

# MI-GLSD-M1 -UEM213 :

## Programming languages paradigms

### Chapter IV: Logic paradigm



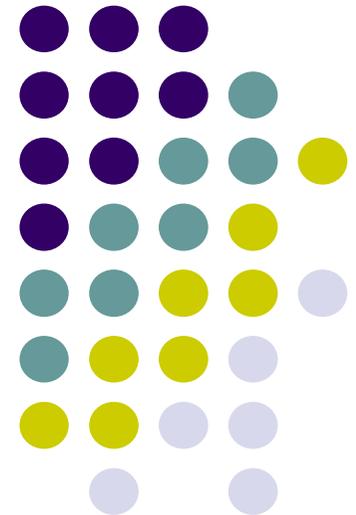
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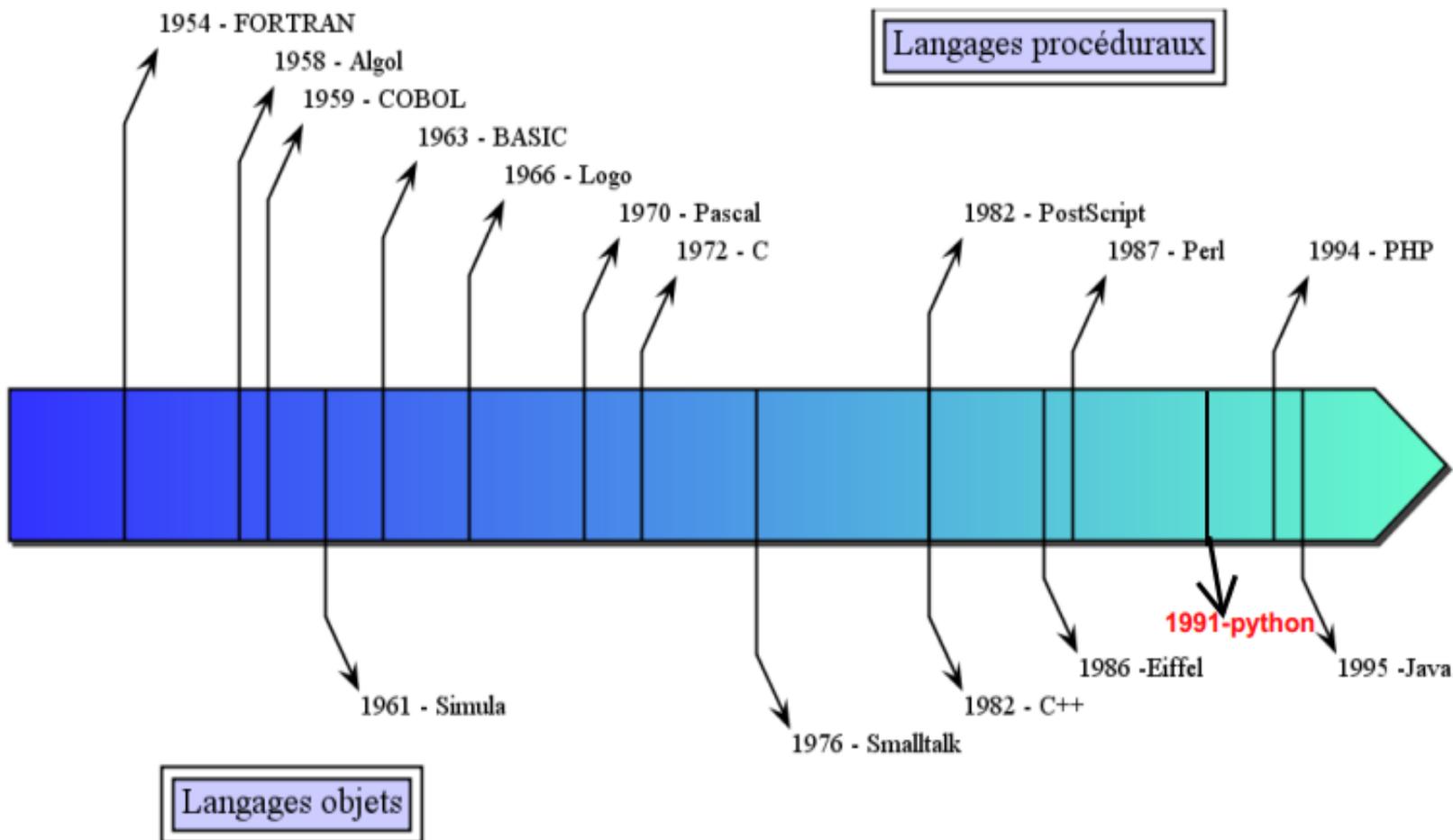
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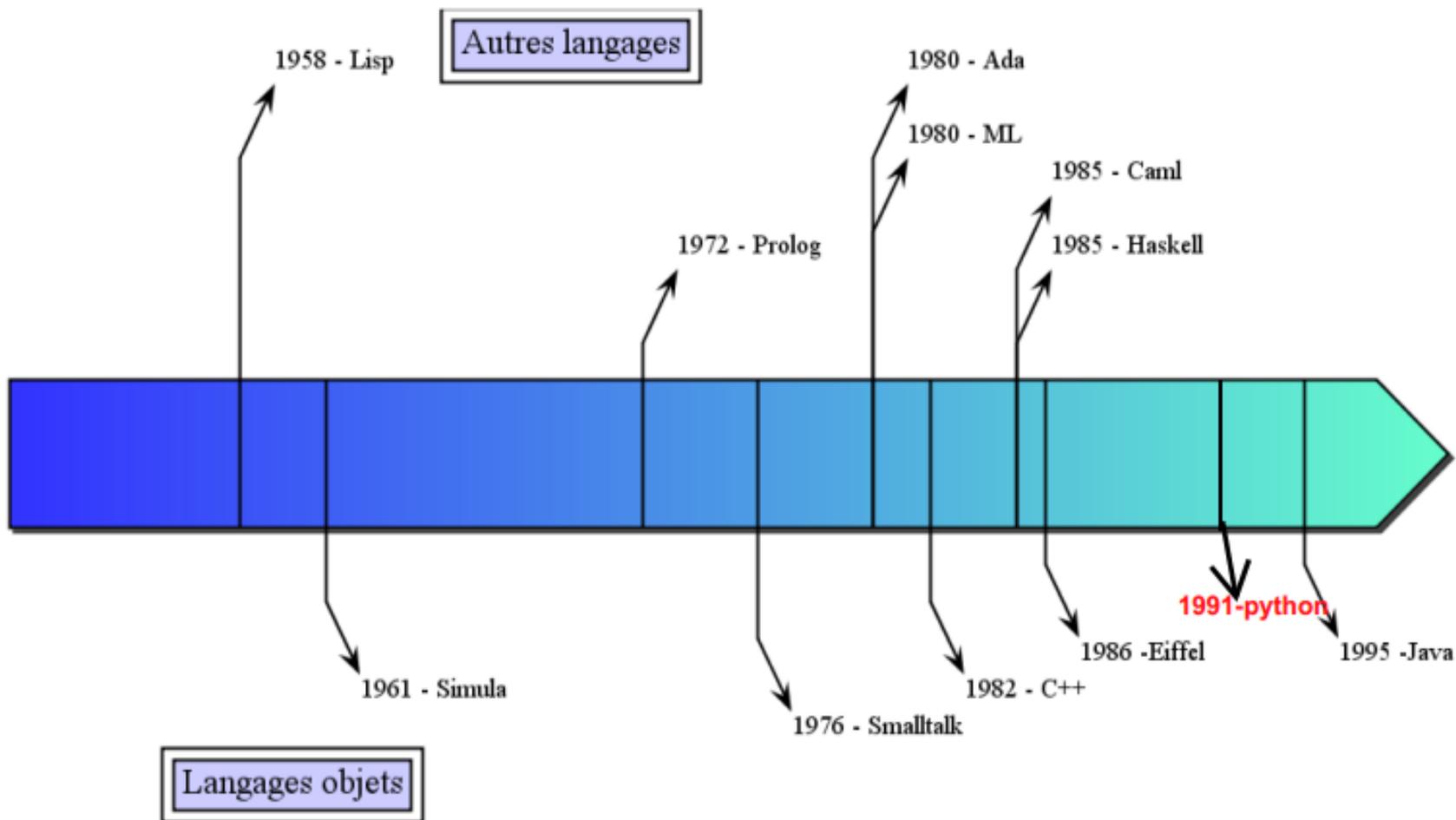




# Timeline of programming languages



# Timeline of programming languages





# Logic programming foundations?



- The logic programming is based on relations and not mapping:
- All logic programming languages restricted to **Horn Clauses**.
- Logic programming focuses on logical **relation** which could be true or false between tow sets  $S \times T$  :  
$$\forall x \in S \wedge y \in T \cdot R(x, y) = \text{true} \vee R(x, y) = \text{false} \vee R(x, y) = \text{none}$$
- $R(x, y)$  could be seen as predicate.
- Relation can be unary binary or ternary.
- $R(x, y)$  could be seen as predicate.



# Prolog : principales



- Prolog was created on 1980 by P.ROOSSEL inside Marseille university.
- Several distribution: PROLOG 1 , 2, 3, CPROLOG, visual PROLOG, EPILOG, Quintus turbo-PROLOG, XILOG, GOIDEL, **OZ** ...etc..
- Prolog is used for :
  - ✓ Interrogation of databases.
  - ✓ Expert system realization.
  - ✓ Native language comprehension.
- Prolog is limited to :
  - ✓ No data-program distinction.
  - ✓ No control structure.
- Prolog uses **Backtracking** technique.
- **Executing** on Prolog means **finding a proof** to an expression.
- **Inter-object relation** totally applied inside Prolog (invertibility).



# Prolog : concepts



- **Facts** : predicate( argument1, argument2,.....)

Example: Male(Ali)

Father(Ali,Samia)

where **Predicate** is an affirmation that could be TRUE or FALSE.

- Arity: arguments counter.

Example : Male is unary fact with relation of 1 arity

Father is binary fact with a relation o arity equal to 2 objects.

- **Queries** and **Questions**: it can be launched as follow:

?-male(x)

X=Ali;

- ; means ask for next solution.
- « » means stop searching for solutions.
- Uppercase serve to variables when lowercase leads into constants.



# Prolog : concepts



- **Atomes** : alphanumerical strings that:
  - ✓ Start with a lowercase letter .
  - ✓ Strings between « » or “ ”.
  - ✓ Numbers
- **Variables** with an uppercase  $Xyz$ ,  $A$
- **Domaine** : separate between symbol (variables), integer(long), float ...
- **Unification** : try to make two formulas identical by giving the value which contains.  
Example:  $Father(X,X)$  and  $father(Omar,Ali)$  cannot be unified.
- **Substitution** : Giving argument on a formula its corresponding terms.  
We note  $\{X_1 = Value_1 \cdots X_n = Value_n\}$   
A term **A** is said to be an **instance** of **B** if there is a substitution from **A** to **B**.  
Example:  $Male(Omar)$  and  $Male(Ali)$  are instance of  $Male(x)$   
 $\{X = Omar\}, \{X = Ali\}$  are corresponding substitutions.



# Prolog : concepts



•• **Shared variables** : Same variable with two arguments and still give the same value:

✓ Can be used for the conjunction of predicates of a same query .

Example:  $-?Father(X,X)$  will reach no goal.

$-?Father(X,Y)Male(X)$  search all sons of the father Y.

•• **Clauses or Rules**: Made to express **conjunctions of goals**.

✓ General form:  $\langle Head \rangle :- -C_1, C_2, C_3 \dots C_n$

✓  $:-$  means « if »

✓  $,$  means « and »

✓  $;$  means « or »

✓  $C_1, C_2, C_3 \dots C_n$  Are sub-goals to demonstrate the head of the rule, it is necessary to demonstrate all its sub-goals.

✓ Otherwise the head is true if and only if the sub-goals are true

✓ This rule can also be called **Horn clause**.

✓ Rules can be recursives.

Example:  $GrandFather(x, y) :- Father(x,z), Father(z, y)$ .

Application Example : Family tree.



# Prolog :Data-structure



•• **Types:** Prolog supports as types:

- ✓ *Standard* integer, float, char, symbol.
- ✓ *Compound* (see also data structure).

•• **Variables:** Follow this regular expression:

- ✓  $[A - Z]\{1\}|_ + [a - zA - Z]^+|[0 - 9]^+|_$
- ✓ The scope of variables is global.

Example: Ax,Bz\_nA3 are two variables.

•• **Constants:** Follow this regular expression:

- ✓ Numbers|Sybmol
- ✓ The scope of constants is local (limited by a clause).

Example:123456,ahmed, 'Ali123@\*/' are constants

•• **Lists:** A list **L** whose elements are of type **type** is defined as follow:

L type\* (Domains)

- ✓ [] is for representing an empty list.
- ✓ [a,b,c] is list of three char elements.
- ✓ [X!Y] is a list where X is car and Y is the cdr
- ✓  $[a,b,c]=[a![b,c]]= [a,b![c]]= [a,b,c![[]]]$

•• **Structures:** use the keyword Domain:

Example: datatype=date(integer,integer,integer)



# Prolog :the program



## *Domains*

New types constructors

## *Predicates*

Types of related objects

## *Clauses*

Facts and clauses

## *Goal*

The targetting goals



# Prolog : Practical example



## *Predicates*

*Parent(symbol, symbol)*

*Frere(symbol, symbol)*

*Ascendant(symbol, symbol)*

## *Clauses*

*Parent(aa, bb).*

*Parent(bb, cc) .*

*Parent(bb, dd).*

*Parent(dd, ee).*

*Parent(ff, dd).*

*Frere(X, Y) :- Parent(Z, X), Parent(Z, Y), Not(X=Y).*

*Ascendant(X, Y) :- Parent(X, Y).*

*Ascendant(X, Y) :- Parent(X, Z), Ascendant(Z, Y).*

*/\* On peut aussi écrire ascendant comme suit :*

*Ascendant(X, Y) :- Parent(X, Y);*

*Parent(X, Z), Ascendant(Z, Y).*

*\*/*



# Prolog : Practical example



*Question : frere(dd, cc)*

✓ *Réponse Yes*

*Question : frere(X, dd)*

✓ *Réponse X = cc*

*Question : frere(dd, X)*

✓ *Réponse X = cc*

*Question : Ascendant(X, ee)*

✓ *Réponse*

*X = dd*

*X = aa*

*X = bb*

*X = ff*

*Question : Ascendant(X, cc)*

✓ *Réponse*

*X = bb*

*X = aa*



# Why to do Prolog-style logic programming in Oz?



- The Oz language is the result of a decade of research into programming based on logic:
  - **Search-based logic programming (such as Prolog, CHIP, and cc“FD”)** and **committed-choice (concurrent) and logic programming(including at languages such as Parlog, FCP, and FGHC Concurrent Prolog and GHC)** with deep guards.
  - Oz provides new abilities, such as first-class top levels and constant-time merge.
  - Oz use interactive graphic tools *the Browser* and *the Explorer* useful for developing and running logic.
  - The real strengths of Oz is *constraint programming* and *distributed programming*.
  - **Oz is equal to or better than any other system existing in the world today** for Example compute-intensive constraint problems Oz provides parallel search engines that can be used transparently .i.e. **without changing the problem specification**.



# How to do Prolog-style logic programming in Oz?



- Focuses on logic programming for general-purpose applications:
- Manipulating structured data according to logical rules (**rule-based expert systems or compilers**).
- It scratches the surface of the real strengths of Oz with two tremendous areas: **constraint programming (finite domains, finite sets of integers and natural language processing)** and **distributed programming**.
- Deterministic logic programming .i.e. sequential logic programming without search for examining data structures with Browser.
- Extends this to nondeterministic logic programming, i.e., including search for the exploration of the search tree using first-class top levels with the Explorer.
- Committed-choice logic programming and search-based are combined.
- Oz Logic programming kernel language.
- Some glimpses in to constraints and distribution in Oz.

# Deterministic Logic Programming



- Supported by three statements: **if** , **case** , and **cond**.
- Example : defines an *Append* **predicate** that can be used to append two lists.

```

declare
proc {Append L1 L2 L3}
case L1
of nil then L2=L3
[] X|M1 then L3=X|{Append M1 L2}
end
end

```



$$\begin{aligned}
 & \forall l_1, l_2, l_3 : \text{append}(l_1, l_2, l_3) \leftrightarrow \\
 & l_1 = \text{nil} \wedge l_2 = l_3 \vee \\
 & \exists x, m_1, m_3 : l_1 = x|m_1 \wedge l_3 = x|m_3 \wedge \text{append}(m_1, l_2, m_3)
 \end{aligned}$$

- In a **case** statement, variables in the branches of the **case** (like X and M1 ) are declared implicitly and their scope covers one branch of the case.
- The definition has a precise logical semantics in addition to its operational semantics( as it is presented in the red box)



# Deterministic Logic Programming :Prolog Vs Oz



- Variable declaration and variable scope are defined quite differently in Oz and Prolog:
- **In Prolog:**
  - Both **declaration** and **scope** are defined *implicitly* through the *clausal* syntax.
  - Namely, variables in the head are universal over the whole clause and new variables in the body are existential over the whole clause body.
- **In Oz:**
  - **Declaration** and **scope** are defined *explicitly*. The scope is restricted to the statement in which the declaration occurs.
  - This is important because Oz is fully compositional (all statements can be nested). Oz has syntactic support to make the explicit declarations less verbose.
- Elements of **Oz** lists are not separated by commas as in **Prolog**.



# Deterministic Logic Programming: the power of OZ



- This code displays the output of *Append* in the *Browser* which is fully concurrent and it can display any number of data structures simultaneously (see Figure ).

```
declare A in
{Append [1 2 3] [4 5 6] A}
{Browse A}
```

```
{Browse {Append [1 2 3] [4 5 6]}}
```

- The display of a data structure containing unbound variables is updated when one of the variables is bound.
- The Browser has options to let it either ignore sharing or display sharing. In the second case, shared sub-terms (including cycles) are displayed only once.
- A nondeterministic *Append* can be shown as the follow two definitions: `declare X in {Browse X=f(X)}`
  - The first displays *X* as a tree, stopping at the default depth limit of 15.
  - The second displays *X* as a minimal graph, which makes all cycles and sharing explicit.



# Non-deterministic Logic Programming (dis,choice)



- Supported by two concepts: disjunctions (*dis* and *choice*) and first-class top levels.

- Example : defines an nondeterministic version of *Append*

## predicate

```

declare
proc {FullAppend L1 L2 L3}
dis L1=nil L2=L3
[] X M1 M3 in
L1=X|M1 L3=X|M3 {FullAppend M1
L2 M3}
end
end
  
```



Both *Append* and *FullAppend* have exactly the same logical semantics. They differ only in their operational semantics. If used inside a top level, *FullAppend* gives results in cases where *Append* blocks.

- The **dis** statement is a determinacy-directed disjunction. The “X M1 M3 in” declares variables for the second branch of the disjunction.
- The choice statement is more primitive than dis ; it generates a choice point immediately for all its clauses without checking if any clauses fail.



# Non-deterministic Logic Programming (First class Top Level )



```
{Browse {FullAppend [1 2] [3 4]} % Shows [1 2 3 4] Deterministic  
{Browse {FullAppend X Y [1 2 3 4]} % Blocks Non-deterministic
```

- To get an answer, you need to execute the nondeterministic call in a top level. Here's how to create a top level with a given query.
  - Example : defines an nondeterministic version of *Append* predicate with top levels and query.

```
declare  
proc {Q A}  
X Y  
in  
{FullAppend X Y [1 2 3 4]} A=X#Y  
end  
S={New Search.object script(Q)}
```

The **search.object** class makes it possible to create any number of **top levels**. The top levels are accessed like objects, can run concurrently, and can be passed as arguments and stored in data structures. Top level are **first class**. In this example, procedure **Q** contains the query. The procedure's output is **A** , i.e., the **pair X#Y**

- Each **top level** is initialized with a **query**. The query is entered as a one-argument procedure called a **script**.

# Non-deterministic Logic Programming (First class Top Level )



```
{declare
S={New Search.object script(
proc {$ A} X#Y=A in {FullAppend X Y [1 2 3 4]} end)}
```

- This exploits two syntactic short-cuts. First, the “\$ ” is a nesting marker that implicitly declares the variable Q.
- Second, putting an equation left of in implicitly declares all variables of the equation's left-hand side. That is, “X#Y=A in ” declares X and Y , creates the pair X#Y , and unifies the pair with A.

- You can get answers one by one

```
{Browse {S next($)}}
```

```
[nil#[1 2 3 4]]
[[1]#[2 3 4]]
[[1 2]#[3 4]]
[[1 2 3]#[4]]
[[1 2 3 4]#nil]
nil
```

- This is similar to the semicolon “ ; ” in an interactive Prolog session. It is not identical, since the next must be called to get the first answer..



# Non-deterministic Logic Programming (First class Top Level )



- The Oz discuss top levels with a few random remarks:
- Creating a new top level is very cheap; you should not hesitate to do so for each query.
- A program can consist of deterministic and nondeterministic predicates used together in any way. A top level script can call such a program; this is possible because both deterministic and nondeterministic predicates have logical semantics. Of course, only the nondeterministic predicates can create **choice** points.
- It is easy to add information to an existing top level while it is active. It suffices for the script to have an external reference, i.e., to have a reference to something outside of the top level..

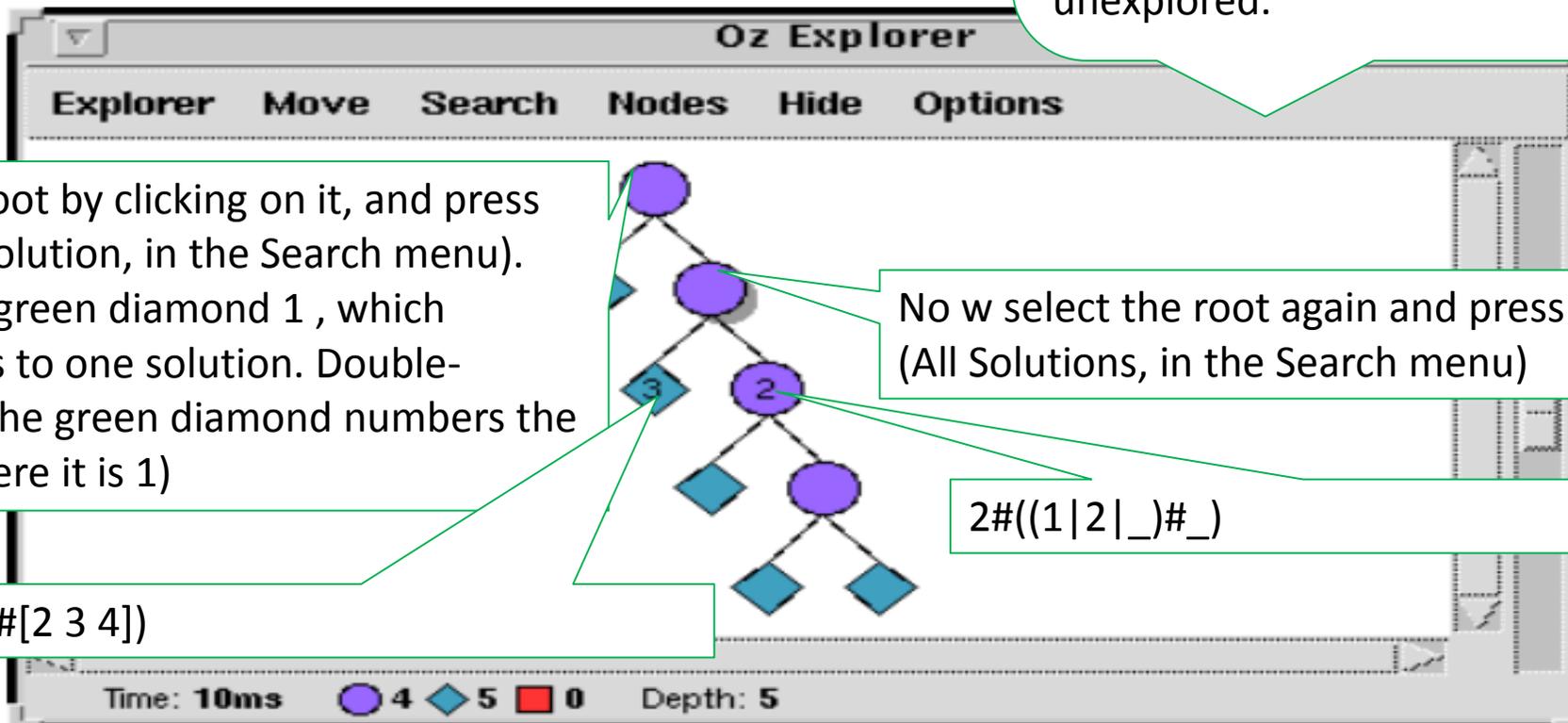
# Non-deterministic Logic Programming (OZ explorer)



```
{Explorer.object script(
proc {$ A} X#Y=A in {FullAppend X Y [1 2 3 4]} end)}
```

- the Explorer, a graphic tool for interactive tree.

This opens a window that displays the search tree. Initially, just the root is displayed, as a gray circle. The circle means that the root has a choice point. The gray color means that the choice point is not fully explored. It is in fact completely unexplored.



Select the root by clicking on it, and press "n" (Next Solution, in the Search menu). This adds a green diamond 1, which corresponds to one solution. Double-clicking on the green diamond numbers the diamond (here it is 1)

Now select the root again and press "a" (All Solutions, in the Search menu)

2#((1|2|\_)#\_)

3#([1]#[2 3 4])



# Committed-choice Logic Programming



- The **case** and **if** statements are special cases of **cond**, which does a general don't-care choice, i.e., if the guard of any branch succeeds then execution can commit to that branch and discard all the others.
  - Example : defines producer-consumer program with flow control predicate

```
declare
proc {Producer N L}
case L of X | Ls then X=N {Producer
N+1 Ls}
else skip end
end
fun {Consumer N L A}
if N>0 then X L1 in L=X | L1
{Consumer N-1 L1 A+X}
else A end
end
```

```
local L S in % Variable declaration
thread {Producer 0 L} end
thread S={Consumer 100000 L 0} end
{Browse S}
end
```



# Committed-choice Logic Programming (Example)



- Example : defines producer-consumer program with flow control predicate

```
declare
proc {Producer N L}
case L of X | Ls then X=N {Producer
N+1 Ls}
else skip end
end
fun {Consumer N L A}
if N>0 then X L1 in L=X | L1
{Consumer N-1 L1 A+X}
else A end
end
```

```
local L S in % Variable declaration
thread {Producer 0 L} end
thread S={Consumer 100000 L 0} end
{Browse S}
end
```

The **producer** and **consumer** each runs in its own thread. The **producer** generates the list [0 1 2 3 ...] and the **consumer** sums the list's first 100000 elements. The main thread immediately displays an unbound variable and later updates the display to 4999950000 when the **consumer** terminates.



# Committed-choice Logic Programming ( If,case Vs Cond )



- Because only **case** and **if** are used, both the producer and the consumer have a precise logical semantics as well as an operational semantics. (This is not true for **cond** unless its conditions are mutually exclusive.)
- The if statement has the logical semantics  $(c \wedge t) \vee (\neg c \wedge e)$  where **c** is the **boolean condition**, **t** is derived from the **then** part, and **e** is derived from the **else** part.
- The if statement has the following operational semantics. It waits until enough information exists to decide the **truth** or **falsity** of its **boolean condition**. At that point **t**, it executes its **then** or **else** part.



# Non-deterministic concurrent Logic Programming



- If a logic program has only a single thread and uses the **dis** statement to express nondeterminism, then its behavior is exactly like that of a **Prolog** program where the Prolog system is modified to do clause selection according to the Andorra principle. However, because of **concurrency** and **first-class top levels**, Oz lets you do much more.
- Example: two sequential logic programs. There is a design **choice** when running them, i.e., whether to put them in the **same top level** or in **different top levels**:
  - If the programs are **independent**, e.g., two **independent queries** to a database, then they should be run in **different top levels**. This ensures that each program gets a fair share of the processing power and that no wasted work is done
  - If the programs are **dependent**. i.e., they are **cooperating** to solve one problem, then it is often best to run them in the **same top level**. This is not often used in logic programming, but it is very important for constraint Programming using a **thread propagator** with **spaces** and never creates a choice point. This is so used in **finite domains**, **finite sets**, and **rational trees**.



# OZ kernel for logic programming



```
⟨S⟩ ::= ⟨C⟩  
  
| if ⟨C⟩ then ⟨S1⟩ else ⟨S2⟩ end  
  
| case X  
  of f1(l11:Y11 ... l1m:Y1m) then ⟨B1⟩  
  ...  
  [] fn(ln1:Yn1 ... lnm:Ynm) then ⟨Bn⟩  
  else ⟨S⟩ end  
  
| cond  
  ⟨G1⟩ then ⟨B1⟩ [] ... [] ⟨Gn⟩ then ⟨Bn⟩  
  else ⟨S⟩ end  
  
| dis  
  ⟨G1⟩ then ⟨B1⟩ [] ... [] ⟨Gn⟩ then ⟨Bn⟩  
  end  
  
| choice ⟨S1⟩ [] ... [] ⟨Sn⟩ end  
  
| ⟨Spaces⟩
```



# Logic programming with distributions & constraints?



- Oz was never intended to be just a **Prolog** substitute. The main power of Oz is in **constraint programming** and **distributed programming**:
- Oz implements for **distributed programming** because
- it separates the aspects of language semantics and distribution structure .
- It is open and implemented by means of a network layer that contains a distributed algorithm for each type of language entity, as well as distributed garbage collection,
- It is fruitfully interactive with non-trivial fault tolerance abstractions within the language.



# Logic programming with distributions & constraints?



- The **constraint** and **distribution** abilities of Oz can be combined, the Search module implements a parallel search engine that is very useful for compute-intensive constraint problems :
  - giving it a list of machine names and a **script**.
  - The parallelism is completely transparent, i.e., the problem is specified without any knowledge of whether it is executed in parallel or not,
  - The same **script** can be used with a **top level**, with the **Explorer**, and with a parallel search engine.



# Logic paradigm briefly



- Prolog-style of doing logic programming in Oz not only but more.
- Introduce first-class top levels, concurrency, and the Browser and Explorer tools.
- Explore logic programming with Oz capabilities:
  - Explains how search-based and committed-choice logic programming with deep guards are integrated
  - Outlines how the logic programming support smoothly ties into constraint programming
  - The constraint and distribution abilities of Oz for current active research such as the one applied for constraint debugging, fault tolerant and secure distributed execution



# Many important ideas



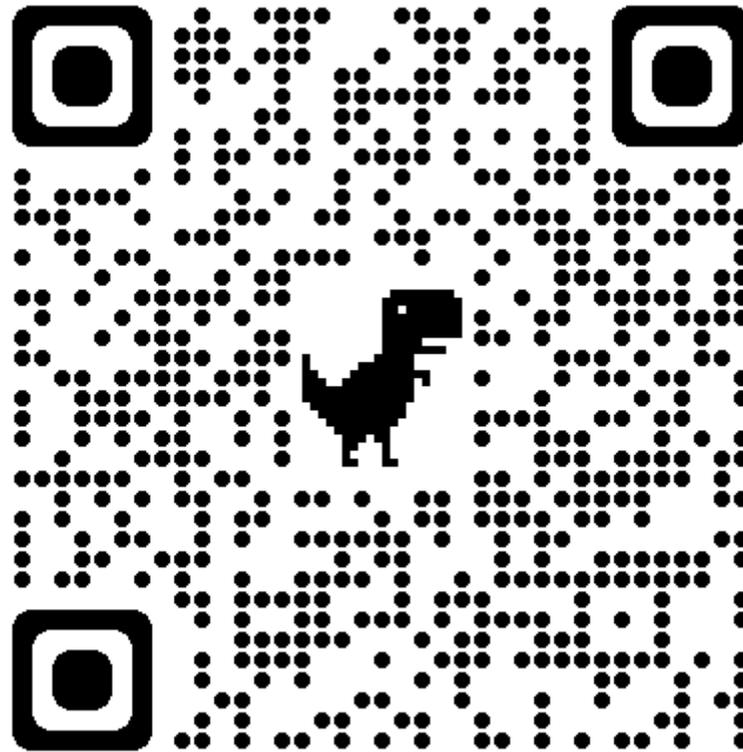
## Louv1.1x

- Identifiers and environments
- Functional programming
- Recursion
- Invariant programming
- Lists, trees, and records
- Symbolic programming
- Instantiation
- Genericity
- Higher-order programming
- Complexity and Big-O notation
- Moore's Law
- NP and NP-complete problems
- Kernel languages
- Abstract machines
- Mathematical semantics

## Louv1.2x

- Explicit state
- Data abstraction
- Abstract data types and objects
- Polymorphism
- Inheritance
- Multiple inheritance
- Object-oriented programming
- Exception handling
- Concurrency
- Nondeterminism
- Scheduling and fairness
- Dataflow synchronization
- Deterministic dataflow
- Agents and streams
- Multi-agent programming

# PLP\_Drive space



<https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1YBCIZzAldeiT19DifDiREQwP-NAQ1qMN>