Handling Trees in Prolog

Binary Trees in Prolog

- A binary tree is a finite set of elements that is either empty or is partitioned into three disjoint subsets.
 - The first subset contains a single element called the *root* of a tree.
 - The other two subsets are binary trees themselves called *left subtree* and *right subtree* of the original binary tree.
- Each element of a binary tree is called a *node* having three arguments namely, Value, Left_subtree and Right_subtree.

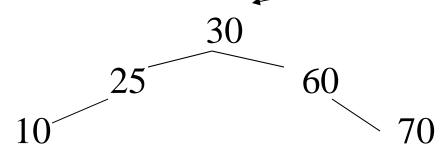
Representation of Binary Tree

The binary tree in Prolog is represented by ternary functor, say,

b_tree(Value, Left_subtree, Right_subtree),

The empty binary tree is represented by an atom called *void*.

Let us represent the following binary tree using above notation. root



Prolog representation of binary tree

Binary Tree Manipulation

- Binary trees are manipulated in the similar way as the lists are done.
- Binary tree can also be used as an argument of a predicate just as list and object are used.
- Operations on Binary tree
 - Traversal,
 - Copying,
 - Counting nodes,
 - Swapping the branches etc.

Traversal of Binary Trees

- Binary trees are traversed using recursion, mainly, in preorder, inorder and postorder.
 - *Preorder Traversal*: visit root, traverse left subtree in preorder, right subtree in preorder.
 - *Inorder Traversal*: traverse left subtree in inorder, visit root and right subtree in inorder.
 - *Postorder Traversal*: traverse left subtree in postorder, right subtree in postorder and visit root.

Prolog programs

Prolog program for preorder traversal.

```
/* pre_btree(T, Y)- Y is unified with a list of nodes obtained by
  traversing T in preorder.*/
                                                          (1)
       pre_btree( void, [ ]).
       pre_btree(b_tree(X, L, R), Y):-
       pre_btree(L, L1), pre_btree(R, R1),
                        append([X|L1], R1, Y). (2)
    Membership program
/* mem_btree(X, T)- succeeds if X is member of tree T */
       mem btree(X, b tree(X, L, R)).
       mem\_btree(X, b\_tree(Y, L, R)) :- mem\_btree(X, L).
       mem\_btree(X, b\_tree(Y, L, R)) :- mem\_btree(X, R).
Goal: ?- mem_btree(10, b_tree(35, b_tree(25, b_tree(10, void, void), void),
                                         b tree(62, void, void))).
```

Negation as Failure

- Horn clauses are incomplete version of FOPL because of the limitation of one positive literal in a clause.
- Here we describe an extension to the LP computation model that allows a limited use of negative information in the program.
- A goal *not*(*G*) is said to be a *logical consequence* of a program P if G is not a logical consequence of P. In other words, if goal G can not be shown to be true, then infer the truth of not(G).

- A goal not(G) is implied by a program P by the negation as failure rule.
- The cut-fail combination can be used to implement a version of negation as failure.
- It is difficult to implement negation both efficiently and correctly.

```
not(G) :- G, !, fail. not(G).
```

The cut ensures that if G succeeds, the second clause will not be attempted and if G fails, then cut is not activated and so second clause is tried and it succeeds.

Therefore, if goal G succeeds, then not(G) fails and if G fails, then not(G) succeeds.

Goals:

?- not(2 < 4). Answer: No

?-2 < 4 Answer: No

- It is a good programming style to replace *cut* by the use of *not* if possible because the programs containing cuts are generally harder to understand.
- The rule using *not* predicate is more readable and gives clear semantic interpretation of the rule but at times could be computationally expensive.

- The Prolog rule $P := Q_1, Q_2, ..., Q_n$ expresses only if condition for P and it says nothing about other conditions under which P can be true.
- Negation as failure introduces a closed world in the limited sense. Every thing not stated is taken to be false.
- Predicate *if_then_else* can be implemented using using **not** predicate instead of cut.

```
if_then_else(P, Q, R) :- P, Q.
if_then_else(P, Q, R) :- not(P), R.
```

• Here the goal P have to be computed again while trying second rule of if_then_else.

Logical Limitations of Prolog

Prolog does not allow disjunction ('or') of facts or conclusion such as

> "If car does not start and the light does not come on, then either battery is down or problem with ignition or some electric fault"

- Such rules can not be expressed straight away in Prolog.
- Prolog does not allow negative facts or conclusions
 e.g., not(a):- b; not(c) etc are not valid in Prolog.
- Prolog does not allow facts, rules having existential quantifications.

Incomplete Data Structure

- Data structures which are incomplete or having holes are useful in many applications.
 - Applications will be discussed later.
- ▶ Incomplete list is an example of such structures.
 - For example, [1,2,3 | X] is an incomplete list whereas [1,2,3,4] is a complete list.
- First we will discuss difference list, an alternative data structure for representing a list.
- Consider a complete list [1, 2, 3]. We can represent it as the difference of the following pair of lists.

Examples

- Examples of difference list.
 - [1, 2, 3, 5, 8] and [5, 8]
 - [1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9] and [6, 7, 8, 9]
 - [1,2,3] and [].
- Each of these are instances of the pair of two incomplete lists [1,2,3 | X] and X.
- We call such pair a *difference-list*.
- We denote the difference list by A-B, where A is the first argument and B is the second argument of a difference-list A-B.
- A list [1,2,3] is represented using difference-list as [1,2,3|X] X
- Such representation of list facilitates some of list operations more efficiently.

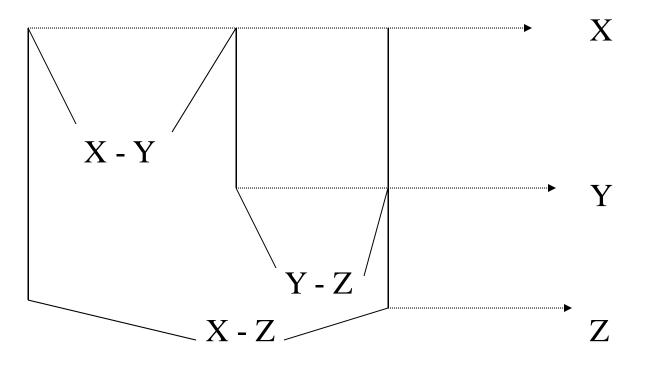
Example-Concatenation of two lists

- Concatenating two lists represented in the form of difference lists.
- When two lists represented as difference lists are concatenated (or appended), then we get appended list by simply unifying the appropriate arguments as given below: One line program.

diff_append (*A - B, B - C, A - C*).

Graphical representation

• Graphical representation of append program for difference lists:



Query for append predicate

- Let us append two lists [1,2,3] and [4,5,6] using above rule.
- Represent both complete lists using difference list notation.

$$[1,2,3] = [1,2,3 \mid X] - X$$

 $[4,5,6] = [4,5,6 \mid Y] - Y$

Append Rule

Goal: ?- diff_append([1,2,3 | X] - X, [4,5,6 | Y] - Y, N).

Search Tree

Append Rule: $diff_append (A - B, B - C, A - C)$. ?- $diff_append([1,2,3 | X] - X, [4,5,6 | Y] - Y, N)$. $\{A = [1,2,3 | X], B = X = [4,5,6 | Y], C = Y, N = A - C = [1,2,3,4,5,6 | Y] - Y\}$ succeeds Answer: N = [1,2,3,4,5,6 | Y] - Y

- Note:
 - This program can not be used for concatenating two complete lists.
 - Here each list is to be represented using difference-list notation. There are nontrivial limitations to this representation because the first list gets changed.