
CSEN403 – Concepts of Programming Languages

Topics:

Logic Programming Paradigm: PROLOG

Binary Trees

Lists in Prolog

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Recap

- Recursion
- Successor Notation
- Reminder: Your quiz is Today, be present at your designated exam hall 10 minutes before the quiz time.
- Preliminary schedule for submissions of the course other than midterm and final is shared on CMS.
- Project 1 document is to be shared after the quiz.
- Piazza has been created to organize your communications and make your questions shareable amongst each other

- **Binary trees** can be represented as structures with three arguments:

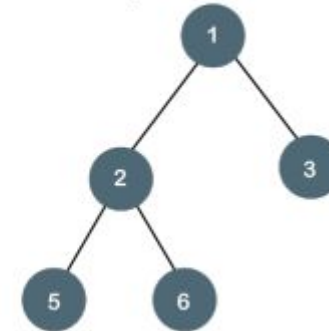
`bt(Key, LeftSubTree, RightSubTree).`

- The **leaves** of the trees can be denoted by:

`bt(key, nil, nil)`

where `nil` is just a constant to represent an empty tree.

- Example:



```
bt( 1,  
  bt( 2, bt(5,nil,nil),  bt(6,nil,nil) ) ,  
  bt(3,nil,nil) )
```

Example

Implement a predicate `sum_nodes/2`. `sum(T,S)` is true if `S` is the sum of all of the nodes in the tree `T`.

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```
sum_nodes(nil, 0).  
sum_nodes(bt(Key,L,R), S):-  
    sum_nodes(L, SL),  
    sum_nodes(R, SR),  
    S is Key + SL + SR.
```

Example

Implement a predicate `count_leaves/2`. `count_leaves(T,L)` is true if `L` is the number of leaves in the tree `T`.

Example

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```
count_leaves(nil, 0).  
count_leaves(bt(_,nil,nil), 1).  
count_leaves(bt(Key, L, R),Leaves) :-  
    count_leaves(L, LL),  
    count_leaves(R, LR),  
    Leaves is LL + LR.
```

- A useful **data structure** to be able to list a number of items and go through them.
- **Notation:** $[H|T]$ where
 - H is the **head** of the list (first item); and
 - T is the **tail** of the list (everything without the head).

Example (Lists Representation)

?- X = [1,2,3] .

X=[1,2,3] .

?- X=[Y,3,s(0)] .

X=[Y,3,s(0)] .

- Lists of lists can be represented as well.

Example (Lists Representation)

```
?- [H|T]=[1,2,3].  
   H=1,  
   T=[2,3].
```

```
?- [H|T]=[1,[2,abc]].  
   H=1,  
   T=[[2,abc]].
```

```
?- [H1,H2|T]=[1,2,3,4].  
   H1=1,  
   H2=2,  
   H3=[3,4].
```

- X is **member** in a list L if X occurs in L
- X is a member in a list if
 - it is the **first** element
 - otherwise X is in the **rest of the list**.

Example

Define a predicate `mem/2`. `mem(E,L)` is true if E is one of the elements inside L.

Examples:

```
?- mem(6,[7,2,6]).  
    true  
?- mem(10,[6,2,9]).  
    false
```

Example

Define a predicate `mem/2`. `mem(E,L)` is true if E is one of the elements inside L.

Examples:

```
?- mem(6,[7,2,6]).
```

```
    true
```

```
?- mem(10,[6,2,9]).
```

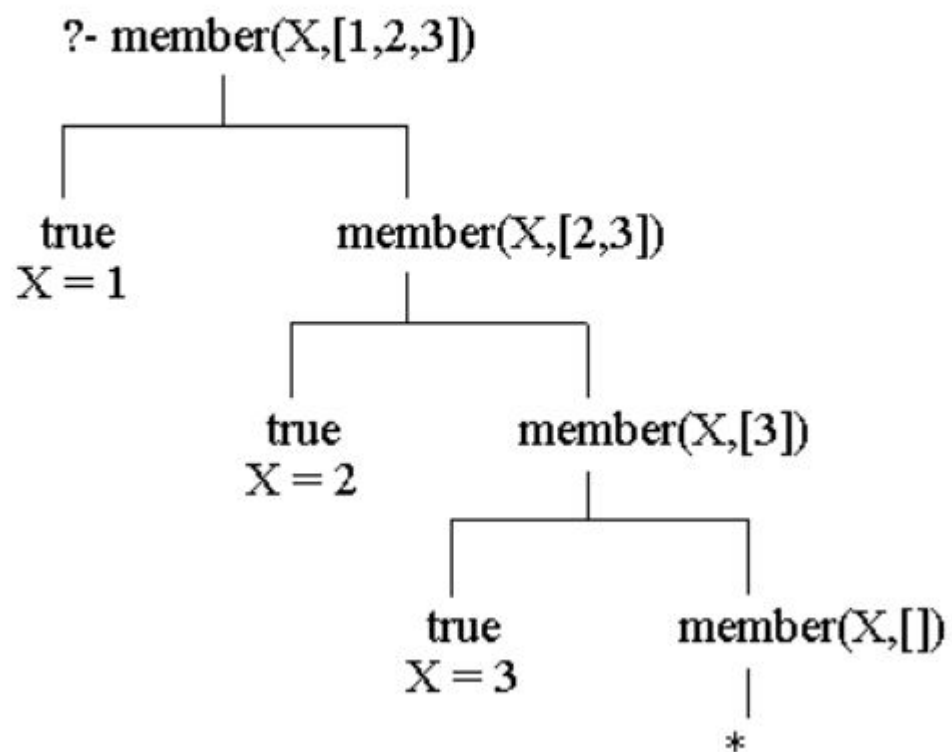
```
    false
```

```
mem(X,[H|T]):- X=H.
```

```
mem(X,[H|T]):- mem(X,T).
```

Search Tree: member Example

?- member(X,[1,2,3]).



Append

Example

Define a predicate `app/3`. `app(L1,L2,L)` is true if `L` is the result of appending `L2` to `L1`.

Examples:

```
?- app([1,4,2],[9,10],L).  
    L=[1,4,2,9,10]
```

Example

Define a predicate `app/3`. `app(L1,L2,L)` is true if `L` is the result of appending `L2` to `L1`.

Examples:

```
?- app([1,4,2],[9,10],L).  
    L=[1,4,2,9,10]
```

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

```
app(L1,L2,L):-
```

```
    L1=[H|T],
```

```
    L=[H|T1],
```

```
    app(T,L2,T1).
```

Reverse

Example

Define a predicate `rev/2`. `rev(L1,L)` is true if L contains the same elements of L1 in reversed order.

Examples:

```
?- rev([1,4,2],L).  
    L=[2,4,1]
```


Example

Define a predicate `rev/2`. `rev(L1,L)` is true if L contains the same elements of L1 in reversed order.

Examples:

```
?- rev([1,4,2],L).  
    L=[2,4,1]
```

Idea: Add an element to the end of L using `append`.

```
rev([],[]).  
rev([H|T],L):-  
    rev(T,T1),  
    app(T1,[H],L).
```

Insert

Example

Define a predicate `insert/3`. `insert(X,L,R)` is true if `X` can be inserted in `L` to produce `R`.

Examples:

```
?- insert(1,[2,3,4],R).
```

```
    R = [1, 2, 3, 4] ;
```

```
    R = [2, 1, 3, 4] ;
```

```
    R = [2, 3, 1, 4] ;
```

```
    R = [2, 3, 4, 1] ;
```

Example

Define a predicate `insert/3`. `insert(X,L,R)` is true if `X` can be inserted in `L` to produce `R`.

Examples:

```
?- insert(1,[2,3,4],R).
```

```
    R = [1, 2, 3, 4] ;
```

```
    R = [2, 1, 3, 4] ;
```

```
    R = [2, 3, 1, 4] ;
```

```
    R = [2, 3, 4, 1] ;
```

```
insert(X,L,[X|L]).
```

```
insert(X,[Y|L],[Y|L1]) :- insert(X,L,L1).
```

Delete

Example

Define a predicate `delete/3`. `delete(X,L,R)` is true if `R` is the result of removing an instance of `X` from `L`.

Examples:

```
?- delete(4, [1,4,2,4], R) .  
    R=[1,2,4] ;  
    R=[1,4,2]
```

Example

Define a predicate `delete/3`. `delete(X,L,R)` is true if `R` is the result of removing an instance of `X` from `L`.

Examples:

```
?- delete(4,[1,4,2,4],R) .  
    R=[1,2,4] ;  
    R=[1,4,2]
```

```
delete(X,[X|R],R) .  
delete(X,[Y|R],[Y|S]) :- delete(X,R,S) .
```

```
delete(X,[X|R],R).  
delete(X,[Y|R],[Y|S]) :- delete(X,R,S).
```

- When X is deleted from [X|R], R results.
- When X is deleted from the tail of [Y|R], [Y|S] results, where S is the result of deleting X from R.

- **Queries:**

```
?- delete(X,[1,2,3],L).
```

```
X=1   L=[2,3] ;
```

```
X=2   L=[1,3] ;
```

```
X=3   L=[1,2] ;
```

```
?- delete(3,W,[a,b,c]).
```

```
W = [3,a,b,c] ;
```

```
W = [a,3,b,c] ;
```

```
W = [a,b,3,c] ;
```

```
W = [a,b,c,3] ;
```

Insert using Delete

Example

Define a predicate `insert/3`. `insert(X,L,R)` is true if `X` can be inserted in `L` to produce `R`.

Example

Define a predicate `insert/3`. `insert(X,L,R)` is true if `X` can be inserted in `L` to produce `R`.

Idea: `delete(X,L,R)` can be interpreted as "insert `X` into `R` to produce `L`".

```
insert(X,L,R):- delete(X,R,L).
```


Permutation in Lists

```
?- permutation([a, b, c], P).
```

```
P=[a, b, c];
```

```
P=[a, c, b];
```

```
P=[b, a, c];
```

```
P=[b, c, a];
```

```
P=[c, a, b];
```

```
P=[c, b, a]
```

```
permutation ( [], [] ).
```

```
permutation ( [ X | L ], P ) :-
```

```
    permutation (L, L1),
```

```
    insert (X, L1, P).
```

Accumulator Technique

- **Accumulator**: a data structure to accumulate the subresult during recursive computation
- Often useful to avoid excessive recursive calls.
- At every point, accumulator contains a partial result.
- After all elements are processed, the accumulator contains the final result.

Example in Reverse Function

```
reverse([],X,X).  
reverse([X|Y],Z,W) :- reverse(Y,[X|Z],W).  
?- reverse([1,2,3],[],A)  
    |  
    reverse([2,3],[1],A)  
        |  
        reverse([3],[2,1],A)  
            |  
            reverse([], [3,2,1],A)  
                |  
                true  
reverse(A,R) :- reverse(A,[],R).
```

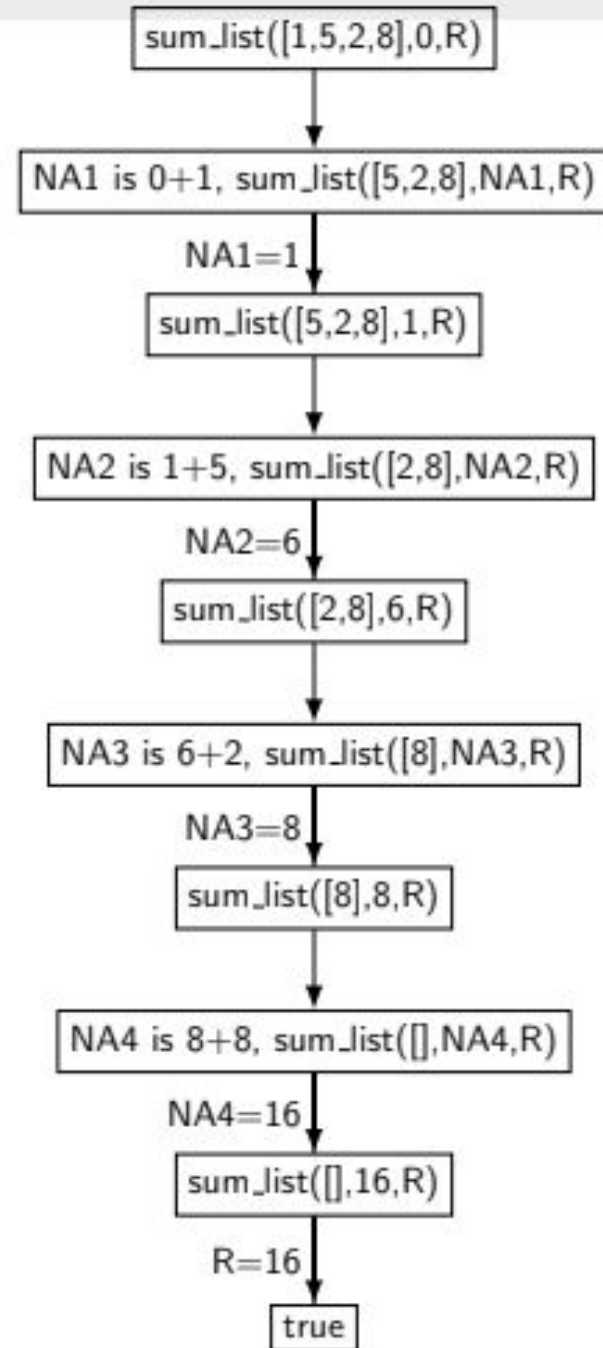
Example on Summation of Values in List

Example

```
sum_list(L,S):- sum_list(L,0,S).  
sum_list([], ResultSoFar, FinalResult):-  
    FinalResult=ResultSoFar.  
sum_list([H|T], ResultSoFar, FinalResult):-  
    NewAcc is ResultSoFar + H.  
    sum_list(T,NewAcc,FinalResult).
```

List	Result So Far	Final Result
[1,5,2,8]	0	?
[5,2,8]	0+1=1	?
[2,8]	1+5=6	?
[8]	6+2=8	?
[]	8+8=16	16

Trace



Recap

- ① Lists Representation in Prolog.
- ② Manipulating Lists.
- ③ Accumulator technique.

Next Lecture: Putting Everything Together!