

IKI30820 – Logic Programming Operations on Data Structures Slide 10

Ari Saptawijaya (slides) Adila A. Krisnadhi (\LaTeX adaptation)

Fakultas Ilmu Komputer
Universitas Indonesia

2009/2010 • Semester Gasal

- 1 Sorting lists
- 2 Binary trees
- 3 Graphs

Sorting lists

- A list can be sorted if there is an ordering relation between items in the list.
- Assume that there is an ordering relation:

$gt(X, Y)$

meaning that X is “greater” than Y

- If the objects are numbers, then the gt relation can be defined as:

$gt(X, Y) :- X > Y.$

- If the objects are atoms, then the gt relation corresponds to the alphabetical order:

$gt(X, Y) :- X @> Y.$

- Given the order relation `gt`, we can define a sort relation between two lists as:

```
sort(List, SortedList)
```

which holds when `List` is a list of items and `SortedList` is a list of the same items but sorted in ascending order according to the `gt/2` relation.

Insertion sort

To sort a nonempty list $L = [X|T]$

- 1 Sort the tail T of L
- 2 Insert the head X of L into the sorted tail at such position that the resulting list is sorted.

```
insertionSort([], []).
insertionSort([X|T], Sorted) :-
    insertionSort(T, SortedTail),
    insert(X, SortedTail, Sorted).

insert(X, [Y|Sorted], [Y|Sorted1]) :-
    gt(X, Y), !,
    insert(X, Sorted, Sorted1).
insert(X, Sorted, [X|Sorted]).

gt(X, Y) :- X@>Y.
```

Quicksort

To sort a nonempty list $L = [X \mid T]$

- 1 Delete some element X (called the pivot) from L and split the rest of L into two lists:
 - ▶ Small: all elements in L that are smaller than X
 - ▶ Big: all other elements in L
- 2 Sort Small to obtain `SortedSmall`
- 3 Sort Big to obtain `SortedBig`
- 4 The whole sorted list is the concatenation of `SortedSmall` and $[X \mid \text{SortedBig}]$

```
quicksort( [], []).  
quicksort( [X|Tail], Sorted) :-  
    split( X, Tail, Small, Big),  
    quicksort( Small, SortedSmall),  
    quicksort( Big, SortedBig),  
    append( SortedSmall, [X|SortedBig], Sorted).
```

```
split( X, [], [], []).  
split( X, [Y|Tail], [Y|Small], Big) :-  
    gt( X, Y), !,  
    split( X, Tail, Small, Big).  
split( X, [Y|Tail], Small, [Y|Big]) :-  
    split( X, Tail, Small, Big).
```



```

% A more efficient implementation of quicksort using
% difference-list
quicksort( List, Sorted) :-
    quicksort2( List, Sorted - [] ).

% quicksort2( List, SortedDiffList): sort List,
% result is represented as difference list
quicksort2( [], Z - Z).
quicksort2( [X | Tail], A1 - Z2) :-
    split( X, Tail, Small, Big),
    quicksort2( Small, A1 - [X | A2] ),
    quicksort2( Big, A2 - Z2).

```

To sort a nonempty list L :

- 1 Divide L into two lists, L_1 and L_2 , of approximately equal length
- 2 Sort L_1 giving S_1
- 3 Sort L_2 giving S_2
- 4 Merge S_1 and S_2 to obtain the whole sorted list

```
% mergesort( List, SortedList ): sort List by the  
% MergeSort algorithm.
```

```
mergesort([], []).
```

```
mergesort([X], [X]) :- !.
```

```
mergesort(List, SortedList) :-
```

```
    divide(List, List1, List2),
```

```
    mergesort(List1, Sorted1),
```

```
    mergesort(List2, Sorted2),
```

```
    merge(Sorted1, Sorted2, SortedList).
```

```
% divide a list into two lists of approximately  
% equal length.
```

```
divide([], [], []).
```

```
divide([X], [X], []).
```

```
divide([X,Y|L], [X|L1], [Y|L2]) :-
```

```
    divide(L, L1, L2).
```

```
% merge( List1, List2, List3 ) is true if List1 and  
% List2 are ordered lists that merge into the  
% ordered list List3.
```

```
% Example:
```

```
% ?- merge([1, 3, 4], [0, 2, 5, 6], L).
```

```
% L = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
```

```
merge([], List, List) :- !.
```

```
merge(List, [], List).
```

```
merge([X|Tail1], [Y|Tail2], [X|Tail3]) :-
```

```
    X @< Y, !, merge(Tail1, [Y|Tail2], Tail3).
```

```
merge(List1, [Y|Tail2], [Y|Tail3]) :-
```

```
    merge(List1, Tail2, Tail3).
```

Outline

1 Sorting lists

2 Binary trees

3 Graphs

Binary trees

- A disadvantage of using a list for representing a collection of objects is that the membership testing or searching is relatively inefficient
- Binary tree can be used to facilitate more efficient implementation of membership relation
- A binary tree is either empty or it consists of three things:
 - ▶ a root
 - ▶ a left subtree
 - ▶ a right subtree

Binary search tree (binary dictionary)

- A non-empty binary tree $t(\text{Left}, X, \text{Right})$ is ordered from left to right if:
 - 1 all the nodes in the left subtree, Left , are less than X
 - 2 all the nodes in the right subtree, Right , are greater than X
 - 3 both subtrees are also ordered
- Such an ordered binary tree is called a binary search tree (binary dictionary)

Finding an item x in a binary dictionary D

- If x is the root of D , then x has been found,
- if x is less than the root of D , then search for x in the left subtree of D , otherwise
- search x in the right subtree of D ;
- if D is empty, the search fails


```

% Finding an item X in a binary dictionary
% (binary search tree).
% in( X, Tree): X in binary dictionary Tree

in( X, t( _, X, _ ) ).
in( X, t( Left, Root, Right) ) :-
    gt( Root, X), % Root greater than X
    in( X, Left). % Search left subtree
in( X, t( Left, Root, Right) ) :-
    gt( X, Root), % X greater than Root
    in( X, Right). % Search right subtree

gt( X, Y ) :- X @> Y.

```

- The predicate `in` can be used for constructing a binary search tree.
- Draw the resulted trees.

```
?- in(d, BST), in(b, BST), in(f, BST), in(e, BST).
BST = t(t(_G256, b, _G258), d, t(t(_G264, e, _G266), f, _G262))
```

```
?- in(b, BST), in(d, BST), in(e, BST), in(f, BST).
BST = t(_G252, b, t(_G256, d, t(_G260, e, t(_G264, f, _G266))))
```

Insertion and deletion in binary dictionary: adding a leaf

- `addleaf(D, X, D1)`: add X to D giving $D1$. Rules for adding at the leaf level:
 - 1 The result of adding X to the empty tree is the tree `t(nil, X, nil)`.
 - 2 If X is the root of D then $D1 = D$ (no duplicate item is inserted).
 - 3 If the root of D is greater than X then insert X into the left subtree of D ; if the root of D is less than X then insert X into the right subtree.

```
% addleaf( Tree, X, NewTree):  
% inserting X as a leaf into binary dictionary Tree gives  
% NewTree
```

```
addleaf( nil, X, t( nil, X, nil ) ).  
addleaf( t( Left, X, Right ), X, t( Left, X, Right ) ).  
addleaf( t( Left, Root, Right ), X,  
         t( Left1, Root, Right ) ) :-  
    gt( Root, X ), addleaf( Left, X, Left1 ).  
addleaf( t( Left, Root, Right ), X,  
         t( Left, Root, Right1 ) ) :-  
    gt( X, Root ), addleaf( Right, X, Right1 ).
```

Deleting a leaf

- It is easy to delete a leaf. The deletion of a leaf can be defined as the inverse operation of inserting at the leaf level:

```
delleaf( D1, X, D2 ) :- addleaf( D2, X, D1 ).
```

- Deleting an internal node X is more complicated.
 - ▶ Suppose that X has two subtrees, $Left$ and $Right$.
 - ▶ After X is deleted, we have a hole in the tree and the subtrees $Left$ and $Right$ are no longer connected to the rest of the tree.
 - ▶ If $Left$ or $Right$ is empty then the non-empty subtree is connected to the parent of X .
 - ▶ If $Left$ and $Right$ are both non-empty then the leftmost node of $Right$, Y , is transferred from its current position upwards to fill the position of X .

```
% del( Tree, X, NewTree): deleting X from  
% binary dictionary Tree gives NewTree  
del( t( nil, X, Right), X, Right).
```

```
del( t( Left, X, nil), X, Left).
```

```
del( t( Left, X, Right), X,  
     t( Left, Y, Right1)) :-  
delmin( Right, Y, Right1).
```

```
del( t( Left, Root, Right), X,  
     t( Left1, Root, Right)) :-  
gt( Root, X), del( Left, X, Left1).
```

```
del( t( Left, Root, Right), X,  
     t( Left, Root, Right1)) :-  
gt( X, Root), del( Right, X, Right1)
```

```
% delmin( Tree, Y, NewTree):  
% delete minimal item Y in binary dictionary  
% Tree producing NewTree  
  
delmin( t( nil, Y, R), Y, R).  
  
delmin( t( Left, Root, Right), Y,  
        t( Left1, Root, Right)) :-  
    delmin( Left, Y, Left1).
```

Insertion into BST at any level of the tree I

```
% add( Tree, X, NewTree): inserting X at any level  
% of binary dictionary Tree gives NewTree
```

```
% Add X as new root
```

```
add( Tree, X, NewTree) :-  
    addroot( Tree, X, NewTree).
```

```
% Insert X into left subtree
```

```
add( t( L, Y, R), X, t( L1, Y, R)) :-  
    gt( Y, X), add( L, X, L1).
```

```
% Insert X into right subtree
```

```
add( t( L, Y, R), X, t( L, Y, R1)) :-  
    gt( X, Y), add( R, X, R1).
```


Insertion into BST at any level of the tree II

```
% addroot( Tree, X, NewTree): inserting X as  
% the root into Tree gives NewTree
```

```
% Insert into empty tree  
addroot( nil, X, t( nil, X, nil)).
```

```
addroot( t( L, Y, R), X, t( L1, X, t( L2, Y, R))) :-  
    gt( Y, X), addroot( L, X, t( L1, X, L2)).
```

```
addroot( t( L, Y, R), X, t( t( L, Y, R1), X, R2)) :-  
    gt( X, Y), addroot( R, X, t( R1, X, R2)).
```

Displaying a binary tree

```
% show( Tree): display binary tree
show( Tree) :-
    show2( Tree, 0).

% show2( Tree, Indent): display Tree indented by Indent
show2( nil, _).

show2( t( Left, X, Right), Indent) :-
    Ind2 is Indent + 2,           % Indentation of subtrees
    show2( Right, Ind2),         % Display right subtree
    tab( Indent), write( X), nl, % Write root
    show2( Left, Ind2).         % Display left subtree
```

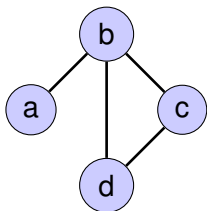
Outline

- 1 Sorting lists
- 2 Binary trees
- 3 Graphs**

Graphs

Various representations of graphs

- Each edge or arc is represented as a **clause**.
- A whole graph as **structure**.



```
connected(a,b) .  
connected(b,d) .  
connected(b,c) .  
connected(c,d) .
```

Or

```
G = graph([a,b,c,d],  
          [e(a,b), e(b,d), e(b,c), e(c,d)]) .
```

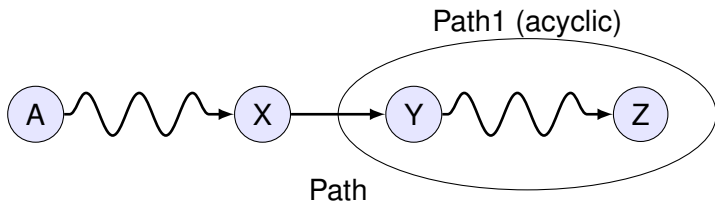
Finding an acyclic path

- P is acyclic path between A and Z in graph G :

$\text{path}(A, Z, G, P)$

e.g. $\text{path}(a, d, G, [a, b, d])$, $\text{path}(a, d, G, [a, b, c, d])$.

- Since acyclic (i.e. contains no cycle), a node can appear in the path at most once
- A possible solution:
 - ▶ if $A=Z$, then $P=[A]$, otherwise:
 - ▶ find an acyclic path P_1 from some node Y to Z , and find a path from A to Y avoiding the nodes in P_1



Define an auxiliary predicate: $\text{path1}(A, \text{Path1}, G, \text{Path})$

- Boundary case: start node of Path1 coincides with start node of Path , i.e. A
- General case: if it does not coincide, extend Path1 by finding a node X, s.t.
 - ▶ X is adjacent to Y
 - ▶ X is not yet in Path1

until start node of Path (i.e. A) is reached.

```

% path( A, Z, Graph, Path)
% Path is an acyclic path from A to Z in Graph

path( A, Z, Graph, Path) :-
    path1( A, [Z], Graph, Path).

path1( A, [A | Path1], _, [A | Path1] ).

path1( A, [Y | Path1], Graph, Path) :-
    adjacent( X, Y, Graph),
    \+ member( X, Path1),      % No-cycle condition
    path1( A, [X, Y | Path1], Graph, Path).

```

- If graph is represented as structure, e.g.

```
G = graph([a,b,c,d],  
          [e(a,b), e(b,d), e(b,c), e(c,d)])
```

then:

```
adjacent(X,Y,graph(Nodes,Edges)) :-  
  member(e(X,Y),Edges).
```

```
adjacent(X,Y,graph(Nodes,Edges)) :-  
  member(e(Y,X),Edges).
```

- Find Hamiltonian path!