

EMBEDDING PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES: PROLOG IN HASKELL

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Outline

Abstract	vi
1 Introduction	1
1.1 Beginnings	1
1.2 Thesis Statement	2
1.3 Problem Statement	2
1.4 Proposal Organization	4
2 Background	6
3 Proposed Work	11
3.1 Current Work	11
3.2 Contributions	12
3.3 Thesis Contributions	12
4 Embedding a Programming Language into another Programming Language	14
4.1 The Informal Content from Blogs, Articles and Internet Discussions .	14
4.2 Related Books	15
4.3 Related Papers	15
4.4 Related Libraries in Haskell	17
5 Multi Paradigm Languages (Functional Logic Languages)	19
5.1 The Informal Content from Blogs, Articles and Internet Discussions .	19
5.2 Literature and Publications	20
5.3 Some Multi Paradigm Languages	22
5.4 Functional Logic Programming Languages	22
6 Related Work	24
7 Embedding a Programming Language into another Programming Language	25
7.1 Theory	26
7.2 Implementations	27
7.3 Important People	27
7.4 Miscellaneous / Possibly Related Content	27
8 Prolog in ----	28
8.1 Theory	28
8.2 Implementations	28
8.3 Important People	29
8.4 Miscellaneous / Possibly Related Content	29

9	Prolog in Haskell	30
9.1	Theory	30
9.2	Implementations	31
9.3	Important People	32
9.4	Miscellaneous / Possibly Related Content	32
10	Unifying or Marrying or Merging or Combining Programming Paradigms or Theories	33
10.1	Theory	33
10.2	Implementations	33
10.3	Miscellaneous / Possibly Related Content	34
11	Functional Logic Programming Languages	35
11.1	Theory	35
11.2	Implementations	36
11.3	Miscellaneous / Possibly Related Content	36
12	Quasiquotation	37
12.1	Theory	37
12.2	Implementations	37
12.3	Miscellaneous / Possibly Related Content	37
13	Meta Syntactic Variables	38
14	Related Terms or Keywords	39
15	Haskell or Why Haskell ?	40
16	Prolog or Why Prolog ?	43
17	Miscellaneous or Possibly Related Content	44
18	Prototype 1	45
18.1	About this chapter	45
18.2	How Prolog works ?	45
18.3	What we do in this Prototype	47
18.4	Creating a data type	48
18.5	Working with the language	50
18.6	Black box	51
19	Prototype 2.1	52
19.1	About this chapter	52
19.2	How prolog-0.2.0.1 works	52
19.3	What we do in this prototype?	54
19.4	Current implementation (prolog-0.2.0.1)	54
19.5	Modifications	54

19.6 Results	54
20 Prototype 2.2	55
21 Prototype 3	56
22 Prototype 4	57
23 Work Completed	58
23.1 What we are doing	58
23.2 Unifiable Data Structures	58
23.3 Why <code>Fix</code> is necessary?	59
23.4 Dr. Casperson's Explanation	59
23.5 The other fix	60
23.6 The Fix we use	61
24 Results	62
24.1 Types	62
24.2 Lazy Evaluation	63
24.3 Opening up the Language	63
24.4 Quasi Quotation	63
24.5 Template Haskell	63
24.6 Higher Order Functions	63
24.7 I/O	64
24.8 Mutability	64
24.9 Unification	64
24.10 Monads	64
25 Conclusion / Expected Outcomes	65
26 Editing to do	66
26.1 Editing suggestions from David	68
Bibliography	70

List of Figures

1	Trace for append [113]	47
2	Functor Hierarchy [133]	58

List of Tables

Abstract

This document looks at the problem of combining programming languages with contrasting and conflicting characteristics which mostly belong to different programming paradigms. The purpose to be fulfilled here is that rather than moulding a problem to fit in the chosen language it must be the other way around that the language adapts to the problem at hand. Moreover, it reduces the need for jumping between different languages. The aim is achieved either by embedding a target language whose features are desirable or to be captured into the host language which is the base on to which the mapping takes place which can be carried out by creating a module or library as an extension to the host language or developing a hybrid programming language that accommodates the best of both worlds.

This research focuses on combining the two most important and wide spread declarative programming paradigms, functional and logical programming. This will include playing with languages from each paradigm, `HASKELL` from the functional side and `PROLOG` from the logical side. The proposed approach aims at adding logic programming features which are native to `PROLOG` onto `HASKELL` by developing an extension which replicates the target language and utilises the advanced features of the host for an efficient implementation.

1 Introduction

2 1.1 Beginnings

Computers have become a part of everyone's life. From the ones in our pockets to the ones on desks or in our school bags, working or in fact living without them is difficult if not impossible. All the more reason to know how to use one. Simply speaking just using a computer these days is not enough. To be able to utilise their true potential, one must go deeper and communicate with them. This is where the art of programming steps in.

Programming has become an integral part of working and interacting with computers and day by day more and more complex problems are being tackled using the power of programming technologies. It is possibly the only way to talk to computers and hence the need for a robust and multi purpose programming language has never been more urgent. The desirability of a programming language depends on a lot of factors such as the ease of use, the features and functionalities that it provides, adaptability and what sort of problems can it solve. One is spoilt for choice with a number of options for a wide variety of programming paradigms, for example Object Oriented Languages. Over the last decade the declarative style of programming has gained popularity. The methodologies that have stood out are the Functional and Logical Approaches. The former is based on Functions and Lambda Calculus, while the latter is based on Horn Clause Logic. Each of them has its own advantages and awes. How does one choose which approach to adopt? Perhaps one does not need to choose! This document looks at the attempts, improvements and future possibilities of uniting HASKELL, a Purely Functional Programming Language and PROLOG, a Logical Programming Language so that one is not forced to choose.

1.2 Thesis Statement

The thesis aims to provide insights into merging two declarative languages namely, HASKELL and PROLOG by embedding the latter into the former and analysing the result of doing so as they have conflicting characteristics. The finished product will be something like a *haskellised* PROLOG which has logical programming like capabilities.

1.3 Problem Statement

Over the years the development of programming languages has become more and more rapid. Today the number of is in the thousands and counting. The successors attempt to introduce new concepts and features to simplify the process of coding a solution and assist the programmer by lessening the burden of carrying out standard tasks and procedures. A new one tries to capture the best of the old; learn from the mistakes, add new concepts and move on; which seems to be good enough from an evolutionary perspective. But all is not that straight forward when shifting from one language to another. There are costs and incompatibilities to look at. A language might be simple to use and provide better performance than its predecessor but not always be worth the switch.

PROLOG is a language that has a hard time being adopted. Born in an era where procedural languages were receiving a lot of attention, it suered from competing against another new kid on the block: C. Some of the problems were of its own making. Basic features like modules were not provided by all compilers. Practical features for real world problems were added in an ad hoc way resulting in the loss of its purely declarative charm. Some say that PROLOG is fading away, [80, 126, 125]. It is apparently not used for building large programs [139, 106, 58]. However there are a lot of good things about Prolog: it is ideal for search problems; it has a simple syntax, and a strong underlying theory. It is a language that should not die away. So the question is how to have all the good qualities of PROLOG without actually

1 using PROLOG?

2 Well one idea is to make PROLOG an add-on to another language which is widely
3 used and in demand. Here the choice is HASKELL; as both the languages are declar-
4 ative they share a common background which can help to blend the two.

5 Generally speaking, programming languages with a wide scope over problem do-
6 mains do not provide bespoke support for accomplishing even mundane tasks. Ap-
7 proaching towards the solution can be complicated and tiresome, but the program-
8 ming language in question acts as the master key.

9 Flipping the coin to the other side we see, the more specific the language is to
10 the problem domain the easier it is to solve the problem. The simple reason being
11 that, the problem need not be moulded according to the capability of the language.
12 For example a problem with a naturally recursive solution cannot take advantage of
13 tail recursion in many imperative languages. Many problems require the system to
14 be mutation free, but have to deal with uncontrolled side-effects and so on.

15 Putting all of the above together, Domain Specific Languages are pretty good in
16 doing what they are designed to do, but nothing else, resulting in choosing a different
17 language every time. On the other hand, a general purpose language can be used
18 for solving a wide variety of problems but many a times, the programmer ends up
19 writing some code dictated by the language rather than the problem.

20 The solution, a programming language with a split personality, in our case, some-
21 times functional, sometimes logical and sometimes both. Depending upon the prob-
22 lem, the language shapes itself accordingly and exhibits the desired characteristics.
23 The ideal situation is a language with a rich feature set and the ability to mould itself
24 according to the problem. A language with ability to take the appropriate skill set
25 and present it to the programmer, which will reduce the hassle of jumping between
26 languages or forcibly trying to solve a problem according to a paradigm.

27 The subject in question here is HASKELL and the split personality being PROLOG.

1 How far can HASKELL be pushed to dawn the avatar of PROLOG ? is the million
2 dollar question.

3 The above will result in a set of characteristics which are from both the declarative
4 paradigms.

5 This can be achieved in two ways,

6 **Embedding ([Chapter 4](#)):** This approach involves, translating a complete language
7 into the host language as an extension such as a library and/ or module . The
8 result is very shallow as all the positives as well as the negatives are brought
9 into the host language. The negatives mentioned being, that languages from
10 different paradigms usually have conflicting characteristics and result in incon-
11 sistent properties of the resulting embedding. Examples and further discussion
12 on the same is provided in the chapters to come.

13 **Paradigm Integration ([Chapter 5](#)):** This approach goes much deeper as it does
14 not involve a direct translation. An attempt is made by taking a particular
15 characteristic of a language and merging it with the characteristic of the host
16 language in order to eliminate conflicts resulting in a multi paradigm language.
17 It is more of weaving the two languages into one tight package with the best of
18 both and maybe even the worst of both.

19 1.4 Proposal Organization

20 The next chapter, [Chapter 2](#) provides details about the short comings of the previ-
21 ous works and the road to a better future. [Chapter 3](#), the background talks about the
22 programming paradigms and languages in general and the ones in question. Then we
23 look at the question from different angles namely, [Chapter 4](#), Embedding a Program-
24 ming Language into another Programming Language and [Chapter 5](#), Multi Paradigm
25 Languages (Functional Logic Languages). Some of the indirectly related content

- ¹ Chapter 6 and finishing off with the Chapter 7, the expected outcomes.

2 Background

Programming Languages fall into different categories also known as "paradigms". They exhibit different characteristics according to the paradigm they fall into. It has been argued [63] that rather than classifying a language into a particular paradigm, it is more accurate that a language exhibits a set of characteristics from a number of paradigms. Either way, the broader the scope of a language the more the expressibility or use it has.

Programming Languages that fall into the same family, in our case declarative programming languages, can be of different paradigms and can have very contrasting, conflicting characteristics and behaviours. The two most important ones in the family of declarative languages are the Functional and Logical style of programming.

Functional Programming, [51] gets its name as the fundamental concept is to apply mathematical functions to arguments to get results. A program itself consists of functions and functions only which when applied to arguments produce results without changing the state that is values on variables and so on. Higher order functions allow functions to be passed as arguments to other functions. The roots lie in λ -calculus [151], a formal system in mathematical logic and computer science for expressing computation based on function abstraction and application using variable binding and substitution. It can be thought as the smallest programming language [96], a single rule and a single function definition scheme. In particular there are typed and untyped λ calculi. In the untyped λ calculus functions have no pre-terminated type whereas typed lambda calculus puts restriction on what sort(type) of data can a function work with. SCHEME is based on the untyped variant while ML and HASKELL are based on typed λ calculus. Most typed λ calculus languages are based on Hindley-Milner or Damas-Milner or Damas- Hindley-Milner [149] type system. The ability of the type system to give the most general type of a program without any help (annotation). The algorithm [18] works by initially assigning un-

1 defined types to all inputs, next check the body of the function for operations that
2 impose type constraints and go on mapping the types of each of the variables, lastly
3 unifying all of the constraints giving the type of the result.

4 Logical Programming, [108] on the other hand is based on formal logic. A program
5 is a set of rules and formulæ in symbolic logic that are used to derive new formulas
6 from the old ones. This is done until the one which gives the solution is not derived.

7 The languages to be worked with being HASKELL and PROLOG respectively. Some
8 differences include things like, HASKELL uses Pattern Matching while PROLOG uses
9 Unification, HASKELL is all about functions while PROLOG is on Horn Clause Logic
10 and so on.

11 PROLOG [139] being one of the most dominant Logic Programming Languages
12 has spawned a number of distributions and is present from academia to industry.

13 HASKELL is one the most popular [68] functional languages around and is the
14 first language to incorporate Monads [128] for safe *IO*. Monads can be described as
15 composable computation descriptions [137]. Each monad consists of a description of
16 what has action has to be executed, how the action has to be run and how to combine
17 such computations. An action can describe an impure or side-effecting computation,
18 for example, *IO* can be performed outside the language but can be brought together
19 with pure functions inside in a program resulting in a separation and maintaining
20 safety with practicality. HASKELL computes results lazily and is strongly typed.

21 The languages taken up are contrasting in nature and bringing them onto the
22 same plate is tricky. The differences in typing, execution, working among others lead
23 to an altogether mixed bag of properties.

24 The selection of languages is not uncommon and this not only the case with
25 HASKELL, PROLOG seems to be the all time favourite for "let's implement PROLOG
26 in the language X for proving it's power and expressibility". The PROLOG language
27 has been partially implemented [29] in other languages like SCHEME [105], LISP [61,

1 94, 95], JAVA [139, 53], JAVASCRIPT [54] and the list [88] goes on and on.

2 The technique of embedding is a shallow one, it is as if the embedded language
3 floats over the host. Over time there has been an approach that branches out, which
4 is Paradigm Integration. A lot of work has been done on Unifying the Theories of
5 Programming [31, 12, 89, 159, 48, 39]. All sorts of hybrid languages which have
6 characteristics from more than one paradigm are coming into the mainstream.

7 Before moving on, let us take a look at some terms related to the content above.
8 To begin with Foreign Function Interfaces (FFI) [150], a mechanism by which a
9 program written in one programming language can make use of services written in
10 another. For example, a function written in C can be called within a program writ-
11 ten in HASKELL and vice versa through the FFI mechanism. Currently the HASKELL
12 foreign function interface works only for one language. Another notable example is
13 the Common Foreign Function Interface (CFFI) [11] for LISP which provides fairly
14 complete support for C functions and data. JAVA provides the Java Native Inter-
15 face(JNI) for the working with other languages. Moreover there are services that
16 provide a common platform for multiple languages to work with each other and run
17 their programs. They can be termed as multi lingual run times which lay down a
18 common layer for languages to use each others functions. An example for this is the
19 Microsoft Common Language Runtime (CLR) [146] which is an implementation of
20 the Common Language Infrastructure (CLI) standard [145].

21 Another important concept is meta programming [153], which involves writing
22 computer programs that write or manipulate other programs. The language used to
23 write meta programs is known as the meta language while the the language in which
24 the program to be modified is written is the object language. If both of them are the
25 same then the language is said to be reflective. HASKELL programs can be modified
26 using Template HASKELL [45] an extension to the language which provides services
27 to jump between the two types of programs. The abstract syntax trees in the form

1 of HASKELL data types can be modified at compile time which playing with the code
2 and going back and forth.

3 A specific tool used in meta programming is quasi quotation [71, 131, 144], per-
4 mits HASKELL expressions and patterns to be constructed using domain specific,
5 programmer-defined concrete syntax. For example, consider a particular application
6 that requires a complex data type. To accommodate the same it has to be represented
7 using HASKELL syntax and performing pattern matching may turn into a tedious
8 task. So having the option of using specific syntax reduces the programmer from this
9 burden and this is where a quasi-quoter comes into the picture. Template HASKELL
10 provides the facilities mentioned above. For example, consider the following code in
PROLOG to append two lists, going through the code, the first rule says that and

```
1 append([], X, X) .  
2 append([X|Xs], Ys, [X|Zs]) :- append(Xs, Ys, Zs) .
```

11
12 empty list appended with any list results in the list itself. The second predicate
13 matches the head of the first and the resulting lists and then recurs on the tails. The
14 same in HASKELL,

```
1 append(Ps, Qs, Rs) = (Ps = [] & Qs = Rs) ||  
2   (| X, Xs, Ys -> Ps = [X|Xs] &  
3     Rs = [X|Ys] &  
4     append(Xs, Qs, Ys))
```

15 Consider the Object Functional Programming Language, SCALA [162], it is purely
16 functional but with objects and classes. With the above in mind, coming back to the
17 problem of implementing PROLOG in HASKELL. There have been quite a few attempts
18 to "merge" the two programming languages from different programming paradigms.
19 The attempts fall into two categories as follows,

- 20 1. Embedding, where PROLOG is merely translated to the host language HASKELL
21 or a Foreign Function Interface.

- 1 2. Paradigm Integration, developing a hybrid programming language that is a
- 2 Functional Logic Programming Language with a set of characteristics derived
- 3 from both the participating languages.

- 4 The approaches listed above are next in line for discussions.

3 Proposed Work

3.1 Current Work

There have been several attempts at embedding PROLOG into HASKELL which are discussed below along with the shortcomings.

1. Very few embedded implementations exist which offer a perspective into the job at hand. One of the earliest implementations [56] is for an older specification of HASKELL called HASKELL 98 **hugs**. It is more of a proof of concept providing a mechanism to include variable search strategies in order to produce a result. Another implementation [160] based of it simplifies the notation to a list format. Nonetheless, both implementations lack simplicity and support for basic PROLOG features such as *cuts*, *fails*, *assert* among others.
2. The papers that try to take the above further are also few in number and do not have any implementations with the proposed concepts. Moreover, none of them are complete and most lack many practical parts of PROLOG.
3. Libraries, a few exist, most are old and are not currently maintained or updated. Many provide only a shell through which one has to do all the work, which is synonymous with the embeddings mentioned above. Some are far more feature rich than others that is with some practical PROLOG concepts, but are not complete.
4. Moreover, none of the above have full list support that exist in PROLOG.

And as far as the idea of merging paradigms goes, it is not the main focus of this thesis and can be more of an "add-on". A handful of crossover hybrid languages based on HASKELL exist, CURRY [124] being the prominent one. Moving away from HASKELL and exploring other languages from different paradigms, a respectable number of crossover implementations exist but again most of them have faded out.

1 As discussed in the sections above, either an embedding or an integration approach
2 is taken up for programming languages to work together. So, there is either a very
3 shallow approach that does not utilize the constructs available in the host language
4 and results in a mere translation of the characteristics, or the other is a fairly com-
5 plex process which results in tackling the conflicting nature of different programming
6 paradigms and languages, resulting in a toned-down compromised language that takes
7 advantages of neither paradigms. Mostly the trend is to build a library for extension
8 to replicate the features as an add on.

9 **3.2 Contributions**

10 Taking into consideration above, there is quite some room for improvement and
11 additions. Moving onto what this thesis shall explore, first thing's first a complete,
12 fully functional library which comes close to a PROLOG like language and has practical
13 abilities to carry out real-world tasks. They include predicates like *cut*, *assert*, *fail*,
14 *setOf*, *bagOf* among others. This would form the first stage of the implementation.
15 Secondly, exploring aspects such as *assert* and database capabilities. A third question
16 to address is the accommodation of input and output, specifically dealing with the *IO*
17 *Monad* in HASKELL with PROLOG *IO*. Moreover, PROLOG is an untyped language
18 which allows lists with elements of different types to be created. Something like this
19 is not by default in HASKELL. Hence syntactic support for the same is the next
20 question to address. Furthermore, experimenting with how programs expressed with
21 same declarative meaning differ operationally. Lastly, how would characteristics of
22 hybrid languages fit into and play a role in an embedded setting.

23 **3.3 Thesis Contributions**

- 24 1. Prototype 1 does flattening language opening up the language (binding monad)
25 adding custom variables monadic unification (stuff happens in a bubble) rec

- 1 type \rightarrow non rec type \rightarrow fix non rec type isomorphically $==$ rec type
- 2 2. Prototype 2 does extends current prolog-0.2.0.1 this is to show that we can plug
- 3 out approach into existing implementation and things work
- 4 3. Prototype 3 does variable search strategy what ever method you do for searching
- 5 at the point of unification you can do it with our approach
- 6 4. Prototype 4 does how can io be squeezed into this model where whenever the
- 7 resolver encounters an io operation it generates a thunk (sort of unsolved state-
- 8 ment) which when executed would result in a side effect but till that point every
- 9 thing is pure

4 Embedding a Programming Language into another Programming Language

The art of embedding a programming language into another one has been explored a number of times in the form of building libraries or developing Foreign Function Interfaces and so on. This area mainly aims at an environment and setting where two or more languages can work with each other harmoniously with each one able to play a part in solving the problem at hand. This chapter mainly reviews the content related to embedding PROLOG in HASKELL but also includes information on some other implementations and embedding languages in general.

4.1 The Informal Content from Blogs, Articles and Internet Discussions

Before moving on to the formal content such as publications, modules and libraries it is time to get *street smart*. This subsection takes a look at the information, thoughts and discussions that are currently taking place from time to time on the internet. A lot of interesting content is generated which has often led to some formal content.

A lot has been talked about embedding languages and also the techniques and methods to do so. It might not seem such a hot topic as such but it has always been a part of any programming language to work and integrate their code with other programming languages. One of the top discussions are in, Lambda the Ultimate, The Programming Languages Weblog [64], which lists a number of PROLOG implementations in a variety of languages like LISP, SCHEME, SCALA, JAVA, JAVASCRIPT, RACKET [105] and so on. Moreover the discussion focusses on a lot of critical points that should be considered in a translation of PROLOG to the host language regarding types and modules among others.

One of the implementations discussed redirects us to one of the most earliest imple-

1 mentations of PROLOG in HASKELL for Hugs 98, called Mini PROLOG [56]. Although
2 this implementation takes as reference the working of the PROLOG Engine and other
3 details, it still is an unofficial implementation with almost no documentation, support
4 or ongoing development. Moreover, it comes with an option of three engines to play
5 with but still lacks complete list support and a lot of practical features that PROLOG
6 has and this seems to be a common problem with the only other implementation that
7 exists, [160].

8 Adding fuel to fire, is the question on PROLOG's existence and survival [125, 80,
9 126, 106] since its use in industry is far scarce than the leading languages of other
10 paradigms. The purely declarative nature lacks basic requirements such as support
11 for modules. And then there is the ongoing comparison between the siblings [161] of
12 the same family, the family of Declarative Languages. Not to forget HASKELL also
13 has some tricks [129] up its sleeve which enables encoding of search problems.

14 **4.2 Related Books**

15 As HASKELL is relatively new in terms of being popular, its predecessors like
16 SCHEME have explored the territory of embedding quite profoundly [23], which aims
17 at adding a few constructs to the language to bring together both styles of Declarative
18 Programming and capture the essence of PROLOG. Moreover, HASKELL also claims
19 for it to be suitable for basic Logic Programming naturally using the List Monad
20 [130]. A general out look towards implementing PROLOG has also been discussed by
21 [62] to push the ideas forward.

22 **4.3 Related Papers**

23 There is quite some literature that can be found and which consist of embedding
24 detailed parts of Prolog features like basic constructs, search strategies and data
25 types. One of the major works is covered by the subsection below consisting of a

1 series of papers from Mike Spivey and Silvija Seres aimed at bring Haskell and Prolog
2 closer to each other. The next subsection covers the literature based on the above
3 with improvements and further additions.

4 • Papers from Mike Spivey and Silvija Seres

5 The work presented in the series [110, 102, 103, 109, 100] attempts to encapsulate
6 various aspects of an embedding of PROLOG in HASKELL. Being the
7 very first documented formal attempt, the work is influenced by similar embed-
8 dings of PROLOG in other languages like SCHEME and LISP. Although the host
9 language has distinct characteristics such as lazy evaluation and strong type
10 system the proposed scheme tends to be general as the aim here is to achieve
11 PROLOG like working not a multi paradigm declarative language. PROLOG
12 predicates are translated to HASKELL functions which produce a stream of re-
13 sults lazily depicting depth first search with support for different strategies and
14 practical operators such as *cut* and *fail* with higher order functions. The papers
15 provide a minimalistic extension to HASKELL with only four new constructs.
16 Though no implementation exists, the synthesis and transformation techniques
17 for functional programs have been *logicalised* and applied to PROLOG programs.
18 Another related work [111] looks through conventional data types so as to adapt
19 to the problems at hand so as to accommodate and jump between search strate-
20 gies.

21 • Other works related or based on the above

22 Continuing from above, [17] taps into the advantages of the host language to
23 embed a typed functional logic programming language. This results in typed
24 logical predicates and a backtracking monad with support for various data types
25 and search strategies. Though not very efficient nor practical the method aims
26 at a more elegant translation of programs from one language to the other.

While other papers [32] attempt at exercising HASKELL features without adding anything new rather doing something new with what is available. Specifically speaking, using HASKELL type classes to express general structure of a problem while the solutions are instances. [47] replicates PROLOG's control operations in HASKELL suggesting the use of the HASKELL *State Monad* to capture and maintain a global state. The main contributions are a Backtracking Monad Transformer that can enrich any monad with backtracking abilities and a monadic encapsulation to turn a PROLOG predicate into a HASKELL function.

4.4 Related Libraries in Haskell

• Prolog Libraries

To replicate Prolog like capabilities Haskell seems to be already in the race with a host of related libraries. First we begin with the libraries about Prolog itself, a few exist [115] being a preliminary or "mini Prolog" as such with not much in it to be able to be useful, [116] is all powerful but is an Foreign Function Interface so it is "Prolog in Haskell" but we need Prolog for it, [98] which is the only implementation that comes the closest to something like an actual practical Prolog. But all they give is a small interpreter, none or a few practical features, incomplete support for lists, minor or no monadic support and an REPL without the ability to "write a Prolog Program File".

• Logic Libraries

The next category is about the logical aspects of Prolog, again a handful of libraries do exist and provide a part of the functionality which is related propositional logic and backtracking. [21] is a continuation-based, backtracking, logic programming monad which sort of depicts Prolog's backtracking behaviour. Prolog is heavily based on formal logic, [37] provides a powerful system for

1 Propositional Logic. Others include small hybrid languages [33] and Parallelis-
2 ing Logic Programming and Tree Exploration [20].

3 • Unification Libraries

4 The more specific the feature the lesser the support in Haskell. Moving on to
5 the other distinct feature of Prolog is Unification, two libraries exist [118], [90]
6 that unify two Prolog Terms and return the resulting substitution.

7 • Backtracking

8 Another important aspect of PROLOG is backtracking. To simulate it in HASKELL,
9 the libraries [34, 107] use monads. Moreover, there is a package for the EGISON
10 programming language [49] which supports non-linear pattern-matching with
11 backtracking.

5 Multi Paradigm Languages (Functional Logic Languages)

Over the years another approach has branched off from embedding languages, to merge and/or integrate programming languages from different paradigms. Let us take an example of the SCALA Programming Language [162], a hybrid Object-Functional Programming Language which takes a leaf from each of the two books. In this thesis, the languages in question are HASKELL and PROLOG. This section takes a look at the literature on Multi Paradigm Languages, mainly Functional Logic Programming Languages that combine two of the most widespread Declarative Programming Styles.

A peak into language classification reveals that it is not always a straight forward task to segregate languages according to their features and/or characteristics. Turns out that there are a number of notions which play a role in deciding where the language belongs. Many a times a language ends up being a part of almost all paradigms due extensive libraries. Simply speaking, a multi-paradigm programming language is a programming language that supports more than one programming paradigm [63], more over as Timothy Budd puts it [155] "The idea of a multi paradigm language is to provide a framework in which programmers can work in a variety of styles, freely intermixing constructs from different paradigms."

5.1 The Informal Content from Blogs, Articles and Internet Discussions

- Multi Paradigm Languages

A lot has been talked and discussed on coming to clear grounds about the classification of programming languages. If the conventional ideology is considered then the scope of each language is pretty much infinite as small extension

modules replicate different feature sets which are not naturally native to the language itself. The definitions of multi paradigm languages across the web [155, 81, 13] converge to roughly the same thing that of providing a framework to work with different styles with a list of languages [152, 28] that ticks the boxes. Generally speaking, it does not feel all that hot or popular in programming circles; one reason could be that it is a very broad topic and specifying details can clear the fog.

• Functional Logic Programming Languages

Continuing from the previous section, narrowing down the search by considering only multi paradigm declarative languages namely, Functional Logical programming languages. By doing so a large amount of information pops up, from articles that give brief description and mentions [143, 140] to the implementing techniques [2] which give a brief overview of the aim and also the backdrop of publications.

The jackpot however is the fact that there is a dedicated website [43] for the history, research and development, existing languages, the literature, the contacts and everything else that one can think of for functional logic languages. As a matter of fact the holy grail of information is maintained by two of the most important people in the field Michael Hanus [41] and Sergio Antoy [3].

5.2 Literature and Publications

• Multi Paradigm Languages

Possibly one of the most important works towards bringing programming styles together is the book by C.A.R. Hoare [48] which points out that among the large number of programming paradigms and/or theories the unification theory serves as a complementary rather than a replacement to relate the universe. As

1 as always since we are talking about HASKELL we have to include monads and
2 unifying theories using monads [39].

3 • Functional Logic Programming Languages

4 A recent survey [42] throws light on these hybrid languages.

5 One of the most prominent multi paradigm languages in HASKELL is CURRY
6 [4]. Th syntax is borrowed from the parent language and so are a lot of the
7 features. Taking a recap, a functional programming language works on the
8 notion of mathematical functions while a logic programming language is based
9 on predicate logic. The strong points of CURRY are that the features or basis
10 of the language are general and are visible in a number of languages like [25].
11 The language can play with problems from both worlds. In a problem where
12 there are no unknowns and/or variables the language behaves like a functional
13 language which is pattern matching the rules and execute the respective bodies.
14 In the case of missing information, it behaves like PROLOG; a sub-expression e is
15 evaluated on the conditions that it should satisfy which constraint the possible
16 values of e . This brings us to the first important feature of functional logic
17 languages *narrowing*. The expressions contain *free variables*; simply speaking
18 incomplete information that needs to be *unified* to a value depending on the
19 constraints of the problem. The language introduces only a few new constructs
20 to support non determinism and choice. Firstly, *narrowing* ($==$), which deals
21 with the expressions and unknown values and binds them with appropriate
22 values. The next one is the *choice* operator ($?$) for non-deterministic operations.
23 Lastly, for unifying variables and values under some conditions, ($\&$) operator
24 has been provided to add constraints to the equation. Putting it all together,
25 it gives us the feel of a logic language for something that looks very much like
26 HASKELL. Unification is like two way pattern matching and with a similar

1 analogy CURRY is a HASKELL that works both ways and hence variables can
2 be on either sides. Although the language can do a lot but gaps do exist such
3 as the improvement of narrowing techniques.

4 **5.3 Some Multi Paradigm Languages**

5 The list of multi paradigm languages is huge, but in this thesis we will mostly stick
6 to Functional Logical programming languages. Beginning with functional hybrids, a
7 small project language called VIRGIL [123], combining objects to work with functions
8 and procedures. On similar lines is COMMON OBJECT LISP SYSTEM (CLOS) [141].
9 This can be justified as object oriented programming has been one of the most dom-
10 inant styles of programming and hence even HASKELL has one called O'HASKELL
11 [82] though it last saw a release back in 2001. Another prominent implementation is
12 OCAML [154, 85] which adds object oriented capabilities with a powerful type sys-
13 tem and module support. This is the case with most of the languages in this section
14 hardly a few have survived as the new ones incorporated the positives of the old. As
15 mentioned before one of the most popular [68] and widely usage both in academia and
16 industry is the SCALA [162] programming language stands out.

17 **5.4 Functional Logic Programming Languages**

18 Knowing that there is quite some amount of literature out there on these type of
19 languages, it is fairly easy to say that there have been numerous attempts at speci-
20 fications and/or implementations. Sadly though not many have survived leave alone
21 being successful as a result of the competition. Only the ones that are easily avail-
22 able or have an implementation or have been cited or referred by other attempts
23 have been included as the list is long and does not reflect the main intention of
24 the document. Beginning with the ones from Australia, which seems to be a popu-
25 lar destination for fiddling with PROLOG and merging paradigms. As of now there

1 have been three popular ones, beginning with NEU PROLOG, [69], OZ (MOZART
2 PROGRAMMING SYSTEM) [19] and MERCURY [26]. Delving deeper the languages
3 feel more like extensions of PROLOG rather than hybrids. Starting with MERCURY
4 which a boundary between deterministic and non-deterministic programs, similarly
5 NUE PROLOG has special support for functions while OZ gives concurrent constraint
6 programming plus distributed support, with different function types for goal solving
7 and expression rewriting. ESCHER [70] comes very close to HASKELL with monads,
8 higher order functions and lazy evaluation. Taking a look at PROLOG variants, CIAO
9 [16]; a preprocessor to PROLOG for functional syntax support, λ PROLOG [79] aims
10 at modular higher order programming with abstract data types in a logical setting,
11 BABEL [46, 76, 75] combines pure PROLOG with a first order functional notation,
12 LIFE [122] is for Logic, Inheritance, Functions and Equations in PROLOG syntax
13 with currying and other features like functional languages and others [10, 72].

14 The functional language SCHEME is a very popular choice for this sort of a thing.
15 With a book [23] and an implementation to accompany [24, 117] which seems to have
16 translated into HASKELL, [52, 35, 127].

17 Finally talking about CURRY, one of the most popular HASKELL based multi
18 paradigm languages with support for deterministic and non-deterministic computa-
19 tions. Contributing to the same there have been some predecessors [120, 25].

6 Related Work

There are some technicalities which are indirectly related to the problem but do not bare a point of contact. The underpinnings of the languages throw some more light on the how different languages work to solve a problem. Different programming paradigms incorporate different operational mechanisms. For example, PROLOG programs execute on the Warren Abstract Machine [1] which has three different storage usages; a global stack for compound terms, for environment frames and choice points and lastly the trail to record which variables bindings ought to be undone on backtracking.

Constraint programming [148] is closely related to the declarative programming paradigm in the sense that the relations between variables is specified in the form of constraints. For example, consider a program to solve a simultaneous equation, now adding on to that restricting the range of the values that the variables can possible take, thus adding constraints to the possible solutions. Related to the same are Constraint Handling Rules [147], which are extensions to a language, simply speaking adding constraints to a language like PROLOG.

Lastly some details on the working of functional logic programming languages, residuation and narrowing [44, 142]. Residuation involves delaying of functions calls until they are deterministic, that is, deterministic reduction of functions with partial data. This principle is used in languages like ESCHER [70], LIFE [122], NUE-PROLOG [69] and OZ [19]. Narrowing on the other hand is a mixture of reduction in functional languages and unification in logic languages. In narrowing, a variable is bound a value within the specified constraints and try to find a solution, values are generated while searching rather than just for testing. The languages based on this approach are ALF [120], BABEL [46], LPG [10] and CURRY [124].

7 Embedding a Programming Language into another Programming Language

Embedding a language into another language has been explored with a variety of languages. Attempts have been made to build Domain Specific Languages from the host languages [50], Foreign Function Interfaces [8]

Creating a programming language from scratch is a tedious task requiring ample amount of programming, not to mention the effort required in designing. A typical procedure would consist of formulating characteristics and properties based on the following points,

1. Syntax
2. Semantics
3. Standard Library
4. Runtime System
5. Parsers
6. Code Generators
7. Interpreters
8. Debuggers

A lot of the above can be skipped or taken from the base language if an embedding approach is chosen. For an embedded domain specific language the functionality is translated and written as an add on. The result can be thought of as a library. But the difference between an ordinary library and an eDSL is the feature set provided and the degree of embedding [135]. For example, reading a file and parsing its contents

1 to perform certain operations to return *string* results is a shallow form of embedding
2 as the generation of code, results is not native nor are the functions processing them
3 dealing with embedded data types as such. On the other hand, building data struc-
4 tures in the base language which represent the target language expression would be
5 called a deep embedding approach.

6 The snippet of HASKELL code below describes PROLOG entities,

```
1 data Term = Struct Atom [Term]
2           | Var VariableName
3           | Wildcard
4           | PString    !String
5           | PInteger   !Integer
6           | PFloat     !Double
7           | Flat [FlatItem]
8           | Cut Int
9           deriving (Eq, Data, Typeable)
```

7 The above can be described as concrete syntax for the "new" language and can
8 be used to write a program.

9 As discussed in the

10 7.1 Theory

11 1. Papers

- 12 (a) Embedding an interpreted language using higher-order functions, [91]
- 13 (b) Building domain-specific embedded languages, [50]
- 14 (c) Embedded interpreters, [9]
- 15 (d) Cayenne – a Language With Dependent Types, [5]
- 16 (e) Foreign interface for PLT Scheme, [8]
- 17 (f) Dot-Scheme: A PLT Scheme FFI for the .NET framework, [86]
- 18 (g) Application-specific foreign-interface generation, [92]

1 (h) Embedding S in other languages and environments, [67]

2 2. Books

3 (a) ??????????

4 3. Articles / Blogs / Discussions

5 (a) Embedding one language into another, [65]

6 (b) Application-specific foreign-interface generation, [66]

7 (c) Linguistic Abstraction, [83]

8 (d) LISP, Unification and Embedded Languages, [84]

9 4. Websites

10 (a) Embedding SWI-Prolog in other applications, [29]

11 **7.2 Implementations**

12 1. Lots of them I guess

13 **7.3 Important People**

14 1. ????

15 **7.4 Miscellaneous / Possibly Related Content**

16 1. ????

1 **8 Prolog in ----**

2 Prolog in -----

3 **8.1 Theory**

4 • Papers

5 1. QLog, [61]

6 2. LogLisp Motivation, design, and implementation, [94]

7 • Books

8 1. Warrens Abstract Machine A TUTORIAL RECONSTRUCTION, [1]

9 2. LOGLISP: an alternative to PROLOG, [95]

10 • Articles / Blogs / Discussions

11 1. Hello

12 • Websites

13 1. Hello

14 **8.2 Implementations**

15 1. Castor : Logic paradigm for C++, [78]

16 2. GNU Prolog for Java, [40]

17 3. JLog - Prolog in Java, [53]

18 4. JScriptLog - Prolog in Java, [54]

19 5. Quintus Prolog, [87]

₁ 6. Yield Prolog, [88]

₂ 7. Racklog, [105]

₃ **8.3 Important People**

₄ 1. ???

₅ **8.4 Miscellaneous / Possibly Related Content**

₆ 1. ???

1 9 Prolog in Haskell

2 Prolog in Haskell

3 9.1 Theory

4 • Papers

- 5 1. Embedding Prolog in Haskell / Functional Reading of Logic Programs,
6 [110]
- 7 2. Algebra of Logic Programming, [102]
- 8 3. The Algebra of Logic Programming, [100]
- 9 4. Optimisation Problems in Logic Programming : An Algebraic Approach,
10 [101]
- 11 5. Higher Order Transformation of Logic Programs, [103]
- 12 6. The Algebra of Searching, [109]
- 13 7. FUNCTIONAL PEARL Combinators for breadth-first search, [111]
- 14 8. Type Logic Variables, K Classen, [17]
- 15 9. A Type-Safe Embedding of Constraint Handling Rules into Haskell Wei-
16 Ngan Chin, Mar-tin Sulzmann and Meng Wang, [15]
- 17 10. Prological Features in a Functional Setting Axioms and Implementation,
18 R Hinze, [47]
- 19 11. Escape from Zurg: An Exercise in Logic Programming, [32]

20 • Books

- 21 1. The Reasoned Schemer, Daniel P. Friedman, William E. Byrd, Oleg Kise-
22 lyov, [23]

- 1 2. Programming Languages: Application and Interpretation, Shriram Kr-
2 ishnamurthi, Chapters 33-34 of PLAI discuss Prolog and implementing
3 Prolog, [62]

4 • Articles / Blogs / Discussions

- 5 1. Lambda the Ultimate, Programming Languages, [64]
6 2. Takashi's Workplace (Implementation), [160]
7 3. Haskell vs. Prolog Comparison, [112]

8 • Websites

- 9 1. Logic Programming in Haskell, [129]

10 **9.2 Implementations**

- 11 1. A Prolog in Haskell, Takashi's Workplace, [160]
12 2. Mini Prolog for Hugs 98, [56]
13 3. Nano Prolog, [115]
14 4. Prolog, [98]
15 5. cspm-To-Prolog, [36]
16 6. prolog-graph, [7]
17 7. prolog-graph-lib, [97]
18 8. hswip, [116]

1 **9.3 Important People**

2 1. Mike Spivey

3 2. Silvija Seres

4 **9.4 Miscellaneous / Possibly Related Content**

5 1. Unification Libraries

6 (a) unification-fd, [118]

7 (b) cmu, [90]

8 2. Logic Libraries

9 (a) logicct, [21], [22]

10 (b) logic-classes, [?]

11 (c) proplogic, [37]

12 (d) cflp, [33]

13 (e) logic-grows-on-trees, [20]

14 3. Concatenative Programming

15 (a) peg, [27]

16 4. Constraint Programming and Constraint Handling Rules

17 (a) monadiccp, [93]

18 (b) monadicccp-gecode, [119]

19 (c) csp, [6]

20 (d) liquid fix point, [99]

10 Unifying or Marrying or Merging or Combining Programming Paradigms or Theories

Unifying / Marrying / Merging / Combining Programming Paradigms / Theories

10.1 Theory

• Papers

1. Unifying Theories of Programming with Monads, [39]
2. Symposium on Unifying Theories of Programming, 2006, [31].
3. Symposium on Unifying Theories of Programming, 2008, [12].
4. Symposium on Unifying Theories of Programming, 2010, [89].
5. Symposium on Unifying Theories of Programming, 2012, [159].

• Books

1. Unifying Theories of Programming, [48]

• Articles / Blogs / Discussions

1. ???

• Websites

1. ???

10.2 Implementations

1. Scala
2. Virgil

₁ 3. CLOS, Common Lisp Object System

₂ 4. Visual Prolog

₃ 5. ????

₄ **10.3 Miscellaneous / Possibly Related Content**

₅ 1. ???

11 Functional Logic Programming Languages

Functional Logic Programming Languages

11.1 Theory

• Paper

1. FLPL Introduction Theory

(a) Hello

2. FLPL Surveys

(a) Hello

3. Narrowing in FLPL

(a) Hello

4. Residuation in FLPL

(a) Hello

5. Computation Model for FLPL

(a) Hello

• Books

1. Hello

• Articles / Blogs / Discussions

1. Hello

• Websites

1. Hello

1 **11.2 Implementations**

2 1. Hello

3 **11.3 Miscellaneous / Possibly Related Content**

4 1. Hello

1 **12 Quasiquotation**

2 **12.1 Theory**

3 1. Papers

4 (a)

5 2. Books

6 (a)

7 3. Articles / Blogs / Discussions

8 (a)

9 4. Websites

10 (a) Quasiquotation Wikipedia, [144]

11 (b) Quasiquotation in Haskell, [131]

12 **12.2 Implementations**

13 1.

14 **12.3 Miscellaneous / Possibly Related Content**

15 1.

1 13 Meta Syntactic Variables

2 Some sources for the topic https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Metasyntactic_
3 [variable](#)
4 <http://www.catb.org/jargon/html/M/metasyntactic-variable.html>
5 <http://whatis.techtarget.com/definition/metasyntactic-variable>

1 14 Related Terms or Keywords

2 Related Terms / Keywords

- 3 1. Prolog in Other Languages
- 4 2. Prolog in Haskell
- 5 3. Embedding One language into another language
- 6 4. Constraint Programming
- 7 5. Constraint Handling Rules
- 8 6. Concatenative Programming
- 9 7. Functional Logic Programming Languages
- 10 8. Residuation
- 11 9. Narrowing
- 12 10. Warren Abstraction Machine
- 13 11. Foreign Function Interfaces
- 14 12. Quasiquotation
- 15 13. Programming Theory Unification

15 Haskell or Why Haskell ?

In this chapter we discuss the properties of HASKELL

This chapter discusses the properties of the host language HASKELL and mainly the feature set it provides for embedding domain specific languages(EDSLs).

1. HASKELL as a functional programming language

Haskell is an advanced purely-functional programming language. In particular, it is a polymorphically statically typed, lazy, purely functional language [134]. It is one of the popular functional programming languages [68]. HASKELL is widely used in the industry [138].

Shifting a bit to Embedded Domain Specific Languages (EDSLs) such as Emacs LISP. Opting for embedding provides a "shortcut" to create a language which may be designed to provide specific functionality. Designing a language from scratch would require writing a parser, code generator / interpreter and possibly a debugger, not to mention all the routine stuff that every language needs like variables, control structures and arithmetic types. All of the aforementioned are provided by the host language; in this case HASKELL. Examples for the same can be found here [57, 74] which talk about introducing combinator libraries for custom functionality.

The flip side of the coin is that the host language enforces certain aspects and properties of the eDSL and hence might not be exact to specification, all required constructs cannot be implemented due to constraints, programs could be difficult to debug since it happens at the host level and so on.

2. Looking at HASKELL as a tool for embedding domain specific languages[55]

1 (a) Monads

2 Control flow defines the order/ manner of execution of statements in a
3 program[157]. The specification is set by the programming language. Gen-
4 erally, in the case of imperative languages the control flow is sequential
5 while for a functional language is recursion [121]. For example, JAVA has a
6 top down sequential execution approach. The declarative style consists of
7 defining components of programs i.e. computations not a control flow[158].

8 This is where HASKELL shines by providing something called a *monad*.
9 Functional Programming Languages define computations which then need
10 to be ordered in some way to form a combination[132]. A monad gives a
11 bubble within the language to allow modification of control flow without
12 affecting the rest of the universe. This is especially useful while handling
13 side effects.

14 A related topic would be of persistence languages, architectures and
15 data structures. Persistent programming is concerned with creating and
16 manipulating data in a manner that is independent of its lifetime [77]. A
17 persistent data structure supports access to multiple versions which may
18 arise after modifications [30, 59]. A structure is partially persistent if all
19 versions can be accessed but only the current can be modified and fully
20 persistent if all of them can be modified.

21 Coming back to control flow; for example, implementing backtracking
22 in an imperative language would mean undoing side effects which even
23 PROLOG is not able to do since the asserts and retracts cannot be undone.
24 In HASKELL, a monad defines a model for control flow and how side effects
25 would propagate through a computation from step to step or modification

1 to modification. And HASKELL allows creation of custom monads relieving
2 the burden of dealing with a fixed model of the host language.

3 (b) Lazy Evaluation

4 Another property of HASKELL is laziness or lazy evaluation which means
5 that nothing is evaluated until it is necessary. This results in the ability
6 to define infinite data structures because at execution only a fragment is
7 used [136].

1 16 Prolog or Why Prolog ?

2 This chapter discusses the properties of the target language PROLOG and the feature
3 set that will be translated to the host language to extend its capabilities.

4 1. PROLOG as a logic programming language.

5 PROLOG is a general purpose logic programming language mainly used in
6 artificial intelligence and computational linguistics. It is a Declarative language
7 i.e. a program is a set of facts and rules running a query on which will return a
8 result. The relation between them is defined by clauses using *Horn Clauses*[139].

9 PROLOG is very popular and has a number of implementations [156] for different
10 purposes.

11 2. Why embed PROLOG ?

₁ **17 Miscellaneous or Possibly Related Content**

₂ Miscellaneous / Possibly Related Content

₃ 1. ???

1 18 Prototype 1

2 18.1 About this chapter

3 This chapter throws light on what PROLOG does to resolve a given query via *unifi-*
4 *cation* and this can be replicated in the host language along with the challenges.

5 This chapter discusses the aspects of opening a language while preserving the
6 original structure of a closed recursive structure in HASKELL. Also discussed are the
7 issues related to customizing certain aspects such as meta-syntactic variables.

8 18.2 How Prolog works ?

9 Looking at how PROLOG works [114].

10 Most PROLOG distributions have three types of terms:

11 1. Constants.

12 2. Variables.

13 3. Complex terms.

14 Two terms can be unified if they are the same or the variables can be assigned to
15 terms such that the resulting terms are equal.

16 The possibilities could be,

17 1. If term1 and term2 are constants, then term1 and term2 unify if and only if
18 they are the same atom, or the same number.

```
1  ?-  =(mia,mia) .  
2  yes
```

19 2. If term1 is a variable and term2 is any type of term, then term1 and term2 unify,
20 and term1 is instantiated to term2 . Similarly, if term2 is a variable and term1
21 is any type of term, then term1 and term2 unify, and term2 is instantiated to
22 term1 . (So if they are both variables, theyre both instantiated to each other,
23 and we say that they share values.)

```
1  ?-  mia  =  X.  
2  X   =  mia  
3  yes
```

```
1  ?-  X   =  Y.  
2  yes
```

1 3. If term1 and term2 are complex terms, then they unify if and only if:

2 (a) They have the same functor and arity, and

3 (b) all their corresponding arguments unify, and

4 (c) the variable instantiations are compatible.

```
1  ?-  k ( s ( g ) , Y )   =   k ( X , t ( k ) ) .  
2  X   =   s ( g )  
3  Y   =   t ( k )  
4  yes
```

5 4. Two terms unify if and only if it follows from the previous three clauses that
6 they unify.

1 For example, consider the append function

```
1 append([], L, L) .
2 append([H|T], L2, [H|L3]) :- append(T, L2, L3) .
```

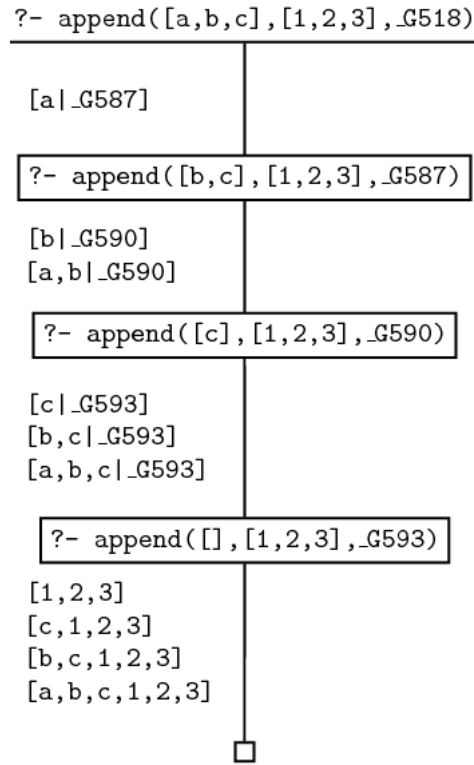


Figure 1: Trace for append [113]

2 18.3 What we do in this Prototype

3 This prototype throws light on the process of tackling the issues involved in creating
4 a data type to replicate the target language type system while conforming to the host
5 language restrictions and also utilizing the benefits.

6 We have a PROLOG like language in HASKELL defined via *data*.

7 The language defined is recursive in nature.

8 We convert it into a non recursive data type.

18.4 Creating a data type

A type system consists of a set of rules to define a "type" to different constructs in a programming language such as variables, functions and so on. A static type system requires types to be attached to the programming constructs before hand which results in finding errors at compile time and thus increase the reliability of the program. The other end is the dynamic type system which passes through code which would not have worked in former environment, it comes of as less rigid.

The advantages of static typing [73]

1. Earlier detection of errors
2. Better documentation in terms of type signatures
3. More opportunities for compiler optimizations
4. Increased run-time efficiency
5. Better developer tools

For dynamic typing

1. Less rigid
2. Ideal for prototyping / unknown / changing requirements or unpredictable behaviour
3. Re-usability

Transitional paragraph An ideal case would would be something that is
dont know what to write

To start with, replicating the single type "term" in PROLOG one must consider the distinct constructs it can be associated to such as complex structures (for example predicates, clauses etc.), don't cares, cuts, variables and so on.

1 Consider the language below,

```
1 data VariableName = VariableName Int String
2   deriving (Eq, Data, Typeable, Ord)
3 data Atom         = Atom         !String
4                   | Operator    !String
5   deriving (Eq, Ord, Data, Typeable)
6 data Term = Struct Atom [Term]
7           | Var VariableName
8           | Wildcard
9           | PString    !String
10          | PInteger   !Integer
11          | PFloat     !Double
12          | Flat [FlatItem]
13          | Cut Int
14   deriving (Eq, Data, Typeable)
15 data Clause = Clause { lhs :: Term, rhs_ :: [Goal] }
16             | ClauseFn { lhs :: Term, fn :: [Term] -> [Goal] }
17   deriving (Data, Typeable)
18 type Program = [Sentence]
19 type Body     = [Goal]
20 data Sentence = Query    Body
21              | Command Body
22              | C Clause
23   deriving (Data, Typeable)
```

2 Even though *Term* has a number of constructors the resulting construct has a
3 single type. Hence, a function would still be untyped / singly typed,

```
append :: [Term] -> [Term] -> [Term]
```

4 The above data type is recursive as seen in the constructor,

```
Struct Atom [Term]
```

5 One of the issues with the above is that it is not possible to distinguish the
6 structure of the data from the data type itself [104]. Consider the following, a reduced
7 version of the above data type,

```
1 type Atom         = String
2 data VariableName = VariableName Int String
3   deriving (Eq, Data, Typeable, Ord)
4 data Term = Struct Atom [Term]
```



```
5         | Var VariableName
6         | Wildcard -- Don't cares
7         | Cut Int
8     deriving (Eq, Data, Typeable)
```

1 Also one cannot create Quantifiers plus logic
2 To split a data type into two levels, a single recursive data type is replaced by two
3 related data types. Consider the following,

```
1 data FlatTerm a =
2     Struct Atom [a]
3     | Var VariableName
4     | Wildcard
5     | Cut Int deriving (Show, Eq, Ord)
```

4 One result of the approach is that the non-recursive type *FlatTerm* is modular and
5 generic as the structure "FlatTerm" is separate from it's type which is "a". Simply
6 speaking we can have something like

FlatTerm Bool

7 and a generic fuinction like,

```
map :: (a -> b) -> FlatTerm a -> FlatTerm b
```

8 18.5 Working with the language

9 Creating instances,

```
1 instance Functor (FlatTerm) where
2     fmap = T.fmapDefault
3 instance Foldable (FlatTerm) where
4     foldMap = T.foldMapDefault
5 instance Traversable (FlatTerm) where
6     traverse f (Struct atom x) = Struct atom <$>
7     sequenceA (Prelude.map f x)
8     traverse _ (Var v) = pure (Var v)
9     traverse _ Wildcard = pure (Wildcard)
10    traverse _ (Cut i) = pure (Cut i)
11 instance Unifiable (FlatTerm) where
12    zipMatch (Struct al ls) (Struct ar rs) =
```

```
13         if (a1 == ar) && (length ls == length rs)
14             then Struct a1 <$>
15                 pairWith (\l r -> Right (l,r)) ls rs
16             else Nothing
17     zipMatch Wildcard _ = Just Wildcard
18     zipMatch _ Wildcard = Just Wildcard
19     zipMatch (Cut i1) (Cut i2) = if (i1 == i2)
20         then Just (Cut i1)
21         else Nothing
22 instance Applicative (FlatTerm) where
23     pure x = Struct "" [x]
24     _ <*> Wildcard = Wildcard
25     _ <*> (Cut i) = Cut i
26     _ <*> (Var v) = (Var v)
27     (Struct a fs) <*> (Struct b xs) = Struct (a ++ b) [f x | f <- fs, x <- xs]
```

- 1 After flattening do fixing,
- 2 Opening up the language somehow so as to accommodate your own variables.

3 18.6 Black box

19 Prototype 2.1

19.1 About this chapter

This chapter attempts to infuse the generic methodology from 18 in a current PROLOG implementation [98] and make the unification "monadic".

19.2 How prolog-0.2.0.1 works

The original syntax used by the library,

```
1 data Term = Struct Atom [Term]
2           | Var VariableName
3           | Wildcard -- Don't cares
4           | Cut Int
5           deriving (Eq, Data, Typeable)
6
7 data Clause = Clause { lhs :: Term, rhs_ :: [Goal] }
8               | ClauseFn { lhs :: Term, fn :: [Term] -> [Goal] }
9               deriving (Data, Typeable)
10
11 rhs :: Clause -> [Term] -> [Goal]
12 rhs (Clause _ rhs) = const rhs
13 rhs (ClauseFn _ fn) = fn
14
15 data VariableName = VariableName Int String
16                   deriving (Eq, Data, Typeable, Ord)
17
18 type Atom          = String
19 type Goal          = Term
20 type Program       = [Clause]
```

The above language suffers from most of the problems discussed in the previous chapter.

The above is used to construct PROLOG "terms" which are of a "single type".

A database is used to store the terms which can then be used to resolve a query.

An interpreter to solve a query and lastly the unifier,

```
1 unify, unify_with_occurs_check :: MonadPlus m => Term -> Term
2   -> m Unifier
3
4 unify = fix unify'
5
6 unify_with_occurs_check =
7   fix $ \self t1 t2 -> if (t1 `occursIn` t2 || t2 `occursIn` t1)
8     then fail "occurs check"
9     else unify' self t1 t2
10  where
11    occursIn t = everything (||) (mkQ False (==t))
12
13 unify' :: MonadPlus m => (Term -> Term -> m Unifier) -> Term ->
14   Term -> m [(VariableName, Term)]
15
16 -- If either of the terms are don't cares then no unifiers exist
17 unify' _ Wildcard _ = return []
18 unify' _ _ Wildcard = return []
19
20 -- If one is a variable then equate the term to its value which
21 -- forms the unifier
22 unify' _ (Var v) t = return [(v,t)]
23 unify' _ t (Var v) = return [(v,t)]
24
25 -- Match the names and the length of their parameter list and
26 -- then match the elements of list one by one.
27 unify' self (Struct a1 ts1) (Struct a2 ts2)
28   | a1 == a2 && same length ts1 ts2 =
29     unifyList self (zip ts1 ts2)
30
31 unify' _ _ _ = mzero
32
33 same :: Eq b => (a -> b) -> a -> a -> Bool
34 same f x y = f x == f y
35
36 -- Match the elements of each of the tuples in the list.
37 unifyList :: Monad m => (Term -> Term -> m Unifier) ->
38   [(Term, Term)] -> m Unifier
39 unifyList _ [] = return []
40 unifyList unify ((x,y):xys) = do
41   u <- unify x y
42   u' <- unifyList unify (Prelude.map (both (apply u)) xys)
43   return (u++u')
```

1 There are a few other components such as the REPL, Parser.

- ₁ **19.3** What we do in this prototype?
- ₂ **19.4** Current implementation (prolog-0.2.0.1)
- ₃ **19.5** Modifications
- ₄ **19.6** Results

₁ **20 Prototype 2.2**

₂ nothing to do here

21 Prototype 3

22 Prototype 4

23 Work Completed

23.1 What we are doing

A partial implementation of the logic programming language PROLOG is provided by the library `prolog-0.2.0.1`. One of the objectives is to implement monadic unification using the library [118].

23.2 Unifiable Data Structures

For a data type to be Unifiable, it must have instances of Functor, Foldable and Traversable. The interaction between different classes is depicted in figure 2.

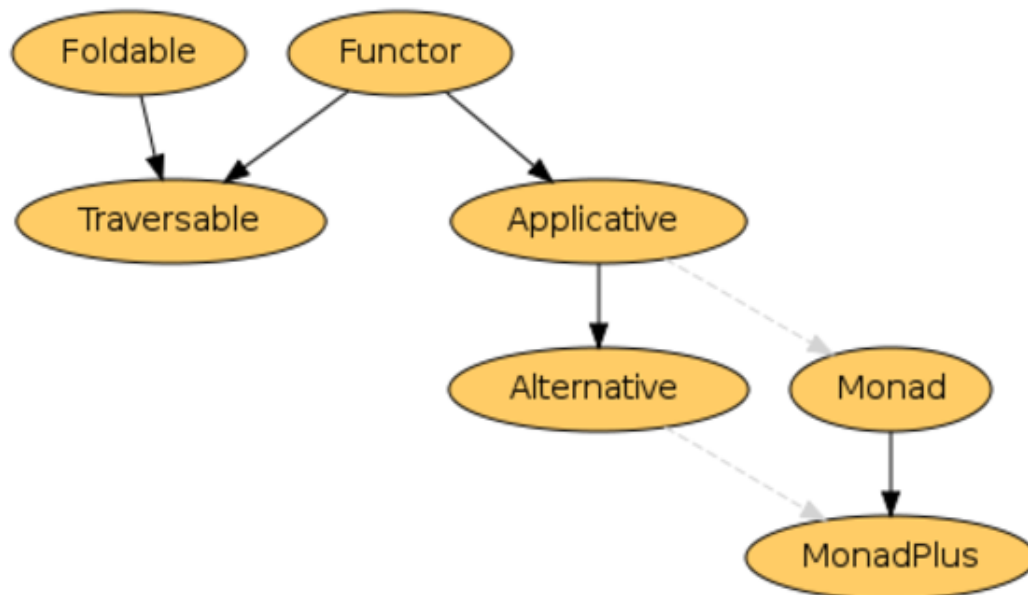


Figure 2: Functor Hierarchy [133]

The Functor class provides the `fmap` function which applies a particular operation to each element in the given data structure. The Foldable class *folds* the data structure by recursively applying the operation to each element and

23.3 Why **Fix** is necessary?

Since **HASKELL** is a lazy language it can work with infinite data structures. *Type Synonyms* in **HASKELL** cannot be self referential.

In our case consider the following example,

```
-- The Prolog Syntax
type Atom = String
data VariableName = VariableName Int String deriving (Show, Eq, Ord)
data FlatTerm a =
    Struct Atom [a]
  | Var VariableName
  | Wildcard
  | Cut Int deriving (Show, Eq, Ord)
```

A **FlatTerm** can be of infinite depth which due to the reason stated above cannot be accounted for during application function. The resulting type signature would be of the form,

```
FlatTerm (FlatTerm (FlatTerm (FlatTerm (.....))))
```

Enter the **Fix** same as the function as a data type. The above would be simply reduced to,

```
Fix FlatTerm
```

resulting in the **PROLOG** Data Type

```
data Prolog = P (Fix FlatTerm) deriving (Show, Eq, Ord)
```

23.4 Dr. Casperson's Explanation

A recursive data type in **HASKELL** is where one value of some type contains values of that type, which in turn contain more values of the same type and so on. Consider the following example.

```
data Tree = Leaf Int | Node Int (Tree) (Tree)
```

1 A sample Tree would be,

```
(Node 0 (Leaf 1) (Node 2 (Leaf 3) (Leaf 4)))
```

2 The above structure can be infinitely deep since HASKELL is a *lazy* programming
3 language. But working with an infinitely deep / nested structure is not possible
4 and will result in a *occurs check* error. This is because writing a type signature for
5 a function to deal with such a parameter is not possible. One option would be to
6 *flatten* the data type by the introduction of a type variable. Consider the following,

```
data FlatTree a = Leaf Int | Node Int a a
```

7 A sample FlatTerm would be similar to Tree.

8 The FlatTree is recursive but does not reference itself. But it too can be
9 infinitely deep and hence writing a function to work on the structure is not possible.

10 23.5 The other fix

11 The `fix` function in the `Control.Monad.Fix` module allows for the definition of
12 recursive functions in HASKELL. Consider the following scenario,

```
fix :: (a -> a) -> a
```

13 The above function results in an infinite application stream,

```
f s : f (f (f (...)))
```

14 A fixed point of a function `f` is a value `a` such that `f a == a`. This is where the
15 name of `fix` comes from: it finds the least-defined fixed point of a function.

₁ 23.6 The Fix we use

₂ Fix-point type allows to define generic recursion schemes [60].

```
Fix f = f (Fix f)
```

1 24 Results

2 24.1 Types

3 One of the major differences between PROLOG and HASKELL is how each language
4 handles types. PROLOG is an untyped language meaning any operation can be per-
5 formed on the data irrespective of its type. HASKELL on the other hand is strongly
6 typed i.e. each operation requires a signature stating what types of data it can work
7 with. Moreover, the HASKELL type system is static.

8 PROLOG like any other language can work with some basic data types like num-
9 bers, characters, strings among others. Using these one can make terms like *Atoms*,
10 *Clauses*, *Constants*, *Strings*, *Characters*, *Predicates*, *Structures*, *Special Characters*
11 and so on. These need to be incorporated into the implementation so as to give a
12 palette for writing programs.

13 Our preliminary implementation is as follows,

```
type Atom = String

data VariableName = VariableName Int String deriving (Show, Eq, Ord)

data FlatTerm a =
    Struct Atom [a]
    | Var VariableName
    | Wildcard
    | Cut Int deriving (Show, Eq, Ord)

{--
Output :-

Struct "a" [Var (VariableName 0 "x"), Cut 0, Wildcard, Struct "b" []]

--}
```

14 which in PROLOG would look like,

```
a(X, !, b) .
```

1 **24.2 Lazy Evaluation**

2 **24.3 Opening up the Language**

3 **Flattening**

4 **Fixing**

5 **MetaSyntactic Variables**

6 **24.4 Quasi Quotation**

7 **24.5 Template Haskell**

8 **24.6 Higher Order Functions**

```
% Mehul Solanki.  
  
% Higher Order Functions.  
  
% The following library contains the maplist function.  
:- use_module(library(apply)).  
  
% The maplist function takes a function and a list to apply the  
% function.  
% The function write is passes which will print out the elements  
% of the list.  
higherOrder(X) :- maplist(write,X).  
  
/*  
higherOrder([1,2,3,4]).  
1234  
true  
*/
```

1 24.7 I/O

```
data Result = Ordinary _____ --No I/O required
| SideEffect (IO _____)      -- Requiring Output
| ReadEffect (IO _____ -> Result) -- Requiring Input
```

2 24.8 Mutability

3 24.9 Unification

4 24.10 Monads

1 25 Conclusion / Expected Outcomes

2 The aim of this study is to experiment with two different languages working to-
3 gether and/or contributing in providing a solution. Mixing and matching conflicting
4 characteristics may lead to a behaviour similar to that of a multi paradigm language.
5 The points to be looked at are efficiency of the emulation, semantics of the resulting
6 embedding.

7 Moreover, this will be an attempt to answer the question how practical PROLOG
8 fits into HASKELL.

26 Editing to do

This Chapter needs to be removed from the final work.

Either

1. Rename “proposal.*” to “thesis-solanki.*”.
2. Switch the thesis style to UNBC thesis style. (Not urgent, if this breaks other tools, we can do this last, but it would be nice to have a sense of what the thesis is going to look like.)
3. Check the rules for spacing in the bibliography to ensure that we have them right.

Mehul

4. **Rewrite (Section) Chapter 3.2.** You are now in a position to state what your contributions are. In some sense everything else flows around this.
5. Fix the reference at the bottom of page 2:
`citewikipro- log,somogyi1995logic,website:prolog1000db.` **SOLVED**
6. Write enough of Chapters 18–22 that we can decide what material is needed in Chapters 12, 13, and 14.
7. [T_EXnical] Remove the `\paragraph{}`s from the running text. L^AT_EX ends a paragraph every time that it encounters two end-of-lines with only whitespace between them. `\par` does the same thing.

The `\paragraph` command is in the same family as `chapter`, `\section`, and so on. For its correct use, see later in this file.

If you don't like the shape of the paragraphs that you get without `paragraph`, use something like

```
\setlength{\parindent}{3em}
```

```
\setlength{\parskip}{2\baselineskip}
```

to adjust either the initial paragraph indent, or the inter-paragraph space.

8. Rewrite (Section) Chapter 3 in formal English.
9. Bump the sectioning levels up by one. That is, what is currently a section should become a chapter, what is currently a subsection should become a section, and so on. It may not make sense to do this until you have switch to `thesis.sty`.
10. “re-curses” means to swear again (*p* 9). **Changed to recurs**
11. I am not sure that I agree with the use of “reflective” on *p* 8 (*l* 25). Reflection often means run-time introspection (for instance the Java `.getClass()` method). In computer science, reflection is the ability of a computer program to examine (see type introspection) and modify its own structure and behavior (specifically the values, meta-data, properties and functions) at runtime.
12. Supply your credentials in the front material (what degrees do you have?).
(Search for `%% Supply your credentials in proposal1.tex.`)

David

13. Review Chapter 1
14. Review Chapter 2
15. Review Chapter 3
16. Review Chapter 4
17. Review Chapter 5
18. Review Chapter 6

19. Review Chapter 7

20. Review Chapter 8

21. Review Chapter 18

26.1 Editing suggestions from David

Thoughts on 1.1 We need to firmly fix in mind who the target audience is. Some possibilities

1. Undergraduate Physics students
2. Undergraduate Computer Science students
3. Future graduate students of Casperson who have just begun their thesis work.
4. Simon Peyton-Jones.

If we assume (3), then the material in the first paragraph and part of the second are unnecessary.

Thoughts on 1.3 I am unsure that I can summarize this subsection in two sentences. I don't know what the problem statement is at the end of it.

Thoughts on 1.4 Rename to "Thesis Organization".

Thoughts on Chapter 2 Here are some potential keywords from Chapter 2:

• Hindley-Milner type systems • Horn clauses • λ -calculi • HASKELL • SCALA
• declarative programming languages • foreign function interfaces • functional programming • implementing Prolog in other languages • language embedding • language families • language paradigms • logic programming • meta-programming • monads

• paradigm integration • quasi-quotation • the typed λ -calculus • the untyped λ -calculus .

What is the overall message?

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