3, ...]`

Improving Efficiency

◎ Map colouring program

- ◆ Define the predicate `colours(Country_colour_list)`
- ◆ Assume the colors yellow, blue, red, and green.

```
colours([ ]).
```

```
colours([Country/Colour|Rest]) :- colours(Rest),  
    member(Colour,[yellow,blue,red,green]),  
    not(member(Country1/Colour,Rest),  
        neighbor(Country,Country1)).
```

```
neighbor(Country,Country1) :-  
    ngb(Country,Neighbours),  
    member(Country1,Neighbours).
```

Improving Efficiency

⊙ Map colouring program

◆ Inefficient

- if there is a large number of countries, such as Europe.

```
country(C) :- ngb(C,_).
```

```
?- setof(Cntry/Colour,country(Cntry),CountryColourList),  
   colours(CountryColourList).
```


Improving Efficiency

◎ Map colouring program

```
makelist(List) :- collect([germany],[ ],List).
collect([ ],Closed,Closed).           % no more candidates
collect([X|Open],Closed,List) :-
    member(X,Closed), !,              % X is already collected
    collect(Open,Closed,List).
collect([X|Open],Closed,List) :-
    ngb(X,Ngbs),
    conc(Ngbs,Open,Open1),
    collect(Open1,[X|Closed],List).
```

Improving Efficiency

◎ List concatenation

◆ Simple concatenation

```
conc([ ],L,L).
```

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

```
?- conc([a,b,c],[d,e],L).
```

```
conc([a,b,c],[d,e],L).
```

```
    conc([b,c],[d,e],L')
```

```
        conc([c],[d,e],L'')
```

```
            conc([],[d,e],L''')
```

```
                true
```

Improving Efficiency

◎ List concatenation

- ◆ Use of difference lists

$[a,b,c]$ as $[a,b,c,d,e]-[d,e],$

$[a,b,c]-[],$

$[a,b,c,d,e|T]-[d,e|T], \dots$

$\text{concat}(A1-Z1,Z1-Z2,A1-Z2).$

?- $\text{concat}([a,b,c|T1]-T1,[d,e|T2]-T2,L).$

$T1 = [d,e|T2]$

$L = [a,b,c,d,e|T2]-T2$

Improving Efficiency

◎ Last call optimization and accumulators

- ◆ Use tail recursion: `sumlist(List,Sum)`

% without tail recursion

```
sumlist([ ], 0).
```

```
sumlist([X|Rest],Sum) :- sumlist(Rest,Sum0),  
                        Sum is X + Sum0.
```

% with tail recursion

```
sumlist(List,Sum) :- sumlist(List,0,Sum).
```

```
sumlist([ ],Sum,Sum).
```

```
sumlist([First|Rest],PartialSum,TotalSum) :-  
    NewPartialSum is PartialSum + First,  
    sumlist(Rest,NewPartialSum,TotalSum).
```

Improving Efficiency

◎ Last call optimization and accumulators

- ◆ Use tail recursion with an accumulator

```
% reverse(List,ReversedList).
```

```
reverse([ ],[ ]).
```

```
reverse([X|Rest],Reversed) :- reverse(Rest,RevRest),  
                             conc(RevRest,[X],Reversed).
```

```
% with an accumulator
```

```
reverse(List,Reversed) :- reverse(List,[ ],Reversed).
```

```
reverse([ ],Reversed,Reversed).
```

```
reverse([X|Rest],PartReversed,TotalReversed) :-  
    reverse(Rest,[X|PartReversed],TotalReversed).
```

Improving Efficiency

© Simulating arrays with arg

- ◆ direct indexing with arg and functor
functor(A,f,100) gives rise to $A = f(_,_,_,\dots,_)$.
 $A[60] := 1$ can be done by $\text{arg}(60,A,1)$.
 $X := A[60]$ corresponds to $\text{arg}(60,A,X)$.
- ◆ updating the values
 - several possibilities

Improving Efficiency

◎ Asserting derived facts: fib(N,F)

1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, ...

fib(1,1).

fib(2,1).

fib(N,F) :- N > 2, N1 is N-1, fib(N1,F1),
N2 is N-2, fib(N2,F2), F is F1+F2.

?- fib(6,F).

Improving Efficiency

◎ Asserting derived facts:

fib2(N,F)

fib2(1,1).

fib2(2,1).

fib2(N,F) :- N > 2, N1 is N-1,
fib2(N1,F1), N2 is N-2,
fib2(N2,F2), F is F1+F2,
asserta(fib2(N,F)).

Improving Efficiency

◎ Asserting derived facts: **fib3(N,F)**

`fib3(N,F) :- forwardfib(2,N,1,1,F).`

`forwardfib(M,N,F1,F2,F2) :- M >= N.`

`forwardfib(M,N,F1,F2,F) :-`

`M < N, NextM is M + 1,`

`NextF2 is F1 + F2, forwardfib(NextM,N,F2,NextF2,F).`

Summary

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- ◎ **How to think about Prolog programs**
- ◎ **Programming style**
- ◎ **Debugging**
- ◎ **Improving efficiency**