# Programming with <br> L ogic <br> I nheritance <br> Functions <br> Equations <br> <br> (An Introduction) 

 <br> <br> (An Introduction)}

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## Outline

- History
- Generalities
- LIFE's Basic Data Structure: $\psi$-Terms
- Predicates
- Functions
- Sorts
- Toy Programming Examples
- Conclusion


## History

LIFE was originally conceived ca. 1986 by Hassan Aït-Kaci and colleagues at MCC, in Austin, Texas.

- Idea:

Reconcile programming with predicate logic, functions, and structured object inheritance.

- Key:

Use a universal, simple, but powerful, formal data structure called $\psi$-term.

- How?

By solving equational and entailment constraints over order-sorted feature graphs.

## History

Still LIFE was the first prototype of LIFE, done at MCC in 1987-88 by David Plummer in Quintus Prolog.

- Idea:

To experiment with the prototype to have a feel of worth.

- Plus:

Fun to see it work, surprising convenience, fixed the syntax.

- Minus:

Incomplete, slow, and MCC proprietary.

## History

Wild LIFE is the successor of Still LIFE, done by Richard Meyer at Digital's Paris Research Laboratory in C.

- Idea:

Full independent reimplementation in C.

- Plus:

Much more complete, reasonably fast, good user conveniences, convincingly solid to support serious applications.

- Minus:

Interpreted, big, still incomplete (not by much).
A compiler is currently in the works...

## History

Wild LIFE Contributors:

- Richard Meyer
$90 \%$ of Wild LIFE, and the compiler
- Peter Van Roy the missing 10\%, and the compiler
- Bruno Dumant graphics toolkit, term expansion, static analyzer
- Jean-Claude Hervé basic X interface
- Kathleen Milsted

LIFE shell

- Andreas Podelski theorems, theorems, theorems...
- Hassan Aït-Kaci
watching the rest work and taking all the credit!


## Generalities

LIFE is a generalization of Prolog: most Prolog program run under LIFE.

Same syntactic conventions:

- variables are capitalized (or start with _)
- other identifiers start with a lower-case letter
- the unification predicate is =
- defining Horn clauses uses :-
- the cut control operator is !
- etc.

Except for these differences:

- queries are terminated with a ?
- assertions are terminated with a .


## $\Psi$-Terms

- 42
- int
- -5. 66
- real
- "a piece of rope"
- string
- foo_bar
- '\%* PsyCH (a) oTic**SyMboL!'
- date (friday, 13)
- date(1 => friday, 2 => 13)
- freddy (nails => long, face => ugly)
- [this,is,a,list]
- cons (this, cons (too, []))


## Sorts

Sorts are the data constructors of LIFE.
Sorts are partially ordered by <| in a sort hierarchy.
@ is the most general sort ( T ).
$\}$ is the least sort $(\perp)$.
values are sorts like all others.

## Variables and Tags

Like Prolog, LIFE's variables start with _ or an upper case letter,

Unlike Prolog, LIFE's variables are not restricted to appear only as leaves of terms.

Thus, variables can be used as (reference) tags within a $\psi$-term's structure.

They are used as explicit handles for referencing the part of $\psi$-term they tag.

These references may be cyclic; that is, a variable may occur within a $\psi$-term tagged by it.

## Variables and Tags

Tagging of a $\psi$-term $t$ by a variable $\mathbf{x}$ is of the form x:t.

If a variable occurs not as a $\psi$-term's tag but as a simple isolated variable, it is implicitly be tagging $T$, exactly as if it had been written x : @.

If the same variable needs to be constrained to be the conjunction of two terms, it is written using the \& connective, as in $\mathrm{x}: \mathrm{t} 1 \& \mathrm{t} 2$. This is equivalent to writing $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{t} 1, \mathrm{x}=\mathrm{t} 2$.

## Disjunctive terms

A disjunctive term is an expression of the form:
\{t1; ... ; tn\}
$n \geq 0$, where each ti is either a $\psi$-term or a disjunctive term.

In Wild LIFE, disjunctive terms are enumerated using a left-right depth-first backtracking strategy, exactly as Prolog's (and LIFE's!) predicate level resolution.

- $A=\{1 ; 2 ; 3\}$ ? is like $A=1 ; A=2 ; A=3$ ? where ; signifies "or" in Edinburgh Prolog syntax.
- $p(\{a ; b\})$. is like asserting $p(a) \cdot p(b)$.
- write (vehicle\&four_wheels)? first prints car then on backtracking will print truck.


## Backtrackable Tag Assignment

The statement $\mathbf{X}<-\mathbf{Y}$ overwrites $\mathbf{X}$ with $\mathbf{Y}$.
The tags X and Y reference standard (backtrackable) $\psi$-terms.

Backtracking past this statement will restore the original value of x .

For example:
> $\mathrm{X}=5$, ( X <- 6; $\mathrm{X}<-7$ ), write $(\mathrm{X}), \mathrm{nl}$, fail?
6
7
*** No
>

This predicate is very useful for building "black boxes" that have clean logical behavior when viewed from the outside but that need destructive assignment to be implemented efficiently.

## Sort intersection

bike < | two_wheels.
bike <| vehicle.
truck <| four_wheels.
truck <| vehicle.
car <| four_wheels.
car $<\mid$ vehicle.
toy_car <| four_wheels.
rolls_royce <| car.

- two_wheels $\wedge$ vehicle $=$ bike
- four_wheels $\wedge$ vehicle $=\{$ car; truck $\}$
- two_wheels $\wedge$ four_wheels $=\perp$
- rolls_royce $\wedge$ car $=$ rolls_royce
- truck $\wedge$ @ = truck


## $\Psi$-Term Unification


student <| person.
employee <| person.
staff $<$ | employee. workstudy $<$ | student.
faculty <| employee. workstudy <| staff.
bob $<$ student. don $<$ faculty.
piotr <| student. john <| faculty.
pablo <| student. sheila <| faculty.
elena <| workstudy. art <| staff.
simon <| workstudy. judy <| staff.

## $\Psi$-Term Unification

```
X = student
    (roommate => employee(rep => S),
    advisor => don(secretary => S)),
Y = employee
    (advisor => don(assistant => A),
    roommate => S:student(rep => S),
    helper => simon(spouse => A)),
X= Y?
```

X = workstudy
(advisor => don
(assistant => _A,
secretary => _B: workstudy
(rep => _B) ),
helper => simon(spouse => _A),
roommate => _B),
$\mathbf{Y}=\mathbf{X}$.

## Predicates

LIFE's predicates are defined exactly as Prolog's, except that terms are replaced by $\psi$-terms.

They are executed using $\psi$-term unification.
> truck <| vehicle.
*** Yes
> mobile(vehicle).
*** Yes
> useful (truck).
*** Yes
> mobile (X) ,useful (X)?
*** Yes
X = truck.

## Compatibility with Prolog

A difference with Prolog is that LIFE terms have no fixed arity.
pred (A, B, C) :- write (A, B, C).

In (SICStus) Prolog:
?- pred (1,2,3).
123
?- pred (A,B,C).
_26_60_94
?- $\operatorname{pred}(\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{D})$.
WARNING: predicate 'pred/4' undefined.
?- pred (A, B).
WARNING: predicate 'pred/2' undefined.

## Compatibility with Prolog

In Wild LIFE:
$>\operatorname{pred}(1,2,3)$ ?
123
*** Yes
$>\operatorname{pred}(\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{C})$ ?
@@@
*** Yes
$\mathbf{A}=@, B=@, C=@$.
--1>
*** No
$>\operatorname{pred}(A, B, C, D) ?$
@@@
*** Yes
$\mathbf{A}=$ @, $\mathbf{B}=@, \mathbf{C}=@, \mathrm{D}=$ @.
--1>
*** No
> pred?
@@@
*** Yes

## User interaction

Interaction with user is more flexible than Prolog's: Once a query is answered, a user can extend it in the current context by entering:
$\langle C R\rangle$ to abandon this query and go back to the previous level,
; to force backtracking and look for another answer,
a goal followed by ? to extend this query,
. to pop to top-level from any depth.

## Example:

father (john, harry).
father (john, mike).
father (harry, michael).
grandfather (X,Y) :- father (X,Z), father ( $\mathrm{Z}, \mathrm{Y}$ ).

## User interaction

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { > grandfather ( } \mathrm{A}, \mathrm{~B} \text { ) ? } \\
& \text { *** Yes } \\
& \mathbf{A}=\text { john, } \mathbf{B}=\text { michael. } \\
& \text {--1> father ( } \mathrm{A}, \mathrm{C} \text { )? } \\
& \text { *** Yes } \\
& \mathbf{A}=\text { john, } \mathbf{B}=\text { michael, } \mathbf{C}=\text { harry. } \\
& \text {----2> ; } \\
& \text { *** Yes } \\
& \mathrm{A}=\text { john, } \mathrm{B}=\text { michael, } \mathrm{C}=\text { mike. } \\
& \text {----2> ; } \\
& \text { *** No } \\
& \mathbf{A}=\text { john, } \mathbf{B}=\text { michael. } \\
& \text {--1> father ( } C, B \text { )? } \\
& \text { *** Yes } \\
& \mathbf{A}=\text { john, } \mathbf{B}=\text { michael }, \mathbf{C}=\text { harry. } \\
& \text {----2> father ( } \mathrm{A}, \mathrm{C} \text { )? } \\
& \text { *** Yes } \\
& \mathbf{A}=\text { john, } \mathbf{B}=\text { michael, } \mathbf{C}=\text { harry. } \\
& \text {------3> } \\
& \text { *** No } \\
& \mathbf{A}=\text { john, } \mathbf{B}=\text { michael, } \mathbf{C}=\text { harry. } \\
& \text {----2>. } \\
& >
\end{aligned}
$$



## Functions

LIFE's function are defined exactly as rewrite rules transforming $\psi$-terms into $\psi$-terms.

They are executed using $\psi$-term matching, NOT unification.
fact (0) $\rightarrow 1$.
fact ( $\mathrm{N}:$ int) $\rightarrow \mathrm{N}$ fact ( $\mathrm{N}-1$ ).
> write (fact(5))?
120
*** Yes

## Residuation

```
> \(A=\) fact ( \(B\) ) ?
```

*** Yes
$\mathbf{A}=@, B=@ \sim$.
--1> B=real?
*** Yes
$\mathbf{A}=@, B=r e a l \sim$.
----2> B=5?
*** Yes
$\mathrm{A}=120, \mathrm{~B}=5$.
------3>
*** No
$\mathrm{A}=\mathrm{@}, \mathrm{B}=$ real~.
----2> A=123?
*** Yes
$\mathrm{A}=123, \mathrm{~B}=$ real~.
------3> B=6?
*** No
$\mathrm{A}=123, \mathrm{~B}=$ real~.
------3>

## Functions

Functions are deterministic---no value guessing nor backtracking.

Calling $£(\mathrm{f} \circ \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{bar})$ skips definition $\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{X})$-> . . . if foo and bar are non-unifiable; otherwise, it residuates. It will use it only if, and when, the two args are unified by the context.

Arithmetic functions are inverted---e.g., the goal $0=B-C$ causes $B$ and $C$ to be unified.
$>A=F(B), F=/(2=>A), A=5$ ?
*** Yes
$\mathrm{A}=5, \mathrm{~B}=25, \mathrm{~F}=/(2 \mathrm{CD} \mathrm{A})$.

Note that here / (division) is curryed before being inverted.

## Currying

Currying is not the same as residuation, because the result of currying is a function, not $T$.

In curryed form, $\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{a}=>\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{b}=>\mathrm{Y})$ is:

$$
f(a \quad=>X) \& @(b=>Y)
$$

but also:
feb => Y) \& @(a => X)
Argument order is irrelevant!
> $\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y}, \mathrm{Z})$-> $[\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y}, \mathrm{Z}]$.
*** Yes
> $A=f(a, 3$ => c)?
*** Yes
$A=f(a, 3=c)$.
$--1>A=f(2=>b) ?$
*** Yes
$A=[a, b, c]$.

## Functional variables

Functional variables are allowed.
That is, a functional expression may have a variable where a root symbol is expected.

```
map(F,[]) -> [].
map(F,[H|T]) -> [F(H)|map(F,T)].
```

> $\mathrm{L}=\mathrm{M}(\mathrm{F},[1,2,3,4])$ ?
*** Yes
$\mathbf{F}=$ @, $\mathbf{L}=$ @, $\mathbf{M}=$ @~.
$--1>\mathrm{M}=\mathrm{map}$ ?
*** Yes
$\mathbf{F}=$ @~~~~, $\mathrm{L}=[@, @, @, @], \mathbf{M}=\operatorname{map}$.
$---2>F=+(2=>1)$ ?
*** Yes
$F=+(2=>1), I=[2,3,4,5], M=\operatorname{map}$.
--ー-ー-3>

## Functions

Residuation, currying, and functional variables give functions extreme flexibility:

```
quadruple -> *(2=>4).
pick_arg(\{5;3;7\}).
pick_func (\{quadruple; fact \}).
test :- R=F (A),
    pick_arg(A),
    pick_func(F),
    write("function ", F,
    " applied to ",A,
    " is ",R),
    nl,
    fail.
```


## Functions

> test?
function * (2 => 4) applied to 5 is 20
function fact applied to 5 is 120
function * (2 => 4) applied to 3 is 12
function fact applied to 3 is 6
function * (2 => 4) applied to 7 is 28
function fact applied to 7 is 5040
*** No

## Quote and eval

LIFE's functions use eager evaluation. This can be prevented using a quoting operator '.
$>\mathrm{X}=1+2$ ?
*** Yes
$\mathrm{X}=3$.
--1> Y=' (1+2)?
*** Yes
$X=3, Y=1+2$

Dually, a function called eval may be used to compute the result of a quoted form.
----2> Z=eval (Y) ?
*** Yes
$\mathrm{X}=3, \mathrm{Y}=1+2, \mathrm{Z}=3$.

Note that eval does not modify the quoted form.
Another function called evalin works like eval but evaluates the expression side-effecting it "in-place."


## Arbitr-Arity

In LIFE everything is a $\psi$-term!
This can be exploited to great benefit to express that some predicates or functions take an unspecified number of arguments.

S:sum -> add(features (S), S).
add ([H|T], V) -> V.H+add (T,V). add ([],V) -> 0 .
$>X=\operatorname{sum}(1,2,3,4) ?$
*** Yes
$\mathrm{X}=10$.
--1> $Y=\operatorname{sum}(1,2,3,4,5)$ ?
*** Yes
$\mathrm{X}=10, \mathrm{Y}=15$.
----2>

## Constrained sorts

One can attach properties to sorts: attributes or arbitrary relational or functional dependency constrains.

These properties will be verified during execution, and also inherited by subsorts.
> :: person(age => int).
*** Yes
$>$ man <| person.
*** Yes
$>A=m a n ?$
*** Yes
$A=\operatorname{man}($ age $=>$ int).
$--1>$

## Constrained sorts

: : vehicle (make $=>$ string, number_of_wheels $=>$ int).
: : car (number_of_wheels => 4). car $<$ | vehicle.
$>\mathrm{X}=\mathrm{car} ?$
*** Yes
$X=$ car (make $=>$ string,
number_of_wheels => 4).
$--1>$

## Constrained sorts

man := person(gender => male).
is sugaring for:
man <| person.
: : man (gender => male).
tree := \{ leaf ; node(left => tree, right => tree) \}.
is sugaring for:
leaf <| tree.
node <| tree.
: : node (left => tree, right => tree).

## Constrained sorts

$$
\begin{aligned}
:: ~ r e c t a n g l e & \left(l o n g \_s i d e ~=>~ L: r e a l, ~\right. \\
& \text { short_side => S:real, } \\
& \text { area => L*S). }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { square := rectangle(side }=>S, \\
& \text { long_side => } S, \\
&\text { short_side }=>S) .
\end{aligned}
$$

> R=rectangle(area => 16,
short_side => 4)?
*** Yes

$$
R=\text { rectangle (area }=>16
$$

long_side => 4,
short_side => 4).
--1> R=square?
*** Yes
$R=$ square (area $=>16$,
long_side => _A: 4,
short_side => _A,
side => _A).
----2>

## Constrained sorts

: : devout (faith => F, pray_to => X) holy_figure (F, X).
holy_figure (muslim, allah).
holy_figure (jewish, yahveh). holy_figure (christian, jesus_christ).
> $\mathrm{X}=$ devout?
*** Yes
$\mathrm{X}=$ devout (faith $=>$ muslim, pray_to => allah).
--1> ;
*** Yes
$\mathrm{X}=$ devout (faith $=>$ jewish, pray_to => yahveh).
--1> ;
*** Yes
$\mathrm{X}=$ devout (faith $=>$ christian, pray_to => jesus_christ).
--1> ;
*** No

## Constrained sorts <br> Impromptu demons:

```
> :: I:int | write(I," ").
*** Yes
> A=5*7?
5 7 35
*** Yes
A = 35.
--1> B=fact (5)?
5
*** Yes
A = 35, B = 120.
----2>
> :: C:cons | write(C.1), nl.
*** Yes
> A=[a,b,c,d] ?
d
C
b
a
*** Yes
A = [a,b,c,d].
```


## Constrained sorts

Recursive sorts can also be defined. For example, the (built-in) list sort is defined as:
list := \{[] ; [@llist]\}.
But there is a safe form of recursion and an unsafe one:

- safe recursion: the recursive occurrence of the sort is in a strictly more specific sort.
- unsafe recursion: the recursive occurrence of the sort is in an equal or more general sort.


## Constrained sorts

Example of unsafe recursion:
: : person (best_friend => person).

This loops for ever...
Temporary workaround is to specify:
> delay_check (person)?

That will prevent checking the definition of person if it has no attributes.

## Constrained sorts

: : P:person (best_friend => Q:person) | get_along ( $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{Q}$ ).
*** Yes
> delay_check (person)?
*** Yes
> cleopatra := person(nose => pretty, occupation => queen).
*** Yes
> julius := person(last_name => caesar).
*** Yes
> get_along(cleopatra, julius).
*** Yes
> A=person?
*** Yes
A $=$ person.
--1> A=@ (nose => pretty)?
*** Yes
A = cleopatra(best_friend => julius, nose => pretty, occupation => queen).

## Classes and Instances

It is important to relate LIFE's concepts to concepts that are empirically known in O-O programming, like that of class and instance.

Classes are declared by sort definitions:
: : class (field1=>value1, field2=>value2, ...).

Like a struct, this adds fields to a class definition.
To say that class1 inherits all properties of class2:
class1 <| class2.

## Classes and Instances

Instances are created by mentioning the class name in the program. For example, executing:
> $\mathrm{X}=$ int?
creates an instance of the class int. Each mention of int creates a fresh instance. Therefore, executing:
> $X=i n t, Y=i n t ?$
creates two different instances of the class int in $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{Y}$. We can do:
> $X=$ int, $Y=$ int, $X=56, Y=23$ ?

This would not be possible if X and Y were the same instance.

## Classes and Instances

Wild LIFE assumes that mentioning a class name in the program always creates a fresh instance that is different from all other instances of the class.

For example:
> $\mathrm{X}=23, \mathrm{Y}=23$ ?
creates two different instances of the class 23 .
If we have the function defined as:
$\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{A})$-> 1.
then the call $f(X, Y)$ will not fire, since $\mathbf{X}$ and $\mathbf{Y}$ are different instances.

## Classes and Instances

To make $£(\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y})$ fire, $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ must be the same instance.

In Wild LIFE, the only way to do this is to unify them explicitly:
> $\mathrm{X}=23, \mathrm{Y}=23, \mathrm{X}=\mathrm{Y}, \mathrm{write}(\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y}))$ ?
will write 1 (i.e., the function f will fire).

## Hamming numbers

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mult_list ( } \mathrm{F}, \mathrm{~N},[\mathrm{H} \mid \mathrm{T}] \text { ) -> } \\
& \text { cond (R: ( } \mathrm{F} * \mathrm{H} \text { ) }=<\mathrm{N} \text {, } \\
& \text { [R|mult_list ( } \mathrm{F}, \mathrm{~N}, \mathrm{~T} \text { )], } \\
& \text { []). } \\
& \text { merge (L, []) } \rightarrow \text { L. } \\
& \text { merge ([],L) -> L. } \\
& \text { merge (L1: [H1|T1], L2: [H2|T2]) -> } \\
& \text { cond (H1 }=:=\mathrm{H} 2 \text {, } \\
& \text { [H1|merge (T1, T2)], } \\
& \text { cond (H1 > H2, } \\
& \text { [H2|merge (L1, T2)], } \\
& \text { [H1|merge (T1, L2) ])). } \\
& \text { hamming (N) -> } \\
& \text { S: [1|merge (mult_list ( } 2, N, S \text { ), } \\
& \text { merge (mult_list (3, N, S) , } \\
& \text { mult_list (5,N,S)) ]. } \\
& >\mathrm{H}=\text { hamming (26) ? } \\
& \mathrm{H}=[1,2,3,4,5,6,8,9,10,12,15,16,18,20,24,25] \\
& \text { *** Yes } \\
& >
\end{aligned}
$$

## Quick Sort

```
q_sort(L,order => O)
    -> undlist(dqsort(L, order => O)).
```

undlist $(X \backslash Y) \rightarrow X \mid Y=[]$.
dqsort([]) -> L\L.
dqsort ([H|T], order => O)
-> (L1 \L2)
| (Less,More) =split (H, T, ([], []), order => O),
(L1 \H|L3]) =dqsort (Less, order => O),
(L3\L2) =dqsort (More,order => O).
split (@, [],P) -> P.
split (X, [H|T], (Less,More), order => O)
$\rightarrow$ cond ( $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{X})$,
split $(X, T,([H \mid$ Less $]$, More $)$, order $=>0)$,
split $(X, T,($ Less, $[H \mid M o r e])$, order $=>0)$ ).

## SEND+MORE=MONEY

solve :-
\% $\mathrm{M}=0$ is uninteresting:

$$
M=1,
$$

\% Arithmetic constraints:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{C} 3+\mathrm{S}+\mathrm{M} & =\mathrm{O}+10 * \mathrm{M} \\
\mathrm{C} 2+\mathrm{E}+\mathrm{O} & =\mathrm{N}+10 * \mathrm{C} 3 \\
\mathrm{C} 1+\mathrm{N}+\mathrm{R} & =\mathrm{E}+10 * \mathrm{C} 2 \\
\mathrm{D}+\mathrm{E} & =\mathrm{Y}+10 * \mathrm{C} 1
\end{aligned}
$$

\% Disequality constraints: diff_list([S, E,N,D,M,O,R,Y]),
\% Generate binary digits:
C1=carry,
C2=carry,
C3=carry,
\% Generate decimal digits:
S=decimal, E=decimal,
N=decimal, D=decimal,
O=decimal, $\mathrm{R}=$ decimal,
Y=decimal,

## SEND+MORE=MONEY

\% Print the result:
nl, write(" SEND ",S,E,N,D), nl, write ("+MORE +", M, O,R,E), nl, write("----- -----"), nl, write("MONEY ", M, O,N,E,Y), nl,
\% Fail to iterate:
fail.
decimal $->\{0 ; 1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7 ; 8 ; 9\}$. carry $\rightarrow$ \{ $0 ; 1\}$.

```
diff_list([]).
diff_list([H|T]) :-
    generate_diffs(H,T),
    diff_list(T),
    H=<9,
    H>=0.
```

generate_diffs (H, []).
generate_diffs (H, [A|T]) :-
generate_diffs (H, T),

$$
\mathrm{A}=\backslash=\mathrm{H} .
$$

## Dictionary

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { delay_check (tree)? } \\
& \text { : : tree (name => string, } \\
& \text { def => string, } \\
& \text { left => tree, } \\
& \text { right => tree). } \\
& \text { contains (tree (name }=>\mathrm{N}, \text { def }=>\mathrm{D}), \mathrm{N}, \mathrm{D} \text { ). } \\
& \text { contains (T:tree (name => N), Name, Def) } \\
& \text { :- cond (N \$> Name, } \\
& \text { contains(T.left, Name, Def), } \\
& \text { contains (T.right, Name, Def)). }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Dictionary

test_dictionary :-
CN = "cat", CD = "furry feline",
DN = "dog", DD = "furry canine",
\% Insert cat definition
contains (T, CN, CD) ,
\% Insert dog definition
contains (T, DN, DD) ,
\% Look up cat definition
contains (T, CN, Def),
nl,write("A ", CN," is a ",Def), nl,!.
> test_dictionary?

A cat is a furry feline
*** Yes

## Primes

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { prime }:= & \text { P:int } \\
& \mid \text { factors }(P)=\text { one. } .
\end{aligned}
$$

factors (N) -> cond (N $<2$, \{\}, factors_from(N,2)).
factors_from(N:int,P:int) -> cond ( $\mathrm{P} * \mathrm{P}>\mathrm{N}$, one, cond(R:(N/P) =:= floor(R), many, factors_from (N,P + 1))).
primes_to(N:int) :write(int_to(N) \& prime), nl, fail.
int_to(N:int) ->

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { cond }(\mathrm{N}<1, \\
& \\
& \quad\}, \\
& \\
& \{1 ; 1+\text { int_to }(\mathrm{N}-1)\}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Primes

```
> primes_to(30)?
2: prime
3: prime
5: prime
7: prime
11: prime
13: prime
17: prime
19: prime
23: prime
29: prime
    *** No
>
```


## PERT Scheduling

## Define the class of activity objects:

```
:: A:activity( duration => D:real,
    earlyStart => earlyCalc(R),
    lateStart => \{1e500;real\},
    prerequisites => R:\{[];list\} )
    | ! , lateCalc (A, R).
```

Wait until the value is an integer before assigning it:
assign (A,B:int) $\rightarrow$ succeed | $A<-B$.

## PERT Scheduling

## Pass 1: Calculate the earliest time that $A$ can start.

```
earlyCalc([]) -> 0.
earlyCalc([B|ListOfActs]) ->
max(B.earlyStart+B.duration,
earlyCalc(ListOfActs)).
```

Pass 2: Calculate the latest time that A's prerequisites can start and still finish before A starts.
lateCalc(A, []) $\rightarrow$ succeed.
lateCalc (A, [B:activity|ListOfActs])
-> lateCalc(A,ListOfActs)
assign (LSB: (B.lateStart), min(LSB, A.earlyStart-B.duration)).

## PERT Scheduling

A sample input for the PERT scheduler: any permutation of the specified order of activities would work, illustrating that calculations in LIFE do not depend on order of execution.

```
schedule :-
A1=activity(duration=>10),
A2=activity(duration=>20),
A3=activity(duration=>30),
A4=activity(duration=>18,prerequisites=> [A1, A2]),
A5=activity(duration=>8 ,prerequisites=>[A2,A3]),
A6=activity(duration=>3 ,prerequisites=> [A1,A4]),
A7=activity(duration=>4 ,prerequisites=> [A5,A6]),
visualize([A1,A2,A3,A4,A5,A6,A7]) .
```


## PERT Scheduling

```
> schedule?
Activity 1: **********
Activity 2: ********************
    --------------------
Activity 3: ******************************
Activity 4:
                                    ******************
                                    ------------------
Activity 5:
    ********
                                    ***
Activity 6:
Activity 7:
****
*** Yes
>
```


## Encapsulated programming

Create a routine that behaves like a process with encapsulated data. The caller cannot access the routine's local data except through the access functions ("methods") provided by the routine. Initialization:
new_counter (C) :- counter ( $\mathrm{C}, 0$ ).

Access predicate:
send $(X, C):-C=[X \mid C 2], C<-C 2$.

## Encapsulated programming counter:

```
counter([inc|s],V)
    -> counter(S,V+1).
```

counter ([set (X) |S],V)
$\rightarrow$ counter ( $\mathrm{S}, \mathrm{X}$ ).
counter ([see (X) | S$], \mathrm{V}$ )
$\rightarrow$ counter $(S, V) \mid X=V$.
counter ([stop|S], V)
-> true
| write("Counter stopped.").
counter ([],V)
-> true
| write("Counter end-of-stream.").
counter ([_|S],V)
-> counter (S,V)
write("Unknown message."), nl.

## Encapsulated programming

Access to the process is by a logical variable．The internal state of the process is the value of the counter，which is held in the second argument．

```
> new_counter (C)?
*** Yes
C = @~.
\(--1>\) send (inc, C)?
*** Yes
\(C=\) @~。
----2> send (inc, C)?
*** Yes
\(C=@ \sim\).
-ーーー- \(3>\) send \((\operatorname{see}(X), C) ?\)
*** Yes
\(C=@ \sim, X=2\).
--ーーー-ー-4>
```

This creates a new counter object（with initial value 0 ）which is accessed through $\mathbf{c}$ ．The counter is incremented twice and then its value is accessed．

## Tiny linguistics

A simple term expansion facility:
op (1200,xfx, --> )?
(A --> B) :-
Rule $=($ gram (A\&@(L:[]),In,Out) :- expand (B,In,Out,L) ), assert (Rule).
expand( (A, B) , In, Out, History)
-> $\operatorname{gram}(\mathrm{A}$, In,Out2), expand(B,Out2,Out,H2) | History <- [A|H2].
expand (A, In, Out, H )
-> $\operatorname{gram}(A, I n, O u t)$
| $\mathrm{H}<-$ [A].

## Tiny linguistics

The main call is:

```
gram(Analysis, Instream, Leftover)
dynamic(gram)?
gram(A:@(X),[X|T],T) :- X :=< A.
analyse(P) :-
    gram(A, P, []) ,
    pretty_write(A),nl,nl,
    fail.
```


## Tiny linguistics

## A tiny French grammar:

```
phrase --> sujet,
    verbe_intransitif_?
phrase --> sujet,
    verbe_transitif_,
    complement_d_objet ?
phrase --> sujet,
    pronom_,
    verbe_transitif_?
phrase --> sujet,
    verbe_transitif_indirect_,
    complement_d_objet_indirect ?
phrase --> sujet,
    verbe_etre_,
    adjectif_?
```


## Tiny linguistics

```
complement_d_objet --> groupe_nominal ?
complement_d_objet_indirect
    --> conjonction_,
    groupe_nominal ?
sujet --> groupe_nominal ?
groupe_nominal --> article_,
                                    nom_commun_?
groupe_nominal --> article_,
    nom_commun_,
    adjectif_postfixe_?
groupe_nominal --> article_,
    adjectif_prefixe_,
    nom_commun_?
groupe_nominal --> nom_propre_?
```


## Tiny linguistics

Higher classes of words:
adjectif_postfixe_ <| adjectif_. adjectif_prefixe_ <| adjectif_. article_indefini_ <| article_. nom_propre_ <| etre_anime_. verbe_etre_ <| verbe_transitif_.

## Tiny linguistics

## A lexicon of word sorts:

a $<$ | conjonction_.
a <| verbe_transitif_.
anglais <| adjectif_postfixe_
anglais $<$ | nom_commun_
animal <| etre_anime_ .
apres <| conjonction_
article <| nom_commun_ .
belle <| adjectif_prefixe_.
belle <| nom_commun_.
blanc <| adjectif_postfixe_.
blanche <| adjectif_postfixe_.
blanche <| femme. \% Special!
femme <| personne.
fille <| personne.
francais <| adjectif_postfixe_.
francais <| nom_commun_.
garcon <| personne_

## Tiny linguistics

A lexicon of word sorts:
la $<$ | article $\qquad$
la < | pronom $\qquad$
le <| article_
le < | pronom_
$\qquad$
les <| pronom_.
noir <| adjectif_postfixe_.
noir <| homme. \% Special! noire <| adjectif_postfixe_.
...
porte <| nom_commun_. porte <| verbe_transitif_.
-••
voile <| nom_commun_.
voile <| verbe_transitif_.

## Tiny linguistics

```
demo :- analyse([la,femme,blanche, porte, le, voile]).
demo :- analyse([richard,est,un,noir,blanc]).
demo :- analyse([richard,est,noir]).
\(>\) demo?
phrase([sujet([groupe_nominal
([article_(la),
    nom_commun_(femme),
    adjectif_postfixe_(blanche)])]),
    verbe_transitif_(porte),
    complement_d_objet
    ([groupe_nominal
    ([article_(le),
    nom_commun_(voile)])])])
```

phrase([sujet([groupe_nominal([nom_propre_(richard)])]),
verbe_transitif_(est),
complement_d_objet
([groupe_nominal
([article_(un),
nom_commun_(noir),
adjectif_postfixe_(blanc)])])])
phrase([sujet([groupe_nominal([nom_propre_(richard)])]),
verbe_etre_(est),
adjectif_(noir)])

## Conclusion

LIFE is still an experimental language. Nevertheless, it offers conveniences meant to reconcile different programming styles.

It is particularly suited for:

- natural linguistics
- constrained graphics
- expert systems

There are other feature to complement it with like:

- other CLP constraint domains (arithmetic, boolean, finite domains, intervals)
- better language features (extensional sorts, partial features, lexical scoping, method encapsulation, etc...)


## This is just a beginning...

