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The OBJVLISP Model: Definition of a Uniform, Reflexive and Extensible Object Oriented Language

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Abstract

This paper presents the ObjVlisp model designed to experiment and synthesize the expanding activities of the Object Oriented world. The goal is to specify a minimal kernel whose semantic is perfectly uniform, then to modelize other Object semantics by extending this concentrate kernel. We propose a unification of the metaclass, class and object concepts which allows an optimal uniformity. This unification is obtained as a reflexive definition of the language. We rapidly describe some ObjVlisp variations establishing the malleability of the system. The kernel is built on a portable virtual machine defined as a set of Lisp primitives which preserve the Lisp evaluator and maintain the spirit of dynamic (or lexical) scoping.

Keywords:

object, class, metaclass, uniformity, instance variable, classe variable, message, instantiation, CLASS, inheritance, OBJECT, Lisp, Smalltalk, ObjVlisp, virtual machine, dynamic scoping, lexical scoping, portability, reflexive, extensible.

1 Uniformity

*One way of stating the Smalltalk philosophy is to choose a small number of general principles and apply them uniformly" [Kas83].

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1.1 Is a class an object?

In most common Object Oriented Languages, besides Krasner's uniformity "wish", a class is not a REAL object. Some of them however, like Smalltalk-80 [GR83] and Loops [BS83], introduced the new metaclass concept to provide a greater abstraction. To definitively suppress the gap between class and object, we propose a unification of the metaclass, class and object concepts.

We claim [Bri85] that a class must be an object, allowing greater clarity and expressive power. As a consequence, we no longer need to introduce the class variable and class method concepts of Smalltalk which are not real variables and methods.

1.2 Class and terminal instance

The reverse question is "is every object a class?", whose answer is "no". Some objects are "only" instances of a class, and don't define a model. An instance of a POINT class, e.g. an object *a_point*, or an instance of the NUMBER class, e.g. 3, are such objects. We call them *terminal instances*.

1.3 How many object types?

We consider only one kind of objects, without structure or nature distinction between generators (*classes*) and non generators (*terminal instances*).

¹In the actor model, an actor describes its own structure and exists without a class. Defining generator actors [Yon86] or using a copy mechanism [Lee86] [CBS96] are alternatives to the class model.

In fact, they only differ by their capacity to react to the instantiation message. If the class of an object owns the primitive instantiation method (new selector, owned by the primitive class CLASS) or inherits it, this object is a generator, otherwise a terminal instance.

1.4 Metaclasses are usual classes

A metaclass (or a metagenerator) is simply a class which generates other classes. Every class declared as a subclass of the metaclass CLASS inherits its new method, and becomes a metaclass. Therefore the introduction of the metaclass concept is unnecessary and "the distinction between metaclasses, classes and terminal instances" is only an inheritance consequence and not a type distinction. There is now only one type of objects in the model.²

This unification induces a simplification of the instantiation and inheritance concepts but imposes to use them simultaneously: for example a metaclass is created as the subclass of another one (as an "ultimate" subclass of CLASS).

2 The ObjVisp Model

Historically the ObjVisp model comes from our work on Smalltalk-76 [Col83], and our wish to present a synthesis in an operational semantic expressed in Lisp [Col84b]. We present here the new reflexive version which exactly integrates the previous unification and gives a fine solution to the problem of `<class, instance>` dichotomy.

2.1 ObjVisp in five Postulates

Following the classical presentation of Smalltalk-76 [Ing78], five postulates fully describe the new ObjVisp model:

P1: every entity of the language is an object. An object represents a piece of knowledge and a set of potentialities:

²To easily distinguish them, we use upper-case for classes, upper-bold for metaclasses, and lower-case for terminal instances.

`object = < data , procedures >`

P2: the only control structure is message passing: the protocol to activate an object. A message specifies which procedure to apply (denoted by its name, the selector), and the arguments to pass:

`(send object selector Args1 ... Argsn)`

P3: every object belongs to a class that specifies its data (attributes called *fields* or *instance variables*) and its behavior (procedures called *methods*). Objects will be dynamically generated from this model, they are called *instances* of the class. Following Plato, all instances of a class have same structure and shape, but differ through the values of their common *instance variables*.

P4: a class is also an object, generated from a class, called a *metaclass* (because describing a class). Consequently (P3), to each class is associated a metaclass. The initial primitive metaclass is the class CLASS.

P5: a class can be defined as a subclass of one (or many) other class(es). This subclassing mechanism allows inheritance of fields and methods, and is called *inheritance*. The class OBJECT represents the most common behavior shared by all objects.

2.2 Classes and objects

2.2.1 Structure of an object

The postulates P1 & P3 define an object as a "chunk" of knowledge and actions whose structure is defined by its class. More precisely, fields: This environment (also called a dictionary) is split in two parts:

- a) the set of *instance variables* specified by the object's class,
 - b) the set of associated values.
- The set of instance variables belongs to the

class, and is shared by all its instances. The set of values is owned by each instance. An object cannot exist without its class.

Each object implicitly holds three "pseudo-fields": *self* and *ist*³ are bound to the object itself and its class, *metait* denotes the metaclass of the object and is characteristic⁴ of the ObjVisp model.

methods: The methods define the procedures shared by all the instances of a class and owned by it.

To realize the unification between class and instance we represent this method environment as a particular field of a class; the methods dictionary of a class is the value associated to a specific instance variable called *methods*. As a common object, a class is defined by its (metaclass and the values of the associated instance variables.

2.2.2 Structure of a class

We present now the three instance variables describing a class. They are owned by CLASS as the primitive metaclass:

- supers* : the list of super-classes of the class,
- l_variables* : the list of instance variables that the class specifies,
- methods* : the list of methods held by the class organized in a P-list way, with pairs `<selector, lambda-expression>`.

2.2.3 Instantiation of a class

A class is instantiated by sending it a message of selector *new*. The new message received by a class provides the generation of a new object built on the class model. For example, we define the class POINT by instantiating the metaclass CLASS; we specify the name of the object (value

³respectively analogs to SELF and IST in Smalltalk-72 [GK76]

⁴We use it to simulate the class variables even if we have the double equality: `metait = (class-of ist) = (send ist 'is)`

of self) and the three values associated to the CLASS's instance variables:

```
(send 'CLASS 'new <name> <supers> <[variables] <methods> >)
(send 'CLASS 'new 'POINT (OBJECT) '(x y)
  (draw (lambda () (ty-print x y * *))))
```

Then we create an instance of POINT, using the same new message:⁵

```
(send 'POINT 'new <name> <[variables] <methods> >)
(send 'POINT 'new 'a_point 40 15)
(send 'POINT 'new 'another_point 24 12)
```

The semantic and syntax of the new method are totally uniform. The new message always receives as arguments: the name of the instance to generate, and the values related to the instance variables specified by the receiver-class.

Unlike the SMALLTALK-80 system, ObjVisp uses only one method (named *new*) to create an object (by using the make-object primitive of the virtual machine). This method is owned by the metaclass CLASS as expressed by its reflexive definition.

3 Reflexivity

Because we need a complete transparency in the objects definitions to give more complete control to the users, we adapt the reflexive interpreter technic [dRS84] to the construction of our model. ObjVisp is supported by two graphs: the *instantiation graph* and the *inheritance graph*. The instantiation graph represents the "instance of" relation (P3 & P4), and the inheritance graph the "subclass of" one (P5). CLASS and OBJECT are the roots of these two graphs: they are defined in ObjVisp.

⁵This table shows the half-dictionary of values owned by each object:

```
? (send 'a_point 'l_values)
= (40 15)
? (send 'POINT 'l_values)
= ((OBJECT) (x y) (draw .))
? (send 'CLASS 'l_values)
= ((OBJECT) (supers l_variables methods) (new .))
```

3.1 CLASS: Instantiation

CLASS is the first object of the system, as the root of the instantiation graph, it will recursively generate all other objects. CLASS is also its own instance and we have the equality:

```
class [CLASS] = CLASS
```

3.1.1 Self pattern-matching of CLASS

To verify the previous equality we have to guarantee that the instance variables specified by CLASS match the corresponding values also held by CLASS, as its own instance:

```

i_variables : supers
i_values : (OBJECT) (supers i_variables methods) (new (lambda1 ..) ... menu (lambda_n ..))
methods

```

The value associated to the instance variable *i_variables* is exactly the list of instance variables itself, this self pattern-matching illustrates the definition of CLASS as an object.

3.1.2 Boot-strap

"A natural and fundamental question to ask, on learning of these incredibly interlocking pieces of software and hardware is: "How did they ever get started in the first place?". It is truly a baffling thing" [Ho79].

Defining CLASS from itself necessitates to precise the boot-strap mechanism. We create the skeleton of CLASS using the make-object primitive. We just need to introduce the new method which supports the self-instantiation of CLASS:

```

(make-object <metamodel> <model> <instance> <i_variables> <i_values>)
(make-object 'CLASS 'CLASS 'CLASS
  'supers
  'i_variables
  'methods)
(OBJECT) (supers i_variables methods) (new (lambda (name . i_values)
  (make-object isit self name i_variables i_values)))

```

This bootstrap prepared, we can define **ObjVisp** in **ObjVisp**:

3.1.3 Self-instantiation of CLASS

```

:: (send 'CLASS 'new <name> <supers> <i_variables> <i_values> <methods>)
(send 'CLASS 'new 'CLASS (OBJECT) (supers i_variables methods)
  'new
  supers
  i_variables
  methods
  ...
  methodfor
  change
  understand
  menu
  (lambda (selector) (methodfor selector methods))
  (lambda (selector method) (changemethod selector method methods))
  (lambda (selector method) (defmethod selector method methods))
  (lambda () (selectors methods)) ))

```

This definition is given for a dynamically scoped Lisp (Le_Lisp [CDH84]) as other ones and examples. Then all the instance variables are automatically bound to their values in a method body. Consequently the lambda-methods associated to the *supers*, *i_variables* and *methods* selectors are quite easy to express.

3.2.2 OBJECT the most common class

The second primitive class is OBJECT, instance of CLASS. OBJECT is usually the default specified superclass (e.g. CLASS is a subclass of OBJECT), so it represents the most common class (intersection of all classes), describing the most common behavior (for classes and terminal instances).

```

:: (send 'CLASS 'new <name> <supers> <i_variables> <i_values> <methods>)
(send 'CLASS 'new 'OBJECT (OBJECT)
  'is
  ?
  ?<-
  i_values
  metaclass?
  class?
  ...
  print
  error
  (lambda () (pretty self))
  (lambda msg (lambda bs 'msg)))

```

From this definition, each **ObjVisp** object answers to the <selector> by <action>:

```

is      giving the name of its class
?      returning the value of the field i_var
?<-    writing i_var with the new value
i_values returning the values of the fields
metaclass? testing if the object is a metaclass
class?  testing if the object is a class
print   printing an external representation
error   precising the standard error treatment

```

Notice that the ? and ?<- methods which access to the instance variables are conform to the dynamic binding of Le_Lisp.

3.3 Self-Extensions

3.3.1 Class variables by Example

Let us return to the POINT class, previously defined. Now we would like the constant character "*" to be a class variable shared by all the points of a same class. We redefine the POINT class as before, but metaclass of which (let's call it **METAPoint**) specifies this common character:

```

1 (send 'CLASS 'new <name> <supers> <[variables]> <[methods]>)
2 (send 'CLASS 'new 'METAPOINT' (CLASS) (char) 0)
3 (send 'METAPOINT 'new <name> <supers> <[variables]>
4 <[methods]>
5 <char>)
6 (send 'METAPOINT 'new 'POINT' (OBJECT) '(x y)
7 'draw (lambda 0 (try-print x y char)))
8 " * " )

```

METAPOINT is declared as a subclass of **CLASS** (thus it is a metaclass). It inherits the instance variables *supers*, *variables* and *methods* from **CLASS** and adds them the instance variable *char*. Consequently, **POINT** specifies the associate value of *char*, i.e. " * ".

Now we could create such a point:

```

? (send 'POINT 'new 'a_point 20 10)
= a_point
? (send 'a_point 'draw)
= *

```

Parametrization of a class: The **POINT** class is now parametrized by the "display" character and the **METAPOINT** metaclass represents this abstraction. Let's define two new classes, called **POINT#** and **POINT@** with two other different display characters. Obviously, they are defined as a subclass of **POINT**:

```

? (send 'METAPOINT 'new 'POINT# '(POINT) 0 0 " * " )
= POINT#
? (send 'METAPOINT 'new 'POINT@ '(POINT) 0 0 " @ " )
= POINT@
? (send (send 'POINT# 'new 'a_point# 1 2) 'draw)
#
= #
? (send (send 'POINT@ 'new 'a_point@ 3 4) 'draw)
@
= @

```

Such a simple and intuitive construction is **IMPOSSIBLE** in Smalltalk, because *class variables* are implemented like *pool variables* [GR83], and are not inheritable.

With the **ObjVisp** model we have the identification:

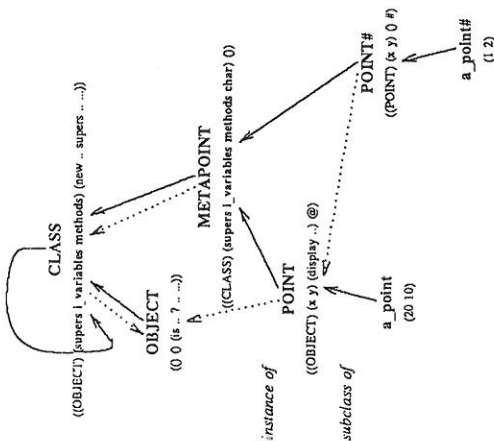
```

class variable [an_object] =
instance variable [an_object's class]

```

3.3.2 Architecture of the ObjVisp model

We summarize the general structure of the **ObjVisp** model by connecting together the *instantiation graph* and the *inheritance graph* to explain the "POINT construction":



Below an object, appears its half-dictionary of values; they correspond to the instance variables of its class, this list (in bold) being itself a value corresponding to the *variables* instance variable owned by **CLASS**, and inherited by **METAPOINT**. There is no longer any depth limitation of the instantiation graph. We can extend it as much as we want to specify different levels of shared knowledge and methods.

3.3.3 Class methods by Example

As for class variables, *class methods* are specified in the metaclass as usual methods. Suppose we want to define a new *class method* for **POINT** to create and initialize a new point. We simply define the *newinit* method of **METAPOINT** (assuming we define also an *init* method in the **POINT** class, or at least in the **OBJECT** class):

```

(send 'METAPOINT 'understand 'newinit
'lambda (name)
(send (send self 'new name) 'init))

```

3.3.4 Filiation link

To use classes registering all their instances, we define a new metaclass **SET**, as a subclass of **CLASS** with a new instance variable *sons* pointing the list of instances. We just have to redefine the **CLASS** new method to add the newly instance at the end of the *sons* list:

```

(send 'CLASS 'new 'SET (CLASS) '(sons)
'lambda (name . values)
(nconc sons (cons name 0))
(run-super))
mapsons
(lambda (selector)
(mapc
(lambda (an_object)
(send an_object selector)
sons)))
)

```

The *mapsons* method distributes an unary message (without argument) to all the instances of a particular set. The "(run-super)" form (same as in CommonLoops [BKK*85]) recalls the current message, but the lookup for the method will begin in the superclasses of the current class.

4 Implementation

ObjVisp means **OBJECT** extension of a **Virtual LISP** and is implemented along the virtual machine technique allowing a quick installation on any Lisp (dynamically or lexically scoped). The classical difficulty when defining such a machine is to choose general primitives available on machine aimed systems without privileging particular constructions, even if they are powerful for a given target. Consequently we have decided to preserve the <eval, apply> engine, and to use classical Lisp data structures such as atom, list, structure or environment. The **Le_Lisp** instantiation of this virtually machine is totally described in [Col84a], and we are just finishing its Scheme and CommonLisp mergings.

To synthesize our previous presentation we conclude this paper with **Le_Lisp** & Scheme definitions of an object:

ObjLe_Lisp : an object is implemented as a Lisp atom whose functional value (*send* is equal to the *funcall*(function)) is a self-referenced closure:

```

(defun an_object (selector . args)
-1 (let (self 'an_object) (let 'A_CLASS)
-1 (metaclass 'A_METACLASS) )
-2 (letc (variables metaclass) (values isit)
-2 (letc (variables isit) (values self)
-3 (protect (apply (lookup selector isit) args)
-3 (rewrite self isit metaclass))))

```

1. The pseudo instance variables are dynamically bound by the "let" function.⁶ Notice that those variables allow a factorization of the script of an object, the parts -2- to -3- defining a completely parametrized (and shared) piece of code.
2. in the spirit of a dynamic Lisp, the activation of an object is done in its fields' context. This double environment is dynamically set by the two "letc" (let dictionary) functions:
 " (letc (variables metaclass) (values isit))
 sets the class environment,
 and " (letc (variables isit) (values self))
 the object's one.

3. when the object is deactivated, the updating of the double closure is automatically done with the function "rewrite". Consequently, the usual Lisp affectation functions (set, setq, nextl, incr ...) can be used to assign the instance (and class) variables.

ObjScheme: an object is now anonymous and represented as a *compound-procedure* grouping together the environment of the instance variables (*diclo*) and a lambda-expression:

```

;_diclo = < (metaclass . ?) (isit . ?) (variables . ?) ... (variables . ?) >
(define (self selector . args)
-1 (apply (lookup selector (access isit _diclo))
-2 (cons* self _diclo args)))

```

⁶We propose (cf. **ObjScheme**) to replace these "let" pseudo-variables bindings by real instance variables, defining **OBJECT** with *isit* and *metaclass* (facultative) as instance variables. Objects can also be anonymous by using structures in place of atoms (notice that naming classes is useful for documentation and debugging, therefore **CLASS** will own the new name instance variable).

1. the "i_dico" is built as a Scheme environment by the "make-environment" primitive.
2. each method takes "i_dico" as argument allowing the explicit access to each field.

5 Improvements and Possibilities

The **ObjVlisp** model first advantage is **UNIFORMITY**. There is now only one kind of objects. This allows a simplification and reduction of concepts, which are thus more powerful and general. The second property is **REFLEXIVITY** which provides a language totally and uniformly accessible by the user. Finally, **EXTENSIBILITY** authorizes various applications and semantics modelizations. For such the study of inheritance strategies of such systems like **Flavors** [MMW80], **Smalltalk-80** [GR83] or **Loops** [BS83] are stimulated by defining new metaclasses [Coib84].

The **ObjVlisp** project is part of the "O.Q.P. Methodology. GRECO de Programmation" Research Group.

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MULTILOG : MULTiple worlds in LOGic programming

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ABSTRACT

MULTILOG is a Logic Programming language intended for knowledge representation and manipulation. Its main features are the following :

- knowledge is distributed among different worlds
- each world has his own inference mechanism
- several inheritance relations are provided.

Possible applications of MULTLOG include : hypothetical reasoning, default reasoning, viewpoints representation, distributed reasoning.

1. INTRODUCTION

Our purpose is to use logic programming to represent and manipulate knowledge. Unfortunately, there are features essential in knowledge representation that are difficult to handle if we use a logic programming language such as Prolog <Koimerauer 79>, <Kowalski 79a> :

- Representing and manipulating large amounts of knowledge.
example : If we want to perform symbolic integration, we need a lot of knowledge ; general knowledge on integration (e.g. the integral of a sum is the sum of the integrals), as well as specific knowledge on rational functions (e.g. how to use the method of partial fractions), on trigonometric expressions (e.g. which are the interesting substitutions such as $u = \tan(t/2)$), etc.
 This knowledge needs some structure to achieve clarity and efficiency.

- Default reasoning.

example : We often have to represent facts such as :

- if you do not know this work is located,

- typically, a mammal has four legs.

Such facts can be expressed in Prolog only through using such extra features as metalevel features (e.g. "clause" built-in predicate) or control facilities (e.g. "!", ":", ":-").

• Hypothetical reasoning.

example : Suppose that we wish to perform troubleshooting on logic circuits. To show that a given component may be responsible for the failure, we hypothesize the faultiness of this component and then check to see whether the circuit outputs observed match the outputs expected.

It is possible to do this kind of reasoning in Prolog, but side effects built-in predicates such as "assert" and "retract" must be used. Besides, if we want to compare the consequences of two different hypothesis, the problem becomes much more complicated.