

# CSPC31: Principles of Programming Languages

Dr. R. Bala Krishnan

Asst. Prof.

Dept. of CSE

NIT, Trichy – 620 015

E-Mail: balakrishnan@nitt.edu

Ph: 999 470 4853

# 1964

## <u>Books</u>

#### Text Books

- ✓ Robert W. Sebesta, "Concepts of Programming Languages", Tenth Edition, Addison Wesley, 2012.
- ✓ Michael L. Scott, "Programming Language Pragmatics", Third Edition, Morgan Kaufmann, 2009.

#### Reference Books

- ✓ Allen B Tucker, and Robert E Noonan, "Programming Languages Principles and Paradigms", Second Edition, Tata McGraw Hill, 2007.
- ✓ R. Kent Dybvig, "The Scheme Programming Language", Fourth Edition, MIT Press, 2009.
- ✓ Jeffrey D. Ullman, "Elements of ML Programming", Second Edition, Prentice Hall, 1998.
- ✓ Richard A. O'Keefe, "The Craft of Prolog", MIT Press, 2009.
- ✓ W. F. Clocksin, C. S. Mellish, "Programming in Prolog: Using the ISO Standard", Fifth Edition, Springer, 2003.

# **Chapters**

| Chapter No.    | Title  |  |  |
|----------------|--|--|--|
| 1.             | Preliminaries                                    |  |  |
| <del>2.</del>  | Evolution of the Major Programming Languages     |  |  |
| 3.             | Describing Syntax and Semantics                  |  |  |
| 4.             | Lexical and Syntax Analysis                      |  |  |
| <del>5.</del>  | Names, Binding, Type Checking and Scopes         |  |  |
| 6.             | Data Types                                       |  |  |
| 7.             | Expressions and Assignment Statements            |  |  |
| 8.             | Statement-Level Control Structures               |  |  |
| 9.             | Subprograms                                      |  |  |
| 10.            | Implementing Subprograms                         |  |  |
| <del>11.</del> | Abstract Data Types and Encapsulation Constructs |  |  |
| 12.            | Support for Object-Oriented Programming          |  |  |
| 13.            | Concurrency                                      |  |  |
| 14.            | Exception Handling and Event Handling            |  |  |
| 15.            | Functional Programming Languages                 |  |  |
| 16.            | Logic Programming Languages                      |  |  |



# Chapter 16 – Logic Programming Languages

#### Introduction



- Expresses programs in a form of symbolic logic and use a logical inferencing process to produce results
- Logic programs are declarative rather than procedural, which means that only the specifications of the desired results are stated rather than detailed procedures for producing them
- Programs in logic programming languages are collections of facts and rules
- Such a program is used by asking it questions, which it attempts to answer by consulting the facts and rules
- Programming that uses a form of symbolic logic as a programming language is often called logic programming, and languages based on symbolic logic are called logic programming languages, or declarative languages
- We have chosen to describe the logic programming language Prolog, because it is the only widely used logic language
- The syntax of logic programming languages is remarkably different from that of the imperative and functional languages
- The semantics of logic programs also bears little resemblance to that of imperative-language programs

### **Predicate Calculus**



```
Universal Quantifier \forall X.(woman(X) \supset human(X))

Existential Quantifier \rightarrow \exists X.(mother(mary, X) \cap male(X))
```

- The first of these propositions means that for any value of X, if X is a woman, then X is a human
- The second means that there exists a value of X such that mary is the mother of X and X is a male; in other words, mary has a son

| Name   | Symbol    | Example       | Meaning              |  |
|--|-----------|---------------|----------------------|--|
| negation   | -         | a             | not a                |  |
| conjunction  | Ω         | $a \cap b$    | a and $b$            |  |
| disjunction  | U         | $a \cup b$    | a or b               |  |
| equivalence  | =         | a = b         | a is equivalent to b |  |
| implication  | ⊃         | $a \supset b$ | a implies b          |  |
|  | $\subset$ | $a \subset b$ | b implies a          |  |
| The — operator has the highest precedence. The operators $\cap$ , $\cup$ , and = all have higher precedence than $\supset$ and $\subset$ |           |               |                      |  |

#### Clausal Form



- One problem with predicate calculus as we have described it thus far is that there are too many different ways of stating propositions that have the same meaning -> Great deal of redundancy
- This is not such a problem for logicians, but if predicate calculus is to be used in an automated (computerized) system, it is a serious problem
- To simplify matters, a standard form for propositions is desirable
- Clausal form, which is a relatively simple form of propositions, is one such standard form
- All propositions can be expressed in clausal form
- A proposition in clausal form has the following general syntax:

$$B_1 \cup B_2 \cup ... \cup B_n \subset A_1 \cap A_2 \cap ... \cap A_m$$

in which the A's and B's are terms

If all of the A's are true, then at least one B is true

# Primary Characteristics of Clausal Form



- Existential quantifiers are not required
- Universal quantifiers are implicit in the use of variables in the atomic propositions
- No operators other than conjunction and disjunction are required
- Also, conjunction and disjunction need appear only in the order shown in the general clausal form:
  - Disjunction on the left side and conjunction on the right side
- All predicate calculus propositions can be algorithmically converted to clausal form
- The right side of a clausal form proposition is called the antecedent
- The left side is called the consequent because it is the consequence of the truth of the antecedent





likes(bob, trout) ⊂ likes(bob, fish) ∩ fish(trout)

States that "if bob likes fish and a trout is a fish, then bob likes trout"

```
father(louis, al) ∪ father(louis, violet) ⊂
father(al, bob) ∩ mother(violet, bob) ∩ grandfather(louis, bob)
```

 States that "if al is bob's father and violet is bob's mother and louis is bob's grandfather, then louis is either al's father or violet's father



# Overview of Logic Programming

- Languages used for logic programming are called declarative languages, because programs written in them consist of declarations rather than assignments and control flow statements
- These declarations are actually statements, or propositions, in symbolic logic
- One of the essential characteristics of logic programming languages is their semantics, which is called declarative semantics
- Prolog has two basic statement forms; these correspond to the headless and headed Horn clauses of predicate calculus

## **Basic Elements of Prolog**



#### Fact Statements

- Our discussion of Prolog statements begins with those statements used to construct the hypotheses, or database of assumed information—the statements from which new information can be inferred
- Simplest form of **headless Horn clause** in Prolog is a single structure, which is interpreted as an unconditional assertion, or fact
- Logically, facts are simply propositions that are assumed to be true

```
female(shelley).
male(bill).
female(mary).
male(jake).
father(bill, jake).
father(bill, shelley).
mother(mary, jake).
mother(mary, shelley).
```

## **Basic Elements of Prolog**



#### Fact Statements

- Our discussion of Prolog statements begins with those statements used to construct the hypotheses, or database of assumed information—the statements from which new information can be inferred
- These simple structures state certain facts about jake, shelley, bill, and mary
- For example, the first states that shelley is a female
- The last four connect their two parameters with a relationship that is named in the functor atom; for example, the fifth proposition might be interpreted to mean that bill is the father of jake
- Note that these Prolog propositions, like those
- of predicate calculus, have no intrinsic semantics
- They mean whatever the programmer wants them to mean
- For example, the proposition father(bill, jake).
   could mean bill and jake have the same father or that jake is the father of bill
- The most common and straightforward meaning, however, might be that bill is the father of jake

```
female(shelley).
male(bill).
female(mary).
male(jake).
father(bill, jake).
father(bill, shelley).
mother(mary, jake).
mother(mary, shelley).
```

## **Basic Elements of Prolog**



- Rule Statements
- Headed Horn clause

#### consequence :- antecedent\_expression.

• It is read as follows: "consequence can be concluded if the antecedent expression is true or can be made to be true by some instantiation of its variables."

#### ancestor(mary, shelley) :- mother(mary, shelley).

```
parent(X, Y) :- mother(X, Y).
parent(X, Y) :- father(X, Y).
grandparent(X, Z) :- parent(X, Y) , parent(Y, Z).
```

#### **Goal Statements**

- So far, we have described the Prolog statements for logical propositions, which are used to describe both known facts and rules that describe logical relationships among facts
- These statements are the basis for the theorem-proving model
- The theorem is in the form of a proposition that we want the system to either prove or disprove
- In Prolog, these propositions are called goals, or queries
- The syntactic form of Prolog goal statements is identical to that of headless Horn clauses
- For example, we could have man(fred)., to which the system will respond either yes or no.
  - The answer yes means that the system has proved the goal was true under the given database of facts and relationships
  - The answer no means that either the goal was determined to be false or the system  $_{13}$  was simply unable to prove it

## Sample Program

- Prolog always performs depth-first-search, Matches facts & rules (i.e. knowledge base) in top-down manner and resolves the goals or subgoals in left-to-right manner
- Most important thing to keep in mind while writing prolog program "order of writing facts & rules always matters"

```
Facts
food(burger).
// burger is a food
food(sandwich).
// sandwich is a food
food(pizza).
// pizza is a food
lunch(sandwich).
// sandwich is a lunch
dinner(pizza).
// pizza is a dinner

Rules
meal(X):- food(X).
// Every food is a meal OR Anything is a meal if it is a food
```

```
Queries / Goals
?- food(pizza). // Is pizza a food?
?- meal(X), lunch(X). // Which food is meal and lunch?
?- dinner(sandwich). // Is sandwich a dinner?
```

## Sample Program

- Prolog always performs depth-first-search, Matches facts & rules (i.e. knowledge base) reproduced top-down manner and resolves the goals or subgoals in left-to-right manner
- Most important thing to keep in mind while writing prolog program "order of writing facts & rules always matters"

```
Facts
                             English meanings
studies(charlie, csc135).
                             // charlie studies csc135
studies(olivia, csc135).
                            // olivia studies csc135
studies(jack, csc131). // jack studies csc131
studies(arthur, csc134).
                            // arthur studies csc134
teaches(kirke, csc135).
                             // kirke teaches csc135
teaches(collins, csc131).
                             // collins teaches csc131
teaches(collins, csc171). // collins teaches csc171
teaches(juniper, csc134).
                         // juniper teaches csc134
Rules
professor(X, Y):- teaches(X, C), studies(Y, C). // X is a professor of Y if X teaches C and Y
studies C.
```

```
Queries / Goals
```

- ?- food(pizza). // Is pizza a food?
- ?- meal(X), lunch(X). // Which food is meal and lunch?
- ?- dinner(sandwich). // Is sandwich a dinner?



## Thank You