Qu-Prolog 9.1 Reference Manual

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Abstract

Qu-Prolog is an extension of Prolog designed primarily as an implementation and tactic language for interactive theorem provers, particularly those that carry out schematic proofs. Qu-Prolog has built-in support for the kinds of data structures typically encountered in theorem proving activities such as object variables, substitutions and quantified terms. Qu-Prolog also supports interprocess communication (IPC) that allows messages to be passed between Qu-Prolog threads, whether they are executing on the same Qu-Prolog process or on different processes or even on different machines.

This document is the reference manual for Qu-Prolog version 9.1

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1 Getting Started

This section describes how to set up the required environment variables and briefly describes how to run the interpreter and compiler.

1.1 Environment Variables

The root directory of the Qu-Prolog tree contains the files PROFILE_CMDS and LOGIN_CMDS that can be used to define the required environment variables.

1.2 Data Areas

Qu-Prolog contains several data areas that store execution state information. The sizes of these areas can be set at runtime or when new threads are created. The data areas are described below.

The global stack (sometimes called the heap).

The global stack stores the Qu-Prolog terms build during forward execution.

The scratch pad.

The scratch pad is used for storing terms temporarily during the execution of findall, setof and bagof and for simplifying terms involving substitutions.

The local stack (environment stack).

The local stack contains all the environments for the current execution state.

The choice point stack.

The choice point stack contains all the choice points for the current execution state.

The binding trail.

This trail is used to determine which variables should be reset to unbound on backtracking.

The other trail.

Some Qu-Prolog data structures change values during computation and this trail is used to reset these data structures to their old values on backtracking. Such data structures include the delay list associated with a variable, the distinctness information associated with an object variable, the names of variables, and implicit parameters. It is also used to manage variable tags, reference counts for the dynamic database and call_cleanup.

The code area.

The code area is used to store the static (compiled) code. It includes all the Qu-Prolog library code.

The string table.

The string table stores all the strings used as the names of atoms.

The name table.

The name table is a hash table used to associate variable names with variables.

The implicit parameter table.

The implicit parameter table is a hash table that stores (pointers to) the current value of the implicit parameters.

The atom table.

The atom table is a hash table that stores information about atoms.

The predicate table.

The predicate table is a hash table that associates predicates (name and arity) with the code for the predicate.

1.3 Running the Interpreter

qp is the name of the Qu-Prolog interpreter. From a Unix shell, Qu-Prolog is started by typing:

qр

When the interpreter is ready to accept a query, it will prompt you with

| ?-

When the interpreter displays an answer it is accompanied with any delayed problems (constraints) relevant to the query. After the interpreter displays an answer to a query it expects input from the user. If the user enters a semicolon then the interpreter will attempt to find another solution to the query. If the user enters a RETURN then the interpreter will prompt for a new query. If the user enters a comma then the interpreter will enter a new level where the user can extend the current query with more goals. Any variables in the original query and in the displayed answer to that query may be referenced in the extended query. The user may return to the previous level by entering a CONTROL-D at the prompt. The interpreter is able to maintain references to variables by using the variants of read and write that remember and generate variable names.

The available switches for the interpreter (and any Qu-Prolog runtime system) are as follows.

-B size

Set the binding trail size to size K words. The default size is 32K.

-O size

Set the other trail size to size K words. The default size is 32K.

-i size

Set the implicit parameter table size to size entries. The system makes the size of the table the next power of two bigger than twice the supplied size. The default size is 10000.

-b size

Set the recode database to size K words. The default size is 64K.

-C size

Set the choice point stack to size K words. The default size is 64K.

-e size

Set the environment stack to size K words. The default size is 64K.

-h size

Set the heap (global stack) to size K words. The default size is 400K.

-H size

Set the scratch pad to size K words. The default size is 10K.

-n size

Set the name table to size entries. The system makes the size of the table the next power of two bigger than twice the supplied size. The default size is 10000.

-z size

Set the thread table to size entries. The default size is 100. This switch determines the maximum number of threads that can be running at any time.

-N server-name

Set the machine (IP address) on which the Pedro server is running to server-name. The default is the current machine (localhost).

-P server-port

Set the port on which the Pedro server is listening to server-port. The default is 4550.

-A process-symbol

Set the name of this process to process-symbol.

-l initialization-file

Consult initialization-file before the interpreter starts.

-g initial-goal

Execute initial-goal before the interpreter starts but after initialization file is loaded (if any).

An online manual qp(1) is available to explain the options available to the interpreter.

1.4 Running the Compiler

As well as running programs in interpreted mode, Qu-Prolog programs can be compiled for faster execution.

Declarations appearing in the source code of the form

?- Decl.

or

:- Decl.

are executed by the compiler and are also compiled for execution at load time. The exceptions to this are index/3 and compile_time_only/1 declarations which are executed by the compiler only.

qc is an interface to the Qu-Prolog compilation system. The system consists of a preprocessor, a term expander, a compiler, an assembler, and a linker. qc processes the supplied options and calls each component with the appropriate arguments in the sequence given above.

A common usage of qc is where the user supplies a Qu-Prolog source program. qc compiles the program and generates an executable. The executable is stored in two files. exec_file (e.g. a.out) contains the basic information about the executable and exec_file.qx (e.g. a.out.qx) has the essential data about the program. To run the executable, the user types in exec_file.

qc accepts several types of filename arguments.

Files ending with .ql are Qu-Prolog source programs.

Files ending with $\tt.qi$ indicates that the file has been preprocessed.

Files ending with .qg are taken to contain clauses after term expansion.

Files ending with .qs are Qu-Prolog assembly programs.

Object files have the suffix .qo.

The compiler also accepts byte-encoded files produced by the encoded write of Qu-Prolog. Encoded files must have .qle or .qge extensions and are encoded equivalents of .ql and .qg files.

The available switches for the compiler are as follows.

-D macro

Define macro as 1 (one). This is the same as if a $\#define\ macro\ 1$

line appeared at the beginning of the .ql file being compiled.

-E

Stop after running the preprocessor. The output is placed in the corresponding file suffixed .qi.

-G

Stop after running the term expander. The output is placed in the corresponding file suffixed .qg.

-R file

Supply the term expansion rules (in file) to the term expander.

-S

Stop after running the compiler. The output is placed in the corresponding file suffixed .qs.

-с

Stop after running the assembler. The default output file is the corresponding file suffixed $.\,\mathsf{qo}\,.$

-o exec_file

Name the object file if the -c switch is also supplied. Otherwise, name the executable. If exec_file is not supplied the default name for the executable is a.out.

-r

Add rlwrap to the runtime system to provide history and command line editing. This is used for the interpreter. The runtime system (shell script) may need to be edited if rlwrap is to behave in a different way.

The qp switches are used to alter the size of different data areas for the compiler.

The ql switches (see below) fix the size of some of the data areas in the executable being generated.

The Qu-Prolog linker (q1) links .qo files to produce an executable.

The available switches for the linker are as follows.

-a size

Set the size of the atom table to **size** entries. The system makes the size of the table the next power of two bigger than twice the supplied size. The default size is 10000.

-d size

Set the code area to size K bytes. The default size is 400K bytes.

-p size

Set the size of the predicate table to size entries The system makes the size of the table the next power of two bigger than twice the supplied size. The default size is 10000.

-s size

Set the string table to size K bytes. The default size is 64K bytes.

An online manuals qc(1) and ql(1) is available to explain the options available to the compiler and linker.

1.5 Online Manuals

Included with the Qu-Prolog release is a HTML version of this manual. To access this version open the file \$QPHOME/doc/manual/MAIN.html in a browser.

1.6 User Guide

The system is supplied with a User Guide (Technical Report 00-20) that introduces the basic concepts of Qu-Prolog and presents some example programs and sessions with the interpreter.

Example programs are supplied in the examples directory.

1.7 Windows Users

The Windows installer for Qu-Prolog updates the PATH variable to include the Qu-Prolog executables. All Qu-Prolog programs should be run from a Command Prompt window. In the manual Control-D is used for end-of-file. For Windows users, end-of-file is Control-Z followed by a Enter. ¡p¿ If the foreign function interface is required then the mingw compiler needs to be installed to manage the compilation and linking of C code.

2 Syntax

This section describes the concrete syntax of Qu-Prolog 9.1

2.1 Constants

2.1.1 Atoms

There are four syntactic forms for atoms.

1. A lower case letter followed by any sequence consisting of "_" and alphanumeric characters.

For example:

true

semester_1

2. Any combination of the following set of graphic characters.

```
|-/+*<=>#@$\^&':.?
```

For example:

@<=

?=

Note: This is a non-standard use of '|', which is usually reserved exclusively for list construction. A consequence is that extra spaces or brackets may be needed when constructing lists whose elements contain graphic characters.

For example:

[+ |X]

3. Any sequence of characters enclosed by "'" (single quote). Single quote can be included in the sequence by writing the quote twice. "\" indicates an escape sequence, where the escape characters are case insensitive. The possible escape characters are:

```
Meaning: Continuation.
   newline
                 Meaning: Same as d.
    ^character
                 Meaning: Control character.
                 Meaning: A two digit octal number.
    dd
                 Meaning: Alarm (ASCII = 7).
    a
                 Meaning: Backspace (ASCII = 8).
    b
    С
                 Meaning: Continuation.
    d
                 Meaning: Delete (ASCII = 127).
                 Meaning: Escape (ASCII = 27).
    е
                 Meaning: Formfeed (ASCII = 12).
    f
                 Meaning: Newline (ASCII = 10).
   n
    odd
                 Meaning: A two digits octal number.
                 Meaning: Return (ASCII = 13)
    r
                 Meaning: Space (ASCII = 32).
                 Meaning: Horizontal tab (ASCII = 9).
                 Meaning: Vertical tab (ASCII = 11).
   xdd
                 Meaning: A two digit hexadecimal number.
  Here are a few examples of quoted atoms.
  'hi!'
  'they''re'
  '\n'
4. One of the following.
  !
  {}
```

2.1.2 Numbers

The available range of integers is $-(2^31-1)$ to 2^31-1 on a 32 bit machine and $-(2^63-1)$ to 2^63-1 on a 64 bit machine. Integers can be represented in any of the following ways.

1. Any sequence of numeric characters. This method denotes the number in decimal, or base 10.

For example:

123

2. Base'Number, where Base ranges from 2 to 36 and Number can have any sequence of alphanumeric characters. Both upper and lower case alphabetic characters in Number are used to represent the appropriate digit when Base is greater than 10.

For example, integer value 10 can be written as: 2,1010

16'A 16'a

3. Binary numbers can also be represented in the form 0b followed by binary digits. Similarly octal and hexadecimal numbers can be represented by 0o or 0x followed by digits.

For example 0b1011 0o3170 0x3afd

4. O'Character gives the character code of Character.

For example, 0'A gives the ASCII character code 65.

Double precision floating point numbers are also available and are represented using either a decimal point or scientific notation.

2.2 Variables

2.2.1 Meta Variables

Meta variables are available in three syntactic forms.

1. An upper case letter followed by any sequence consisting of "_" and alphanumeric characters.

For example:

VarList

Term1

2. "_", followed by an upper case letter, and then any sequence consisting of "_" and alphanumeric characters.

For example:

_Dictionary

_X_1

3. " $_$ " alone denotes an anonymous variable.

2.2.2 Object Variables

Object variable names adhere to the following EBNF grammar:

```
obvar-name ---> ['!']['_'] obvar-prefix obvar-suffix
obvar-prefix ---> (lower-case-letter)+
obvar-suffix ---> (letter | digit | '_')*
```

Notes:

- 1. When the '!' is omitted, the *object-variable-prefix* must have been previously declared with the predicates obvar_prefix/[1,2].
- 2. When the '_' is used, the object variable is said to be anonymous.

```
Examples (where x is predeclared as an object-variable-prefix): x x0 !_y (anonymous) !_y0_1
```

2.3 Compound Terms

2.3.1 Functional Notation

The compound terms are represented in this notation. A compound term is composed of a functor and a sequence of one or more arguments, which are enclosed in a pair of parenthesis. The functor and each of the arguments can be any term. For example:

```
sibling(jack, jill)
sort(qsort)(InList, OutList)
Functor(X, Y, Z)
```

In the first example, sibling is the functor and the arity, the number of arguments, of the term is 2. sort(qsort) is the functor of the second example and the functor itself is a compound term with sort as the functor.

A compound term has at least one argument.

2.3.2 Expressions

If the functor of a compound term is declared as an operator by op/[3,4], terms may be written in the style of an expression. The expression is parsed according to the precedence and associativity of the operators. For example, + and * are infix operators while + is a prefix operator.

```
Number + 2 * 3 
\+ X
```

2.3.3 Lists

Lists are a special kind of compound term. Lists have "." as the functor and two arguments. A special list notation is provided where the elements of a list are enclosed by a pair of "[""]" (square brackets). The elements are separated

from each other by a comma. The tail of the list, which is a term, not a sequence of terms, can be separated from the rest of the list by a " \mid ".

For example, the following represent the same list.

```
[apple, orange, banana]
[apple, orange|[banana]]
[apple|[orange|[banana]]]
```

The atom [] represents the empty list.

2.3.4 Strings

Any sequence of characters enclosed by """ is considered as a strings. Strings are semantically the same as lists of ASCII codes but are stored more efficiently. Consequently the empty string ("") is parsed as the empty list ([]) and strings can unify with lists.

Example:

```
| ?- X = "hello", X = [H|T].

X = "hello"

H = 104

T = [101, 108, 108, 111]

| ?- X = "".

X = []
```

2.3.5 {}-Lists

A special syntactic form recognized by the Qu-Prolog parser is that of {}-lists. The syntax for a {}-list is a `{}' followed by a collection of terms each terminated by a full stop and white spaces followed by `}'. The full stop and white space after that last term is optional. A {}-list is represented in Qu-Prolog as a compound term whose functor is {} and whose only argument is a "comma pair" representing the elements of the {}-list.

For example, the following are $\{\}$ -lists together with their internal representation.

```
{a. b. } {}((a , b))
{a. b. c} {}((a , (b , c)))
{a} {}(a)
```

One use of this notation is for grouping predicate definitions together, for example as class methods, and using term expansion rules to transform the resulting {}-lists into programs.

2.4 Quantified Terms

There are two syntactic forms for quantified terms.

1. Any quantified term can be represented by Q BV Body provided its quantifier Q has been declared by op/[3,4]. BV is a (possibly open) list of bound object variables, and Body is the body, which is another term. Each bound variable can, optionally, be followed by a ":" and a term. If there is only one bound variable, the list notation can be dropped.

For example:

```
all x flower(x, red)
exist [x:Type] all [lo:int, hi:int] lo < f(x) < hi</pre>
```

2. The escape sequence "!!" may be used to introduce a quantified term whose quantifier might not have been previously declared or whose quantifier is not an atom.

For example,

!!q x A !!Q A B

!!integral(A,B) x T

2.5 Substitutions

```
The general form of a substitution term is [t_1/x_1, \ldots, t_n/x_n]t_m where t_i are terms and x_i are object variables. The substitution [t_1/x_1, \ldots, t_n/x_n] is applied to the term t_m. For example: [f(a)/x, t/y]g(X) [[b/z]x/y][t/z]h(A)
```

2.6 Programs

A program is composed of a number of predicate definitions. Each predicate definition is made up of a number of clauses. Each clause has a head and an optional body. The head is either an atom or a compound term whose functor is an atom, and the body may be an atom, a meta variable or a compound term. The head and the body are connected together by ":-".

3 Built-in Predicates

3.1 Introduction

This section contains descriptions of the library predicates of Qu-Prolog, grouped by predicate family. The meaning of the terms used may be found in Section 5.

Many of the predicates described in this section are accompanied with mode information and examples. The mode information of each argument of a predicate is represented by a pair consisting of a mode and a type.

The mode is one of

- -: must be a variable at the time of call
- +: must be supplied at the time of call
- ?: may be a variable or supplied at the time of call
- @: unchanged by call that is, no bindings to variables in the argument

The type is one of

- integer : an integer
- float : a double precision float
- atom: an atom
- atomic: an atom or integer
- var : a variable
- obvar : an object variable
- anyvar : a variable or object variable
- compound : a structure
- gcomp : a ground structure
- ground : a ground term
- quant : a quantified term
- list(Type) : a list whose elements have type Type
- closed_list(Type) : a closed list
- \bullet open_list(Type) : an open list
- string: a string

• nonvar : any term other than a variable

• term: any term

• goal: an atom or compound representing a goal.

• stream: a term representing a stream

• handle : a term representing the handle (address) for messages

```
As an example, the mode information for =.. is mode +nonvar =.. ?closed_list(term) mode -nonvar =.. @closed_list(term)
```

The first mode deals with the case where the first argument is a nonvar at the time of call and the second argument will be a closed list of terms by the end of the call. The second mode deals with the case where the first argument is a variable at the time of call (and is instantiated to a nonvar by the end of the call) and the second argument is a closed list of terms that is unchanged by the call.

3.2 Control

This set of predicates provides control for the execution of Qu-Prolog.

Predicates:

```
Goal1 , Goal2
     Conjunction. Goal1 and then Goal2.
     mode ','(+goal, +goal)
     Example:
     | ?- A = 10 , B is 2 * A.
     A = 10
     B = 20;
     no
Goal1 ; Goal2
     Disjunction. Goal1 or Goal2.
     mode +goal ; +goal
     Example:
     | ?- A = 10 ; B = 20.
     A = 10
     B = B;
     A = A
     B = 20;
     no
```

```
true
     Succeed.
     Example:
     | ?- true.
     yes
\+ Goal
     Negation. If Goal then fail else succeed.
     mode \+ +goal
     Example:
     | ?- \+ (10 = 20).
     yes
     | ?- \+ true.
     no
Goal1 -> Goal2
     If Goal1 then Goal2 else fail.
     mode +goal -> +goal
     Example:
     | ?- true -> A = 10.
     A = 10;
     no
     | ?- \t true -> A = 10.
Goal1 -> Goal2 ; Goal3
     If Goal1 then Goal2 else Goal3.
     mode +goal -> +goal ; +goal
     Example:
     | ?- true -> A = 10 ; B = 20.
     A = 10
     B = B;
     no
     | ?- \t true -> A = 10 ; B = 20.
```

A = A B = 20; no The 'cut' operator removes all choices from the parent goal and any goals

Example:

```
| ?- A = 10 , ! ; B = 20. 

A = 10 

B = B; 

no
```

before the cut in the clause.

break

ļ

Start an invocation of the interpreter. The debugging state is unaffected. A control-D exits the break and returns to the previous level.

Example:

```
| ?- A = 10 , B = 10 , break, C = 15.
[b1] | ?- A = 15.

no
[b1] | ?- A = B.
A = 10
B = 10;
no
[b1] | ?- C = 20.
C = 20;
no
```

fail

Fail.

Example:

```
| ?- A = 10, fail; B = 20

A = A

B = 20;

no
```

halt

halt(Integer)

Exit Qu-Prolog with exit code 0 or Integer.

Example:

```
| ?- A = 10, halt ; B = 20
```

```
Qu-Prolog exits and returns the user to the system prompt.
```

```
call(Goal)
```

Execute Goal. If Goal has an inline declaration then it will be expanded. mode call(+goal)

Example:

```
| ?- call( (A = 10, B = 20) ).
A = 10
B = 20;
no

call(F, A1)
call(F, A1, A2)
call(F, A1, A2, A3)
call(F, A1, A2, A3, A4)
call(F, A1, A2, A3, A5)
call(F, A1, A2, A3, A5, A6)
call(F, A1, A2, A3, A5, A6, A7)
```

call(F, A1, A2, A3, A5, A6, A7, A8)

Build a goal with functor F and the supplied arguments and call that goal.

```
callable(Goal)
```

The same as once((atom(Goal);compound(Goal))).

```
initialization(Goal)
```

The same as call(Goal). It is included for compatibility with the ISO standard.

```
call_predicate(Goal)
call_predicate(Goal,Arg1)
call_predicate(Goal,Arg1,Arg2)
call_predicate(Goal,Arg1,Arg2,Arg3)
call_predicate(Goal,Arg1,Arg2,Arg3,Arg4)
```

Execute Goal with the required arguments. This is more direct than using call(Goal) (page 20) and, from the point of view of the debugger, behaves like compiled code. Note that Goal can be higher-order, that is, Goal can include arguments.

```
mode call_predicate(+goal, +term, ...)
```

Example:

```
| ?- call_predicate(=, A, 10).
A = 10;
no
```

repeat

Succeeds repeatedly.

Example:

```
| ?- A = 10, repeat, B = 20.

A = 10

B = 20;

A = 10

B = 20;

A = 10

B = 20;

...
```

once(Goal)

Execute the Goal and discard any generated alternatives. mode once(+goal)

Example:

```
| ?- once( (A = 10, repeat, B = 20) ).
A = 10
B = 20;
no
| ?- once( (A = 10; B = 20) ).
A = 10
B = B;
no
```

catch(Goal1, Template, Goal2)

Set a trap for Template during the execution of Goal1. Goal2 is executed when a term that unifies with Template is thrown. catch/3 and throw/1 are typically used for error handling. mode catch(+goal, +term, +goal)

throw(Template)

Throw Template to the innermost matching catch/3. mode throw(+term)

Example:

Consider an application that carries out complex processing and may exit at various points within this processing. One way of programming this behaviour is by using catch at the top level of the application as given below.

```
main(Args) :-
   catch(process(Args), exit_throw(Msg), write(Msg)).
```

When the application is started, process(Args) is executed with a trap set that will write a message when an exit_throw(Msg) is thrown.

The application can exit at a given point within the execution of process(Args) by making a call such as

```
throw(exit_throw('this is my exit message'))
```

```
unwind_protect(Goal1, Goal2)
```

Succeed if Goal1 succeeds. Goal2 is executed after Goal1, even if Goal1 fails or exits non-locally. Goal2 is called for its side effects only, and any bindings it makes are ignored. Note that it is not currently possible to protect against halt/0 (page 19) or against SIGKILL signal from the operating system.

```
mode unwind_protect(+goal, +goal)
```

Example:

Assume that a goal p is to be executed in an environment where the fact fact(a,b) is added to the dynamic database. Further assume that this fact is to be removed when the execution of p finishes with success or failure or because of a throw/1 (page 21) within p, assuming that fact(a,b) is the only clause for fact/2, this can be achieved with the call

```
unwind_protect((assert(fact(a,b)), p), retract(fact(a,b)))
```

```
setup_call_cleanup(Goal0, Goal1, Goal2)
```

First calls Goal0 deterministically then calls Goal1 and whenever this call fails or succeeds deterministically, then Goal2 is called. It is similar to unwind_protect. The main difference is that unwind_protect is called on success (even if choice points remain) whereas call_cleanup is called on success only when Goal1 has no more choices.

```
call_cleanup(Goal1, Goal2)
```

The same as setup_call_cleanup(true, Goal1, Goal2)

3.3 Input / Output

3.3.1 File and Stream Handling

Streams are the basic input/output management units. They provide a uniform interface to files and strings. Each stream can be opened for reading or writing, and data is sent through the stream using term or character input/output predicates. String streams behave in the same way as file streams.

Rather than having a file attached to the stream, a string stream is connected to an atom or a list of CharCode. If the string stream is opened for writing, any further writing to the stream is not possible after the successful execution of stream_to_atom/2 (page 29), stream_to_string/2 (page 30) or stream_to_chars/2 (page 30) as these predicates close the stream.

If the process is registered with Pedro then it is possible to open a message stream for either reading or writing.

A term representing a stream is an integer (the stream ID) generated by a call to open/[3,4] (page 23) or one of the atoms stdin, user_input, stdout, user_output, stderr and user_error, or an atom declared by the user as an alias for a stream.

Predicates:

```
stat(File, Info)
```

Info is a structure of the form stat(LastModified, Size) and represents the last time of modification and size of File.
mode stat(@atom, ?structure)

```
access(File, Permission, Result)
```

Integer contains the result of Permission check for File. Permission is an integer made up of mask bits 0,1,2,4 and is used to test if the file exists, and has execute, write and read permissions. Result is 0 if the file passes the test and -1 if it fails. The usage is identical to the Unix system call access(2).

So, for example, access(File, 3, 0) will succeed if the file is readable and writable.

```
mode access(@atom, @integer, ?integer)
```

```
open(File, Mode, Stream)
open(File, Mode, Stream, OptionList)
```

 ${\tt Stream}$ is the stream resulting from opening File with the given ${\tt Mode}$ and ${\tt OptionList}.$

Modes:

- read Input
- write Output
- append Output

Options:

• type(Value) text or binary stream. (Default: text.)

```
• reposition(Boolean)
          Reposition the stream.
          (Default: false.)
        • eof_action(Value)
          Action when read past EOF: error, eof_code, reset.
          (Default: error.)
     mode open(@atom, @atom, -stream)
     mode open(@atom, @atom, -stream, @closed_list(gcomp))
     Example:
     | ?- open(filename, write, Stream),
     write_term_list(Stream, [wqa('Hello World'), pc(0'.), nl]),
     close(Stream).
     Stream = 3
     | ?- open(filename, append, Stream),
     write_term_list(Stream, [wqa('Bye'), pc(0'.), nl]),
     close(Stream).
     Stream = 3
     | ?- open(filename, read, Stream),
     read(Stream, Term1),
     read(Stream, Term2).
     Stream = 3
     Term1 = Hello World
     Term2 = Bye
open_string(StringMode, Stream)
open_string(StringMode, Stream, OptionList)
```

Stream is the stream resulting from opening the string with the given StringMode and OptionList. Possible value for OptionList is explained in open/4 (page 23). The possible values for StringMode are

- write Output
- read(Atom) Input obtained from the Atom
- read(String) Input obtained from the String
- \bullet ${\tt read(CharCodeList)}$ Input obtained from the ${\tt CharCodeList}$

```
mode open_string(@ground, -stream)
mode open_string(@ground, -stream, +closed_list(gcomp))
Example:
| ?- open_string(write, Stream),
```

```
Stream = 3
Atom = 'Hello World'.
| ?- open_string(read('p(X,Y).'), Stream),
read(Stream, Term).
Stream = 3
Term = p(B, A)
| ?- open_string(read("p(X,Y)."), Stream),
read(Stream, Term).
Stream = 3
Term = p(B, A)
```

open_msgstream(Handle, Mode, Stream)

This predicate opens a stream with Mode for an address given by the handle Handle. If the stream is opened for reading then messages from the sender should be of the form

```
p2pmsg('':myname@mymachine, Handle, msg)
```

where myname and mymachine are respectively the name of this process and the machine on which this process is running. Handle is the handle specified when opening the stream. The third argument, msg should be a string - it is appended to a stream buffer that can then be read from using the Qu-Prolog input predicates. Messages from this address are ignored by the predicates that look at the message buffer such as ipc_peek.

If the stream is opened for writing then when the stream is flushed, the contents of the stream buffer is wrapped into a message of the form p2pmsg(Handle, MyHAndle, msg)

For most applications the message sends and receives are more appropriate but for interacting with GUI's it is sometimes more convenient to use streams. The xqpdebug GUI uses this mechanism.

```
set_std_stream(StreamNo, Stream)
```

This predicate resets one of the standard streams given by StreamNo to Stream. StreamNo must be 0,1 or 2 (stdin,stdout,stderr).

This is used in combination with open_msgstream in the xqpdebug GUI so that reads and writes in the debugger become reads and writes via the GUI. This allows the GUI to behave in a transparent way with respect to IO.

reset_std_stream(StreamNo)

Reset the supplied standard stream.

```
close(Stream)
close(Stream, OptionList)
```

Close the given Stream. The only possible kind of term in OptionList is

```
force(Value)
          If Value is true then close the stream even when there is an error
          condition.
          (Default: false.)
     mode close(@stream)
     mode close(@stream, @closed_list(gcomp))
at_end_of_stream
at_end_of_stream(Stream)
     Succeed if at the end of Stream or the current input stream.
     mode at_end_of_stream(@stream)
     Example:
      | ?- open(filename, write, Stream),
     write_term_list(Stream, [wqa('Hello World'), pc(0'.), nl]),
     write_term_list(Stream, [wqa('Bye'), pc(0'.), nl]),
     close(Stream).
     Stream = 3
     | ?- open(filename, read, Stream),
     at_end_of_stream(Stream),
     close(ReadStream).
     | ?- open(filename, read, Stream),
     read(Stream, Term1),
     read(Stream, Term2),
     at_end_of_stream(Stream).
     Stream = 3
     Term1 = Hello World
     Term2 = Bye
current_input(Stream)
     The current input stream is Stream.
     mode current_input(?stream)
set_input(Stream)
     Change the current input stream to Stream. The initial stream is user_input.
     mode set_input(@stream)
     Examples (Continued from last):
     | ?- open(filename, read, Stream),
     set_input(Stream),
     current_input(Input),
     read(Term1), read(Term2),
```

```
set_input(stdin).
     Stream = 3
     Input = 3
     Term1 = Hello World
     Term2 = Bye
see(File)
     Open File for reading and change the current input stream to File.
     mode see(@atom)
     Examples (Continued from last):
      | ?- see(filename),
     seeing(File),
     read(Term1), read(Term2),
     File = filename
     Term1 = Hello World
     Term2 = Bye
seeing(File)
     Return the file name of the current input stream.
     mode seeing(?atom)
seen
     Close the current input stream. Change the stream to user_input.
current_output(Stream)
     The current output stream is Stream.
     mode current_output(?stream)
set_output(Stream)
     Change the current output stream to Stream. The initial stream is
     user_output.
     mode set_output(@stream)
     Example:
     | ?- open_string(write, Stream),
     set_output(Stream),
     current_output(Output),
     write_term_list([wqa('Hello World'), pc(0'.), nl]),
     stream_to_atom(Stream, Atom),
     set_output(stdout).
     Stream = 3
     Output = 3
     Atom = 'Hello World'.
```

tell(File)

Open File for writing and change the current output stream to File. mode tell(@atom)

Example:

```
| ?- tell(filename),
telling(File),
write_term_list(Stream, [wqa('Hello World'), pc(0'.), nl]),
write_term_list(Stream, [wqa('Bye'), pc(0'.), nl]),
told.
File = filename
| ?- open(filename, read, Stream),
read(Stream, Term1),
read(Stream, Term2).
Stream = 3
Term1 = Hello World
Term2 = Bye
```

telling(File)

Return the file name of the current output stream. mode telling(@atom)

told

Close the current output stream. Change the stream to user_output.

```
flush_output
flush_output(Stream)
```

Flush Stream or the current output stream. Forces a write on any remaining output to the stream.

```
set_autoflush(Stream)
```

Set Stream to automatically flush after each token is written. This is useful for streams that are to behave like standard error. (The default for streams is to flush only at a newline or at an explicit call to flush_output.)

```
set_stream_position(Stream, N)
```

Move ${\tt Stream}$ to the position N. The reposition flag must have been set when ${\tt Stream}$ was opened.

```
mode set_stream_position(@stream, @integer)
```

```
stream_property(Stream, Property)
```

A property of Stream is Property. The possible values for Property are given below.

```
• alias(Value)
Alias name.
```

- end_of_stream(Value) no, at, past end of stream.
- eof_action(Value) EOF action defined in open/[3,4] (page 23).
- file_name(Value)
 File Name.
- input Input Stream.
- line_number(Value)
 Line number for input stream.
- mode(Value) open/[3,4] (page 23) mode.
- output Output Stream.
- position(Value) Position.
- reposition(Value) Reposition of stream.
- type(Value)
 Type of stream.

mode stream_property(@stream, ?compound)

Example:

```
| ?- open(filename, write, Stream),
stream_property(Stream, file_name(Value)).
Stream = 3
Value = filename
```

```
stream_to_atom(Stream, Atom)
```

Stream specifies the output string stream where Atom can be obtained. When this predicate terminates successfully the stream is closed and any further writing to the stream is not possible.

```
mode stream_to_atom(@stream, -atom)
```

Example:

```
| ?- open_string(write, Stream),
write(Stream, Hello),
write(Stream, ' '),
```

```
write(Stream, World),
     stream_to_atom(Stream, Atom).
     Stream = 3
     Hello = Hello
     World = World
     Atom = Hello World
stream_to_string(Stream, String)
     Stream specifies the output string stream where String can be obtained.
      When this predicate terminates successfully the stream is closed and any
     further writing to the stream is not possible.
     mode stream_to_string(@stream, -string)
     Example:
      | ?- open_string(write, Stream),
     write(Stream, Hello),
     write(Stream, ' '),
     write(Stream, World),
     stream_to_string(Stream, String).
     Stream = 3
     Hello = Hello
     World = World
     String = "Hello World"
stream_to_chars(Stream, CharCodeList)
     Stream specifies the output string stream where CharCodeList can be ob-
     tained. When this predicate terminates successfully the stream is closed
     and any further writing to the stream is not possible.
     mode stream_to_chars(@stream, -closed_list(integer))
     Example:
      | ?- open_string(write, Stream),
     write(Stream, Hello),
     write(Stream, ', '),
     write(Stream, World),
     stream_to_chars(Stream, Chars).
     Stream = 3
     Hello = Hello
     World = World
     Chars = [72, 101, 108, 108, 111, 32, 87, 111, 114, 108, 100]
```

An example of the use of string streams is for determining where information will appear in output to a user interface. The following definitions may be used

to retrieve the character positions of matching bracket pairs of a supplied term (assuming the character position of the first character of the term is in position one).

```
brackets(Term, Brackets) :-
    open_string(write, Stream),
    write(Stream, Term),
    stream_to_chars(Stream, CharList),
    match_brackets(CharList, 1, [], Brackets).
match_brackets([], _, _, []).
match_brackets([C|Rest], CurrPos, LeftBr, Brackets) :-
    NewCurrPos is CurrPos + 1,
    (C = 0, (
                  \% open bracket
     ->
      match_brackets(Rest, NewCurrPos, [CurrPos|LeftBr], Brackets)
     C = 0,
                 \% close bracket
     ->
      LeftBr = [LBPos|LBRest],
      Brackets = [(LBPos - CurrPos)|Brackets1],
      match_brackets(Rest, NewCurrPos, LBRest, Brackets1)
      match_brackets(Rest, NewCurrPos, LeftBr, Brackets)
    ).
```

Given the above definitions, the system will behave as follows.

```
| ?- brackets(f(XYZ, g(a, XYZ), h(b)),B).

XYZ

B = [9 - 16, 20 - 22, 2 - 23];

no
| ?- write(f(XYZ, g(a, XYZ), h(b))).

f(XYZ, g(a, XYZ), h(b))

XYZ = XYZ;

no
```

Retrieve a list of all the current open streams.

3.3.2 Term Input/Output

get_open_streams(Streams)

For input/output predicates, if the stream is specified explicitly, the stream appears as the first argument. Otherwise, the current input/output stream is assumed.

Qu-Prolog supports multiple operator tables and object variable prefix tables. At any time, there is one active operator table and one active object variable prefix table. Active tables can be changed and new tables can be created by op_table/1 (page 32) and obvar_prefix_table/1 (page 34). When a new operator table is created, the comma ',' operator is automatically declared. An inheritance mechanism is also available for operator tables. The input/output predicates can use a table other than the current active table by specifying the name of the table in the OptionList.

The input/output predicates are enhanced with the ability to remember the association between the ASCII representation and the internal representation for both meta and object variables over multiple input/output operations. This enables the user to refer to the same variable over a number of input/output operations, and is useful in applications with interactive environments, such as interactive theorem provers. The association is not remembered for any variable that begins with an underscore ('_').

Qu-Prolog supports high-speed input/output using byte-encoded Qu-Prolog terms. Byte-encoded terms are written with encoded_write_term/3 (page 44) and read with encoded_read_term/3 (page 40). The compiler can accept byte-encoded files as input and generates some intermediate files in this form (see the online manual qc(1) for further details). consult/1 (page 100) also accepts such files as input. The system is supplied with a decoder for byte-encoded terms (see the online manual qecat(1) for further details).

Predicates:

```
op_table(Table)
```

Retrieve or change the current operator table. The initial table is user. Each new table is initialised with a comma ',' when it is first created. mode op_table(?atom)

Example:

```
| ?- op_table(Table).
Table = user;
no
| ?- op_table(mine).
yes
| ?- op_table(Table).
Table = mine;
no
```

op_table_inherit(Table1, Table2)

Table1 inherits all the operators declared in Table2. These operators do not include the ones which are inherited by Table2 from a third table. That is, inheritance is non-transitive.

```
mode op_table_inherit(@atom, @atom)
```

```
Examples (Continued from last):
      | ?- op_table_inherit(mine, user).
current_op(Precedence, Associativity, Operator)
current_op(Table, Precedence, Associativity, Operator)
      Operator is an operator in Table
      (default: the current operator table) with Precedence and Associativity.
     mode current_op(?integer, ?atom, ?atom)
     mode current_op(@atom, ?integer, ?atom, ?atom)
      Examples (Continued from last):
      | ?- current_op(700, Assoc, Op).
      Assoc = xfx
      Op = =;
      Assoc = xfx
      0p = \ = 
      Assoc = xfx
      0p = ?=;
      Assoc = xfx
      Op = ==
op(Precedence, Associativity, Operator)
op(Table, Precedence, Associativity, Operator)
      Declare Operator with Precedence and Associativity as an operator
      in Table or in the current operator table. Precedence is any number
      between 0 and 1200, where higher numbers given lower precedence (loose
      binding).
       fx
               Prefix. Argument has lower precedence than operator.
               Prefix. Argument has the same precedence as operator.
       fy
               Quantifier. Argument has the same precedence as operator.
       quant
               Infix. Not associative.
       xfx
               Infix. Right associative.
       xfy
               Infix. Left associative.
       yfx
               Postfix. Argument has lower precedence than operator.
       xf
               Postfix. Argument has the same precedence as operator.
       yf
      If Precedence is 0, any previous declaration is removed.
     mode op(@integer, @atom, @atom)
     mode op(@atom, @integer, @atom, @atom)
      Example: (Continued from last):
```

```
| ?- op(0, yfx, '+').
     yes
      | ?- current_op(Prec, Assoc, '+').
     Prec = 200
     Assoc = fy;
     no
      | ?- op(500, yfx, '+').
obvar_prefix_table(Table)
     Retrieve or change the current object variable prefix table. The initial
     table is user.
     mode obvar_prefix_table(?atom)
     Example:
      | ?- obvar_prefix_table(Table).
     Table = user;
     no
      | ?- obvar_prefix_table(mine).
     yes
     | ?- obvar_prefix_table(Table).
     Table = mine;
     nο
current_obvar_prefix(Atom)
current_obvar_prefix(Table, Atom)
     Atom is an object variable prefix in Table
      (default: the current object variable prefix table).
     mode current_obvar_prefix(?atom)
     mode current_obvar_prefix(@atom, ?atom)
     Examples (Continued from last):
      | ?- current_obvar_prefix(Atom).
     no
obvar_prefix(AtomList)
obvar_prefix(Table, AtomList)
```

Declares all the atoms in AtomList as object variable prefixes in Table or the current object variable prefix table. This also implicitly declares all variant names produced by extending the variable name with a combination of underscores and sequences of digits and letters. The name of the constant being declared as an object variable prefix must be made up of lower case letters.

```
mode obvar_prefix(@closed_list(atom))
     mode obvar_prefix(@atom)
     mode obvar_prefix(@atom, @closed_list(atom))
     mode obvar_prefix(@atom, @atom)
     Examples (Continued from last):
      | ?- obvar_prefix(a).
      | ?- obvar_prefix(user, [x , y , z]).
     yes
      | ?- current_obvar_prefix(Atom).
     A = a;
     no
      | ?- current_obvar_prefix(user, Atom).
     A = x;
     A = y;
     A = z;
     no
remove_obvar_prefix(Atom)
remove_obvar_prefix(Table, Atom)
      Remove the object variable prefix specified by Atom from Table or the
     current object variable prefix table.
     mode remove_obvar_prefix(@atom)
     mode remove_obvar_prefix(@atom, @atom)
     Examples (Continued from last):
      | ?- remove_obvar_prefix('a').
      | ?- remove_obvar_prefix(user, 'z').
     yes
      | ?- current_obvar_prefix(Atom).
      | ?- current_obvar_prefix(user, Atom).
     A = x;
     A = y;
obvar_name_to_prefix(Atom, Atom)
      Strips any trailing numbers or underscores from the first Atom and unifies
     the result with the second Atom. This predicate does not actually check
      whether the computed prefix is, in fact, a current object variable prefix.
     It is merely provided for convenience.
     mode obvar_name_to_prefix(@atom, ?atom)
```

Examples (Continued from last):

```
| ?- obvar_name_to_prefix('!_a_1', A).
     A = !_a;
      | ?- obvar_name_to_prefix('y_28_1_3', A).
     A = y;
     no
set_obvar_name(ObVar, Name)
     Set ObVar to have the base name Name. A suffix will be added to Name
     to complete the final name for ObVar. If ObVar has a name already, the
     predicate fails. See obvar_prefix/[1,2] (page 34).
     mode set_obvar_name(+obvar, @atom)
     Example:
      | ?- set_obvar_name(!_y_3, x).
     _y_3 = !x_0;
     nο
set_var_name(Var, Name)
     Set Var to have the base name Name. A suffix will be added to Name to
     complete the final name for Var. If Var has a name already, the predicate
     mode set_var_name(+obvar, @atom)
     Example:
      | ?- set_var_name(_32, 'X').
      _{32} = X_{0};
     no
get_var_name(Variable, Name)
     Variable has Name. Fails if Variable has no name.
     mode get_var_name(@anyvar, ?atom)
     Examples (Assuming x is still a current object variable prefix):
      | ?- get_var_name(Max, Name), write(Name), nl, fail.
     Max
     no
     | ?- get_var_name(_32, Name), write(Name), nl, fail.
      | ?- get_var_name(!x_3, Name), write(Name), nl, fail.
     x_3
     no
```

```
get_unnamed_vars(Term, VarList)
     VarList is the list of unnamed (object) variables in Term.
     mode get_unnamed_vars(@term, -closed_list(anyvar))
     Examples (Assuming x is still a current object variable prefix):
     | ?- get_unnamed_vars((A, _Y, !x, !_y), Vars),
     write(Vars), fail.
     [_117, !_x0]
     no
name_vars(Term)
name_vars(Term, VarList)
     Name all unnamed (object) variables in Term returning them in VarList.
     mode name_vars(+term)
     mode name_vars(+term, -closed_list(anyvar))
     Example:
     | ?- Term = f(X, _Y, !x, !_x), write(Term) , nl, fail.
     f(X, _F5, !x, !_x0)
     | ?- Term = f(X, _Y, !x, !_x), name_vars(Term),
     write(Term), nl, fail.
     f(X, A, !x, !x0)
error(Term)
     Write Term to user_error.
     mode error(@term)
     Example:
     | ?- error('Hello'), error(' '), error('World').
     Hello World
     yes
errornl(Term)
errornl
     Write Term and a newline to user_error, or write a newline to user_error.
     mode errornl(@term)
     Example:
     | ?- errornl('Hello'), errornl('World').
     Hello
     World
     yes
```

Read Term from Stream or the current input stream. OptionList is a list whose entries are chosen from the items given below.

1. Input Options

Input options not mentioned in OptionList take on their default values.

• remember_name(Value)

Remember the names for all the variables other than those beginning with an underscore in Term.

(Default: false.)

• op_table(Value)

Use the operator table given in Value.

(Default: Current table.)

• obvar_prefix_table(Value)

Use the object variable prefix table given in Value.

(Default: Current table.)

2. Output Options.

The Value for each output option is instantiated during the reading of Term.

• variables(Value)

All variables, including anonymous variables, from left to right. (Default: [].) Typically Value is a variable that is bound to the list of variables appearing in the term.

• variable_names(Value)

Variable=Name pairs, excluding anonymous variables.

(Default: [].)

```
Variable=Name pair for all singleton variables, excluding anony-
             mous variables.
              (Default: [].)
     mode read_term(?term, +closed_list(compound))
     mode read_term(@stream, ?term, +closed_list(compound))
     Example:
     | ?- read_term(Term, []), write(Term), nl.
     f(X, _Y, !x, !_x)
     f(_3BE, _3B4, !_x0, !_x1)
     Term = f(A, B, !x0, !x1)
     | ?- read_term(Term, [variables(Var)]),
     write(Var), nl, fail.
     f(X, _Y, !x, !_x)
     [_1F1, _1EC, !_x0, !_x1]
     | ?- read_term(Term, [variable_names(Var)]),
      write(Var), nl, fail.
     f(X, _Y, !x, !_x)
     [_1F1 = X, _1EC = _Y, !_x0 = x, !_x1 = _x]
     | ?- read_term(Term, [remember_name(true)]),
      write(Term), nl, fail.
     f(X, _Y, !x, !_x)
     f(X, _1DC, !x, !_x0)
     no
read_1_term(Term, VariableNames)
read_1_term(Stream, Term, VariableNames)
     Read Term from Stream or the current input stream. Return the list of
     variables and their names in VariableNames.
     It is the same as read_term(Term, [variable_names(VariableNames)])
     (page 38).
     mode read_1_term(?term, -closed_list(compound))
     mode read_1_term(@stream, ?term, -closed_list(compound))
     Example:
     | ?- read_1_term(Term, Var), write(Var), nl, fail.
     f(X, _Y, !x, !_x)
     [_1F1 = X, _1EC = _Y, !_x0 = x, !_x1 = _x]
readR(Term)
readR(Stream, Term)
```

• singletons(Value)

Read Term from Stream or the current input stream. Remember the names for all the variables other than those beginning with an underscore in Term.

It is the same as

Read Term from Stream or the current input stream. Remember the names for all the variables in Term, and return the list of variables and their names in VariableNames.

It is the same as

Read Term from the encoded stream Stream or the current input stream.

The OptionList is the same as for read_term/[2,3] (page 38).

mode encoded_read_term(@term, +closed_list(compound))

mode encoded_read_term(@stream, @term, +closed_list(compound))

```
write(Term)
write(Stream, Term)
      Write Term to Stream or the current output stream.
     mode write(?term)
     mode write(@stream, ?term)
     Example:
      | ?- write(f(X, _Y, !x, !_x)), nl, fail.
     f(X, _D0, !x, !_x0)
write_term(Term, OptionList)
write_term(Stream, Term, OptionList)
      Write Term to Stream or the current output stream. OptionList is a list
      whose entries are chosen from the items given below. Items not mentioned
      in OptionList take on their default values.
        • quoted(Value)
          Meaning: Quote all unsafe atoms.
          (Default: false.)
        • ignore_ops(Value)
          Meaning: Output operators in structural format.
          (Default: false.)
         • numbervars(Value)
          Meaning: Generate variable names (not including object variables).
          (Default: false.)
        • remember_name(Value)
          Meaning: Generate and remember variable names (including object
          variables).
          (Default: false.)
        • op_table(Value)
          Meaning: Operator table.
          (Default: Current table.)
        • max_depth(Value)
          Meaning: Print depth limit.
           (Default: 0 (unlimited).)
        • obvar_prefix_table(Value)
          Meaning: Object variable prefix table.
          (Default: Current table.)
     mode write_term(@term, @closed_list(compound))
     mode write_term(@stream, @term, @closed_list(compound))
```

Example:

```
| ?- write_term(f(X, _Y, !x, !_y), [remember_name(true)]),
     nl, fail.
     f(X, A, !x, !x0)
writeR(Term)
writeR(Stream, Term)
writeq(Term)
writeq(Stream, Term)
writeRq(Term)
writeRq(Stream, Term)
writeT(Term, Table)
writeT(Stream, Term, Table)
writeRT(Term, Table)
writeRT(Stream, Term, Table)
writeTq(Term, Table)
writeTq(Stream, Term, Table)
writeRTq(Term, Table)
writeRTq(Stream, Term, Table)
      Write Term to Stream or the current output stream. The trailing R, T,
     q determine if variable names are to be created and remembered, if an
     operator table is to be used, and if unsafe atoms are to be quoted. These
     variants are faster than using the option list method above.
     mode write{R,q}(@term)
     mode write{R,q}(@stream, @term)
     mode write{R,T,q}(@term, @atom)
     mode write{R,T,q}(@stream, @term, @atom)
     Example:
      | ?- writeR(f(X, _Y, !x, !_y)), nl, fail.
     f(X, A, !x, !x0)
     no
write_atom(Atom)
write_atom(Stream, Atom)
writeq_atom(Atom)
writeq_atom(Stream, Atom)
      Write Atom to Stream or the current output stream. write_atom is faster
     than write (page 41) as it avoids many of the tests in write. Unsafe atoms
     are quoted if writeq_atom is used.
     mode write_atom(@atom)
     mode write_atom(@stream, @atom)
     Example:
```

```
| ?- write_atom('Hello'), nl, fail.
     Hello
      | ?- writeq_atom('Hello'), nl, fail.
      'Hello'
     no
write_canonical(Term)
write_canonical(Stream, Term)
     Write Term to Stream or the current output stream. All the operators
     are written in structural format.
     It is the same as write_term(Term, [ignore_ops(True)]) (page 41).
     mode write_canonical(@term)
     mode write_canonical(@stream, @term)
     Example:
      | ?- write_canonical((A = B + C * D)), nl, fail.
      (=)(A, (+)(B, (*)(C, D)))
     no
write_integer(Stream, Integer)
      Write Integer to Stream. write_integer is faster than write (page 41)
     as it avoids many of the tests in write.
     mode write_integer(@integer)
     mode write_integer(@stream, @integer)
     Example:
      | ?- write_integer(stdout, 42), nl, fail.
     42
     no
write_term_list(Message)
write_term_list(Stream, Message)
```

Write terms to Stream or the current output stream according to the formatting information in the list Message described below. The Qu-Prolog compiler unfolds this predicate to low-level calls to carry out the writing and is therefore the most efficient way to output a sequence of terms. The call write_term_list(stdout, Message) is faster than write_term_list(Message) because the current output stream does not need to be looked up.

• nl (page 48) Meaning: New line.

```
Meaning: Space.
        • tab(N) (page 48)
          Meaning: Write N spaces.
        • wa(Atom)
          Meaning: Use write_atom (page 42) for Atom.
        • wqa(Atom)
          Meaning: Use writeq_atom (page 42) for Atom.
        • wi(Integer)
          Meaning: Use write_integer (page 43) for Integer.
        • pc(Code)
          Meaning: Use put_code (page 49) for Code.
        • w(Term)
          Meaning: Use write (page 41) for Term.
        • q(Term)
          Meaning: Use writeq (page 41) for Term.
        • wR(Term)
          Meaning: Use writeR (page 41) for Term.
        • wRq(Term)
          Meaning: Use writeRq (page 41) for Term.
        • wl(List, Sep)
          Meaning: Write the elements of List using write (page 41) with
          Sep as a list separator.
     mode write_term_list(@closed_list(term))
     mode write_term_list(@stream, @closed_list(term))
     Example:
      | ?- write_term_list([wa('Hello'), sp, wa('World'), nl,
     wqa('Hello World'), pc(0'!)]), nl, fail.
     Hello World
      'Hello World'!
     | ?- write_term_list([wi(42), tab(5), w(f(X, _Y, !x, !_x)), sp,
     pc(0'-), sp, wRq(f(X, _Y, !x, !_x)), nl,
     wl([31, 12, 1999], '/')]), nl, fail.
     42
             f(X, _197, !x, !_x0) - f(X, A, !x, !x0)
     31/12/1999
     no
encoded_write_term(Term, OptionList)
encoded_write_term(Stream, Term, OptionList)
```

```
Write Term to the encoded stream Stream or the current output stream.
     The OptionList is the same as for write_term/[2,3] (page 41).
     mode encoded_write_term(+term, +closed_list(compound))
     mode encoded_write_term(@stream, +term, +closed_list(compound))
portray_clause(Clause)
portray_clause(Stream, Clause)
     Pretty print Clause in Stream or the current output stream.
     mode portray_clause(@compound)
     mode portray_clause(@stream, @compound)
     Example:
      | ?- portray\_clause((p(X,Y) :- q(X,Z), r(Z,Y), s(Y))), fail.
     p(X, Y) :-
          q(X, Z),
          r(Z, Y),
          s(Y).
     no
print(Term)
print(Stream, Term)
     The same as writeq except that the dynamic predicate portray/1 is first
     tried. If that succeeds then writeq is not called. This provides a hook
     for user defined term writing.
     mode print(@term)
     mode print(@stream, @term)
portray(Term)
```

A dynamic predicate used as a hook for user defined term writing in print.

3.3.3 Character Input/Output

These predicates can be divided into two categories according to the representation of the character used. The _char predicates deal with the character as a single letter atom. The _code predicates handle the character in its character code representation, which is an integer. Any predicate without these suffixes are intended to be compatible with existing Prologs, which use character codes. Predicates without a stream argument use the current input/output stream.

Predicates:

```
get(CharCode)
get(Stream,CharCode)
```

```
Get the next visible character from the current input stream, and unify
     it with CharCode.
     mode get(?integer)
     mode get(@stream, ?integer)
      Note: non-visible characters are character codes less than 33. This in-
      cludes:
       Tab
                  Character code: 9
       New line
                 Character code: 10
       Space
                 Character code: 32
      Examples (In the second example, a 'tab' precedes the 'A'):
      | ?- get(CharCode).
      CharCode = 65
      | ?- get(CharCode).
      CharCode = 65
get0(CharCode)
get0(Stream,CharCode)
      Get the next character from the current input stream, and unify it with
      CharCode. The same as get_code/[1,2] (page 47).
     mode get0(?integer)
     mode get0(@stream, ?integer)
     Examples (In the second example, a 'tab' precedes the 'A'):
      | ?- get0(CharCode).
      CharCode = 65
      | ?- get0(CharCode).
      CharCode = 9
get_char(Character)
get_char(Stream, Character)
      Character is the next character from Stream or the current input stream.
     mode get_char(?atom)
     mode get_char(@stream, ?atom)
     Example:
      | ?- get_char(Char).
     Char = A
     no
```

```
get_code(CharCode)
get_code(Stream, CharCode)
     CharCode is the next character code from Stream or the current input
     mode get_code(?integer)
     mode get_code(@stream, ?integer)
     Examples (In the second example, a 'tab' precedes the 'A'):
      | ?- get_code(CharCode).
     CharCode = 65
      | ?- get_code(CharCode).
     CharCode = 9
get_line(String)
get_line(Stream, String)
     String is the next line from Stream or the current input stream. The
     newline is consumed but is not part of the returned list. String is in-
     stantiated to -1 at EOF.
     mode get_line(?string)
     mode get_line(@stream, ?string)
put_line(CodeList)
put_line(Stream, CodeList)
     CodeList is written to Stream or the current output stream. A newline
     is added.
     mode put_line(@list(integer))
     mode put_line(@string)
     mode put_line(@stream, @list(integer))
     mode put_line(@stream, @string)
     Example:
      | ?- get_line(L),put_line(L).
     abc
     abc
     L = "abc"
skip(CharCode)
skip(Stream, CharCode)
```

```
Skip the input from Stream or the current input stream until after the
     first occurrence of CharCode. It is assumed that CharCode occurs in
     Stream.
     mode skip(@integer)
     mode skip(@stream, @integer)
     Example:
      | ?- skip(0'*), get_char(Char).
      ABC*DEF*GHI
     Char = D;
     no
nl
nl(Stream)
      Write a new line on Stream or the current output stream.
     mode nl(@stream)
     Example:
      | ?- write('Hello'), nl, write('World'), nl.
     Hello
     World
     yes
tab(N)
tab(Stream, N)
      Output N spaces to Stream or the current output stream.
     mode tab(@integer)
     mode tab(@stream, @integer)
     Example:
      | ?- write('Hello'), tab(5), write('World'), nl.
                World
     Hello
     yes
put(CharCode)
     Send CharCode to the current output stream.
     mode put(@integer)
     Example:
      | ?- put(0'H), put(0'e), put(0'l), put(0'l), put(0'o), nl.
     Hello
     yes
```

```
put_code(CharCode)
put_code(Stream, CharCode)
     Send the character code, CharCode, to Stream or the current output
     stream.
     mode put_code(@integer)
     mode put_code(@stream, @integer)
     Example:
      | ?- put_code(0'H), put_code(0'e), put_code(0'l),
     put_code(0'1), put_code(0'0), nl.
     Hello
     yes
put_char(Character)
put_char(Stream, Character)
     Send Character to Stream or the current output stream.
     mode put_char(@atom)
     mode put_char(@stream, @atom)
     Example:
      | ?- put_char('H'), put_char(e), put_char(1),
     put_char(1), put_char(0), nl.
     Hello
     yes
```

3.4 Terms

3.5 Comparison of Terms

Two terms are compared according to the standard ordering, which is defined below. Items listed at the beginning come before the items listed at the end. For example, meta variables are less than object variables in the standard ordering.

- 1. Meta variables, in age ordering (older variables come before younger variables). If the variables are the same and there are substitutions, then the substitutions are compared as lists using the standard ordering.
- 2. Object variables, in age ordering (older variables come before younger variables). If the variables are the same and there are substitutions, then the substitutions are compared as lists using the standard ordering.
- 3. Integers, in numerical ordering.
- 4. Atoms, in character code (ASCII) ordering.

- 5. Compound terms (including lists) are compared in the following order:
 - (a) Arity, in numerical ordering.
 - (b) Functor, in standard ordering.
 - (c) Arguments, in standard ordering, from left to right.

If the terms are the same and there are substitutions, then the substitutions are compared as lists using the standard ordering.

- 6. Quantified terms are compared in the following order:
 - (a) Quantifier, in standard ordering.
 - (b) Bound variables list, in standard ordering.
 - (c) Body, in standard ordering.

If the terms are the same and there are substitutions, then the substitutions are compared as lists using the standard ordering.

Predicates:

Term1 == Term2

 $\tt Term1$ and $\tt Term2$ are alpha-equivalent without instantiation.

mode @term == @term

Example:

```
| ?- 10 * 2 == 10 + 10.

no

| ?- A == 10 * 2.

no

| ?- A = 10 * 2, A == 10 * 2.

A = 10 * 2;
```

Term1 \== Term2

Term1 and Term2 are not alpha-equivalent without instantiation.

mode @term \== @term

Example:

```
| ?- 10 * 2 \== 10 + 10.

yes
| ?- A = 10 * 2, A \== 10 * 2.
```

Term1 @= Term2

```
Term1 equals to Term2 in the standard order.
      mode @term @= @term
Term1 @< Term2
      Term1 precedes Term2 in the standard order.
      mode @term @< @term
Term1 @=< Term2
      {\tt Term1} precedes or equals to {\tt Term2} in the standard order.
      mode @term @=< @term
Term1 @> Term2
      Term1 follows Term2 in the standard order.
      mode @term @> @term
Term1 @>= Term2
      Term1 follows or equals to Term2 in the standard order.
      mode @term @>= @term
compare(Operator, Term1, Term2)
      The relation Operator holds between Term1 and Term2.
      The possible choices of Operator are given below.
       = If @=/2 holds.
       < If 0</2 holds.
       > If @>/2 holds.
      mode compare(?atom, @term, @term)
3.6
      Testing of Terms
These testing predicates are used to determine various properties of the data
objects, or apply constraints to the data objects.
Predicates:
simple(Term)
      Succeed if \operatorname{\mathtt{Term}} is atomic or any variable.
      mode simple(@term)
      Example:
      | ?- simple(atom).
      yes
      | ?- simple(10).
```

yes

| ?- simple(Var).

```
Var = Var
     | ?- simple(!obvar).
     obvar = !obvar
     | ?- simple([a/!x]Var).
     x = !x
     Var = Var
     | ?- simple(functor(arg1, arg2)).
     | ?- simple([list1, list2]).
     | ?- simple(!!quant !x Var).
atomic(Term)
     Succeed if Term is an atom or a number.
     mode atomic(@term)
     Example:
     | ?- atomic(atom).
     yes
     | ?- atomic(10).
     yes
     | ?- atomic(Var).
atom(Term)
     Succeed if Term is an atom.
     mode atom(@term)
     Example:
     | ?- atom(atom).
     yes
     | ?- atom(10).
     no
number (Term)
     Succeed if Term is a number.
     mode number(@term)
     Example:
```

```
| ?- number(10).
     yes
     | ?- number(3.4).
     yes
     | ?- number(atom).
     no
integer(Term)
     Succeed if Term is an integer.
     mode integer(@term)
     Example:
     | ?- integer(10).
     yes
     | ?- integer(3.4).
     no
     | ?- integer(atom).
     no
float(Term)
     Succeed if Term is a double.
     mode float(@term)
     Example:
     | ?- float(10).
     | ?- float(3.4).
     yes
     | ?- float(atom).
     no
any_variable(Term)
     Term is a meta or an object variable.
     mode any_variable(@term)
     Example:
     | ?- any_variable(Var).
     Var = Var
     | ?- any_variable(!obvar).
     obvar = !obvar
     | ?- any_variable([a/!x]Var).
     x = ix
```

```
Var = Var
     | ?- any_variable(atom).
     | ?- any_variable(f(G)).
     no
var(Term)
     Succeed if Term is a meta variable.
     mode var(@term)
     Example:
      | ?- var(Var).
     Var = Var
     | ?- var(!obvar).
     no
     | ?- var([a/!x]Var).
     x = !x
     Var = Var
nonvar(Term)
     Succeed if Term is not a meta variable.
     mode nonvar(@term)
     Example:
      | ?- nonvar(Var).
     no
     | ?- nonvar(!obvar).
     obvar = !obvar
      | ?- nonvar([a/!x]Var).
      | ?- nonvar(f(G)).
     G = G
ground(Term)
     Succeed if Term does not contain any meta variables (after simplifying
     substitutions).
     mode ground(@term)
     Example:
```

```
| ?- ground(Var).
     no
     | ?- ground(!obvar).
     obvar = !obvar
     | ?- ground([a/!x]Var).
     | ?- ground(f(G)).
     no
obvar(Term)
     Succeed if Term is an object variable.
     mode obvar(@term)
     Example:
     | ?- obvar(Var).
     no
     | ?- obvar(!obvar).
     obvar = !obvar
     | ?- obvar([a/!x]!y).
     x = !x
     y = !y
     no
compound(Term)
     Succeed if Term is a structure or a list.
     mode compound(@term)
     Example:
     | ?- compound(f(arg1, g(arg2))).
     yes
     | ?- compound([list1, list2]).
     | ?- compound(!!qant !x Var).
     no
     | ?- compound(atom).
     no
     | ?- compound(Var).
     no
     | ?- compound([a/!x]Var).
     no
list(Term)
```

```
Term is a (possibly empty) list.
     mode list(@term)
     Example:
      | ?- list(f(arg1, arg2)).
      | ?- list([list1, list2]).
     yes
      | ?- list([a/!x]Var).
     no
string(Term)
     Term is a string.
     mode string(@term)
     Example:
      | ?- string([40,41]).
      | ?- string("ab").
     yes
quant (Term)
     Succeed if \operatorname{\mathtt{Term}} is a quantified term.
     mode quant(@term)
     Example:
      | ?- quant(!!quant !x Var).
     x = !x
     Var = Var
      | ?- quant(f(!!quant !x Var)).
      | ?- quant([a/!x]Var).
     no
sub(Term)
     Succeed if Term has a substitution at the outermost level.
     mode sub(@term)
     Example:
      | ?- sub([a/!x]Var).
     x = !x
     Var = Var
      | ?- sub(f([a/!x]Var)).
     no
```

```
std_var(Term)
     Equivalent to var(Term), \+ sub(Term) but faster.
     mode std_var(@term)
     Example:
     | ?- std_var(Var).
     Var = Var
     | ?- std_var([A/!a]Var).
     no
std_nonvar(Term)
     Equivalent to nonvar(Term), \+ sub(Term) but faster.
     mode std_nonvar(@term)
std_compound(Term)
     Term is compound with an atom as the functor.
     mode std_compound(@term)
identical_or_apart(Term1, Term2)
     True when the terms Term1 and Term2 are either identical or non-unifiable.
     mode identical_or_apart(@term, @term)
     Example:
     | ?- identical_or_apart(A, B).
     | ?- A is 10, identical_or_apart(A,B).
     | ?- A is 10, B is 10, identical_or_apart(A,B).
     A = 10
     B = 10
     | ?- A is 10, B is 20, identical_or_apart(A,B).
     A = 10
     B = 20
is_free_in(ObVar, Term)
is_not_free_in(ObVar, Term)
     Succeed if ObVar is known to be (not) free in Term.
     Both is_free_in and is_not_free_in are infix operators.
     mode is_free_in(@obvar, @term)
     mode is_not_free_in(@obvar, @term)
     Example:
```

```
| ?- !x is_free_in f(!y, !x, !z).
     x = !x
     y = !y
     z = !z
     | ?- !x is_free_in f(!y, g(!x), !z).
     x = !x
     y = !y
     z = !z
     | ?-!x is_free_in f(X).
     | ?- !x is_free_in atom.
     | ?- !x is_free_in !!q !x B.
     no
     | ?- !x is_free_in [a/!x]B.
     | ?- !x is_not_free_in f(!y, !x, !z).
     no
     | ?- !x is_not_free_in f(!y, g(!x), !z).
     no
     | ?-!x is_not_free_in f(X).
     no
     | ?-!x is_not_free_in atom.
     | ?- !x is_not_free_in !!q !x B.
     x = !x
     B = B
     | ?-!x is_not_free_in [a/!x]B.
     x = !x
     B = B
not_free_in(ObVar, Term)
     Apply the not free in constraint. not_free_in is an infix operator.
     mode not_free_in(+obvar, +term)
     Example:
     | ?- !x not_free_in f(!y, !x, !z).
     | ?- !x not_free_in f(!y, !z).
     x = !x
     y = !y
     z = !z
     provided:
     !z not_free_in [!x]
     !y not_free_in [!x]
```

```
!x not_free_in [!z, !y]
     | ?- !x is_not_free_in f(!y, !z).
     | ?-!x not_free_in !y, !x not_free_in !z, !x is_not_free_in f(!y, !z).
     x = !x
     y = !y
     z = !z
     provided:
     !z not_free_in [!x]
     !y not_free_in [!x]
      !x not_free_in [!z, !y]
is_distinct(ObVar1, ObVar2)
     Succeed if ObVar1 and ObVar2 are known to represent different object-
     level variables.
     mode is_distinct(@term, @term)
     Example:
     | ?- is_distinct(!x, !y).
     | ?- !x not_free_in !y, is_distinct(!x, !y).
     x = !x
     y = !y
     provided:
     !y not_free_in [!x]
     !x not_free_in [!y]
check_binder(VarList, DistinctList)
```

Check VarList is a valid bound variable list for a quantified term. The check also ensures every object variable in the list is different from every other. The variables in VarList are made distinct from the object variables in DistinctList, which is a closed list. If VarList is an open list, the call will be delayed when the variable representing the open end of the list is reached. This is not expected to be used directly. It is called automatically by the system when quantified terms are constructed.

3.7 Term Manipulation

This set of meta-logical predicates perform various operations over the data objects. These operations include composition/decomposition of terms, conversion of a data object from one form to another, and simplification.

Predicates:

Term =..[Functor|Arguments]

```
Term is a compound composed of Functor and Arguments.
     mode +nonvar =.. ?cloded_list(term)
     mode -nonvar =.. @cloded_list(term)
     Example:
     | ?- f(a, B, _C, !d, !_e) =.. List, write(List), nl, fail.
     [f, a, B, _119, !d, !_x0]
     | ?- Funct =.. [f, a, B, _C, !d, !_e], write(Funct), nl, fail.
     f(a, B, _114, !d, !_x0)
     | ?- f(g(a), h(b)) = ... List, write(List), nl, fail.
     [f, g(a), h(b)]
functor(Term, Functor, Arity)
     Term is compound with Functor and Arity.
     mode functor(-compound, +term, +integer)
     mode functor(-atomic, +term, +integer)
     mode functor(+compound, ?term, ?integer)
     mode functor(@atomic, ?term, ?integer)
     Example:
     | ?- functor(f(X), Funct, Arg).
     X = X
     Funct = f
     Arg = 1
     | ?- functor(Term, f(X), 1).
     Term = f(X)(A)
     X = X
arg(N, Term, Argument)
     The N-th argument of Term is Argument.
     mode arg(@integer, +compound, +term)
     If Term has no N-th argument then an out-of-range exception will occur.
     Example:
     | ?- arg(2, f(a, B, c), b).
     B = b
     | ?- arg(3, f(a, B, c), C).
     B = B
     C = c
```

```
| ?- arg(4, f(a, b, c), Arg).
     Unrecoverable error: argument 1 of arg(4, f(a, b, c), _128)
     must be in range (see manual)
same_args(Term1, Term2, N1, N2)
     Succeed when Term1 and Term2 are both atomic or compound and the
     arguments from position N1 to N2 in Term1 and Term2 are the same.
     mode same_args(+compound, +compound, @integer, @integer)
     mode same_args(@atomic, @atomic, @integer, @integer)
     mode same_args(+compound, @atomic, @integer, @integer)
     mode same_args(@atomic, +compound, @integer, @integer)
     Example:
     \mid ?- same_args(f(a,b,c,d), g(A,B,C), 1, 2).
     A = a
     B = b
     C = C
same_args(Term1, Term2, N1, N2, N3)
     Succeed when Term1 and Term2 are both atomic or compound and the
     arguments from position N1 to N2 of Term1 are the same as the arguments
     from position N3 to N3-N1+N2 of Term2.
     mode same_args(+compound, +compound, @integer, @integer, @integer)
     mode same_args(@atomic, @atomic, @integer, @integer, @integer)
     mode same_args(+compound, @atomic, @integer, @integer, @integer)
     mode same_args(@atomic, +compound, @integer, @integer, @integer)
setarg(N, Term, Argument)
     The N-th argument of Term is replaced by Argument.
     mode setarg(@integer, +compound, +term)
     Warning: this predicate does a backtrackable destructive update of the
     structure.
     If Term has no N-th argument then an out-of-range exception will occur.
atom_chars(Atom, AtomList)
     AtomList is the list of single character atoms corresponding to the suc-
     cessive characters of Atom.
     mode atom_chars(@atom, ?closed_list(atom))
     mode atom_chars(-atom, @closed_list(atom))
     Example:
```

```
| ?- atom_chars(abc, Chars).
     Chars = [a, b, c]
     | ?- atom_chars(Atom,[a,b,c]).
     Atom = abc
atom_codes(Atom, CharCodeList)
     CharCodeList is the list of character codes corresponding to the succes-
     sive characters of Atom.
     mode atom_codes(@atom, ?closed_list(integer))
     mode atom_codes(-atom, @closed_list(integer))
     Example:
     | ?- atom_codes(atom, Chars).
     Chars = [97, 116, 111, 109]
     | ?- atom_codes(Atom, [97, 116, 111, 109]).
     Atom = atom
     | ?- atom_codes(Atom, "atom").
     Atom = atom
name(Atom, CharCodeList)
     Atom is made of the character codes in CharCodeList.
     mode name(@atomic, ?closed_list(integer))
     mode name(-atomic, @closed_list(integer))
     Example:
     | ?- name(atom, Chars).
     Chars = [97, 116, 111, 109]
     | ?- name(Atom, [97, 116, 111, 109]).
     Atom = atom
     | ?- name(Atom, "atom").
     Atom = atom
char_code(Atom, CharCode)
     CharCode is the character code for the single character atom Atom.
     mode char_code(@atom, ?integer)
     mode char_code(-atom, @integer)
     Example:
     | ?- char_code(a, Code).
     Code = 97
     | ?- char_code(Char,97).
     Char = a
```

```
number_chars(Integer, AtomList)
      AtomList is the list of characters corresponding to the successive charac-
      ters of Integer.
     mode number_chars(@integer, ?closed_list(atom))
     mode number_chars(-integer, @closed_list(atom))
     Example:
      | ?- number_chars(42, Chars).
      Chars = [4, 2]
number_codes(Integer, CharCodeList)
     {\tt CharCodeList} \ \ {\rm is \ the \ list \ of \ character \ codes \ corresponding \ to \ the \ succession}
     sive characters of Integer.
     mode number_codes(@integer, ?closed_list(integer))
     mode number_codes(-integer, @closed_list(integer))
     Example:
      | ?- number_codes(42, Codes).
     Codes = [52, 50]
      | ?- number_codes(Num, [52, 50]).
     Num = 42
atom_concat(Atom1, Atom2, Atom3)
      Atom3 is the atom formed by concatenating the characters of Atom1 and
      the characters of Atom2.
     mode atom_concat(@atom, @atom, -atom)
      mode atom_concat(?atom, ?atom, @atom)
     Example:
      | ?- atom_concat(ab, cd, Atom).
      Atom = abcd
      | ?- atom_concat(Atom1, Atom2, ab).
      Atom1 =
                    \% the empty atom
      Atom2 = ab;
     Atom1 = a
      Atom2 = b;
      Atom1 = ab
     Atom2 = ;
     no
```

atom_concat2(Atom1, Atom2, Atom3)

```
the characters of Atom2. This is a faster version of atom_concat because
     of its more restricted mode.
     mode atom_concat2(@atom, @atom, ?atom)
atom_length(Atom, N)
     Length is the number of characters in Atom.
     mode atom_length(@atom, ?integer)
     Example:
      | ?- atom_length(abc, Len).
     Len = 3
atom_search(Atom1, Location1, Atom2, Location2)
     Location2 is the position in Atom1 for the first occurrence of Atom2 with
     the search starting at Location1 in Atom1.
     mode atom_search(@atom, @integer, @atom, ?atom)
     Example:
      | ?- atom_search(abab, 1, b, N).
     N = 2
string_to_list(String, List)
     List is the ASCII list corresponding to String.
     mode string_to_list(@string, ?list(integer))
     mode string_to_list(-string, @list(integer))
     Example:
      | ?- string_to_list("ab", L).
     L = [97, 98]
     | ?- string_to_list(S, [97,98]).
     S = "ab"
string_to_atom(String, Atom)
     Atom is the atom whose name is String.
     mode string_to_list(@string, ?list(integer))
     mode string_to_list(-string, @list(integer))
     Example:
      | ?- string_to_atom("ab", A).
     A = ab
      | ?- string_to_atom(S, ab).
```

Atom3 is the atom formed by concatenating the characters of Atom1 and

S = "ab"

```
string_concat(String1, String2, String3)
     String3 is the string formed by concatenating the characters of String1
     and the characters of String2.
     mode string_concat(@string, @string, -string)
     mode string_concat(?string, ?string, @string)
     Example:
     | ?- string_concat("ab", "cd", String).
     String = "abcd"
     | ?- string_concat(String1, String2, "ab").
     String1 = []
     String2 = "ab";
     String1 = "a"
     String2 = "b";
     String1 = "ab"
     String2 = [];
     no
string_length(String, N)
     Length is the number of characters in String.
     mode string_length(@string, ?integer)
     Example:
     | ?- string_length("abc", Len).
     Len = 3
sub_string(String, Start, Length, After, SubString)
     SubString is the substring of String starting at position Start and of
     length Length. After is the number of characters remaining in String
     after the end of SubString.
     mode sub_string(@string, ?integer, ?integer, ?integer, ?string)
     Example:
     | ?- sub_string("ab", S, L, A, SS).
     S = 0
     L = 0
     A = 2
     SS = [];
     S = 0
     L = 1
     A = 1
     SS = "a";
```

```
S = 0
     L = 2
     A = 0
     SS = "ab";
     S = 1
     L = 0
     A = 1
     SS = [];
     S = 1
     L = 1
     A = 0
     SS = "b";
     S = 2
     L = 0
     A = 0
     SS = [];
     no
quantify(Quantified, Quantifier, VarList, Body)
     Quantified is a quantified term composed of Quantifier, VarList,
     and Body.
     mode quantify(?quant, ?term, ?list(term), ?term)
     Example:
     | ?- quantify(!!integral(0, !x) !x f(!x), Quant, Var, Body).
     x = ix
     Quant = integral(0, !x)
     Var = [!x]
     Body = f(!x)
     | ?- quantify(QT, lambda, Var, Body).
     QT = !!lambda Var Body
     Var = Var
     Body = Body
     provided:
     check_binder(Var, [])
quantifier(Quantified, Quantifier)
     The quantifier of Quantified is Quantifier.
     mode quantifier(+quant, ?term)
     Example:
     | ?- quantifier(!!integral(0, !x) !x f(!x), Quant).
     x = !x
     Quant = integral(0, !x)
```

```
bound_var(Quantified, VarList)
     VarList is the bound variable list of the quantified term Quantified.
     mode bound_var(+quant, ?list(term))
     Example.
      | ?- bound_var(!!q [!x:t, !y] f(A), Var).
     x = ix
     y = !y
     A = A
     Var = [!x : t, !y]
     provided:
      !y not_free_in [!x]
      !x not_free_in [!y]
body(Quantified, Term)
     Term is the body of the quantified term Quantified.
     mode body(+quant, ?term)
     Example.
      | ?- body(!!q !x f(A), Body).
     x = !x
     A = A
     Body = f(A)
collect_vars(Term, VarList)
     VarList is a list of all the variables in Term.
     mode collect_vars(@term, -closed_list(anyvar))
     Example.
      | ?- collect_vars(f(X, _Y, !x, !_y), VarList),
     write(VarList), nl, fail.
      [!_x0, !x, _1C3, X]
     no
concat_atom(AtomList, Atom)
concat_atom(AtomList, Atom1, Atom2)
     Atom2 is the atom formed by concatenating the characters of all the atom-
     ics in AtomList with Atom1 interleaving the atoms.
     mode concat_atom(@closed_list(atomic), @atomic, ?atom)
     Example.
```

```
| ?- concat_atom([a, b, c], Atom).
     Atom = abc
     | ?- concat_atom([a,b,c],'/', Atom).
     Atom = a/b/c
copy_term(Term1, Term2)
     Term2 is a copy of Term1 with all the variables replaced by fresh variables.
     mode copy_term(@term, ?term)
     Example:
     | ?- copy_term(f(X,g(X,Y),Y), Term2).
     X = X
     Y = Y
     Term2 = f(B, g(B, A), A)
get_distinct(ObVar, DistinctList)
     DistinctList is the list of object variables known to be different from
     ObVar.
     mode get_distinct(@obvar, ?closed_list(obvar))
     Example.
     | ?- !x not_free_in f(!y, !z), get_distinct(!x, List).
     x = !x
     y = !y
     z = !z
     List = [!z, !y]
     provided:
     !z not_free_in [!x]
     !y not_free_in [!x]
     !x not_free_in [!z, !y]
parallel_sub(TermList, ObVarList, SubList)
     SubList is a list representing a single parallel substitution whose range
     elements are in TermList and whose domain elements are in ObVarList.
     mode parallel_sub(@closed_list(term), @closed_list(obvar),
                   -closed_list(compound))
     mode parallel_sub(?closed_list(term), ?closed_list(obvar),
                   +closed_list(compound))
     Example:
```

```
| ?- parallel_sub([a, f(X)], [!x, !y], SubList).
     X = X
     x = !x
     y = !y
     SubList = [a / !x, f(X) / !y]
     | ?- parallel_sub(TermList, ObVarList, [a / !x, f(X) / !y]).
     TermList = [a, f(X)]
     ObVarList = [!x, !y]
     x = !x
     X = X
     y = !y
simplify_term(Term1, Term2)
simplify_term(Term1, Term2, Atom)
     Term2 is the result of applying simplification to any substitution in Term1.
     Atom is set to true if any simplification is performed. Otherwise Atom is
     set to fail. Note that the Qu-Prolog interpreter calls simplify_term
     before printing answers.
     mode simplify_term(@term, ?term)
     mode simplify_term(@term, ?term, -atom)
     Example:
     | ?- simplify_term([a/!x]f(!x), Term2), write(Term2), nl, fail.
     f(a)
     no
     | ?- simplify_term([a/!x]f(Var), Term2, Atom), write(Term2),
     nl, write(Atom), nl, fail.
     f([a/!x]Var)
     true
     nο
     | ?- simplify_term([a/!x][b/!y]f(X, !x, !y), Term2),
     write(Term2), nl, fail.
     f([a/!x, b/!y]X, [a/!x, b/!y]!x, b)
     | ?- simplify_term([a/!x, B/!y]f(X, !x, !y), Term2),
     write(Term2), nl, fail.
     f([a/!x, B/!y]X, [a/!x, B/!y]!x, B)
     | ?- simplify_term([a/!x]!!q !x B, Term2), write(Term2), nl, fail.
     !!q !x B
     no
     | ?- simplify_term([a/!y]!!q !x B, Term2), write(Term2), nl, fail.
     [a/!y](!!q !x B)
     no
```

```
Atom2 is an atom which has N characters identical to the N characters of
     Atom1 starting at Location in Atom1.
     mode sub_atom(@atom, ?integer, ?integer, ?atom)
     Example:
      | ?- sub_atom(atom1, 2, 2, Atom2).
     Atom2 = to
     | ?- sub_atom(atom1, Loc, 2, Atom2).
     Loc = 1
     Atom2 = at;
     Loc = 2
     Atom2 = to;
     Loc = 3
     Atom2 = om;
     Loc = 4
     Atom2 = m1;
     | ?- sub_atom(atat, Loc, Num, at).
     Loc = 1
     Num = 2;
     Loc = 3
     Num = 2;
     no
sub_term(Substituted, Term)
     Term is Substituted with the substitution removed.
     mode sub_term(+term, ?term)
     Example:
      | ?- sub\_term([a/!x]f(A), Term).
     A = A
     Term = f(A)
substitution(Substituted, Substitutions)
     Substitutions is the list of parallel substitutions appearing at the top-
     level of Substituted.
     mode substitution(@term, -closed_list(closed_list(compound)))
     Example:
```

sub_atom(Atom1, Location, N, Atom2)

```
| ?- substitution([x/!y, z/!x]f(X, g(Y), [y/!z]Z), Subs).
     y = !y
     x = !x
     X = X
     Y = Y
     z = !z
     Z = Z
     Subs = [[x / !y, z / !x]]
substitute(Substituted, Substitutions, Term)
     Substituted has Substitutions applied to Term. See substitution/2
     (page 70).
     mode substitute(+term, ?closed_list(closed_list(compound)), ?term)
     mode substitute(-term, @closed_list(closed_list(compound)), @term)
     Example:
     | ?- substitute(T, [[a/!x1, b/!x2], [c/!x3]], f(X)), write(T), fail.
     [a/x1, b/x2][c/x3]f(X)
     no
uncurry(HigherGoal, Goal)
     Flatten a HigherGoal to a normal Goal.
     mode uncurry(+term, ?term)
     Example:
     | ?- uncurry(f(a)(b),X).
     X = f(a, b)
```

3.8 List Processing

This set of predicates provides some frequently used list operations. The set can be divided into two parts according to the type of list on which the predicates operate. The predicates which manipulate open lists (i.e. lists terminated with a variable) have a open_ prefix in the name. Otherwise, closed (proper) lists are assumed. When ==/2 (page 50) is used for comparison instead of unification, the predicate name is suffixed with an _eq.

Predicates:

```
open_list(Term)
    Succeed if Term is an open list.
    mode open_list(@term)
    Example:
```

```
| ?- open_list([a, b, c]).
     no
     | ?- open_list([a, b, c | Tail]).
     Tail = Tail
closed_list(Term)
     Succeed if Term is a closed (proper) list.
     mode closed_list(@term)
     Example:
      | ?- closed_list([a, b, c]).
     | ?- closed_list([a, b, c | Tail]).
     no
closed_to_open(Closed, Open)
     Convert a Closed list to an Open list by appending an unbound variable.
     mode closed_to_open(+closed_list(term), ?list(term))
     Example:
      | ?- Closed = [a, b, c], closed_to_open([a, b, c], Open),
     write(Open), nl, fail.
      [a, b, c|_1D0]
     no
open_to_closed(List)
     Convert List from an open list to a closed list by binding the tail to [].
     mode open_to_closed(?closed_list(term))
     Example:
      | ?- Open = [a, b, c | Tail], open_to_closed(Open),
     write(Open), nl, fail.
      [a, b, c]
     no
delete(Term, List1, List2)
     List2 is List1 after deleting an instance of Term. The comparison is
     performed by unification.
     mode delete(+term, +closed_list(term), ?closed_list(term))
     Example:
```

```
| ?- delete(a, [a, b, d, a, c], List2).
     List2 = [b, d, a, c];
     List2 = [a, b, d, c];
     no
delete_all(Term, List1, List2)
     List2 is List1 after deleting all the instances of Term. The comparison
     is performed by unification.
     mode delete_all(+term, +closed_list(term), ?closed_list(term))
     Example:
     | ?- delete_all(a, [a, b, d, a, c], List2).
     List2 = [b, d, c];
     no
intersect_list(List1, List2, List3)
     List3 contains all the elements which appear in both List1 and List2.
     The comparison is performed by ==/2.
     mode intersect_list(@closed_list(term), @closed_list(term),
                  -closed_list(term))
     Example:
     | ?- intersect_list([a, b, d, a, c], [c, b, e, a, f], List3).
     List3 = [a, b, a, c]
     | ?- intersect_list([a, B, d, a, C], [C, b, e, a, f], List3).
     C = C
     List3 = [a, a, C]
union_list(List1, List2, List3)
     List3 contains all the elements which appear in either List1 or List2.
     The comparison is performed by ==/2.
     mode union_list(+closed_list(term), +closed_list(term),
                 ?closed_list(term)
     Example:
     | ?- union_list([a, b, d, a, c], [c, b, e, a, f], List3).
     List3 = [d, c, b, e, a, f]
     | ?- union_list([a, B, d, a, C], [C, b, e, a, f], List3).
     B = B
     C = C
     List3 = [B, d, C, b, e, a, f]
```

```
diff_list(List1, List2, List3)
     List3 contains all those elements in List1 but not in List2. The com-
     parison is performed by ==/2.
     mode diff_list(+closed_list(Term), +closed_list(Term),
                ?closed_list(Term))
     Example:
     | ?- diff_list([a, b, d, a, c], [c, b, e, a, f], List3).
     List3 = [d]
     | ?- diff_list([a, B, d, a, C], [C, b, e, a, f], List3).
     B = B
     C = C
     List3 = [B, d]
distribute(Term, List1, List2)
     List2 is a list of pairs (Term, X) for each X in List1.
     mode distribute(+term, +closed_list(term), ?closed_list(term))
     mode distribute(?term, ?closed_list(term), +closed_list(term))
     Example:
     | ?- distribute(X, [a, b, c], List2).
     X = X
     List2 = [(X , a), (X , b), (X , c)]
     | ?- distribute(Term, List1, [(A, 1), (A, 2), (A, 3)]).
     Term = A
     List1 = [1, 2, 3]
     A = A
     | ?- distribute(Term, List1, [(A, 1), (B, 2), (C, 3)]).
     Term = C
     List1 = [1, 2, 3]
     A = C
     B = C
     C = C
distribute_left(Term, List1, List2)
     List2 is a list of pairs (Term, X) for each X in List1.
     mode distribute_left(+term, +closed_list(term),
                 ?closed_list(term))
     mode distribute_left(?term, ?closed_list(term),
                 +closed_list(term))
     Example:
```

```
| ?- distribute_left(f(G), [a, b, c], List2).
     G = G
     List2 = [(f(G), a), (f(G), b), (f(G), c)]
distribute_right(Term, List1, List2)
     List2 is a list of pairs (X, Term) for each X in List1.
     mode distribute_right(+term, +closed_list(term),
                 ?closed_list(term))
     mode distribute_right(?term, ?closed_list(term),
                 +closed_list(term))
     Example:
     | ?- distribute_right(term, [a, b, c], List2).
     List2 = [(a, term), (b, term), (c, term)]
append(List1, List2, List3)
     List3 is List1 appended to List2.
     mode append(+closed_list(term), ?list(term), ?list(term))
     mode append(?list(term), ?list(term), +closed_list(term))
     Example:
     | ?- append([a, b, c], [b, c, d], List3).
     List3 = [a, b, c, b, c, d]
     | ?- append([a, b, c], List2, List3).
     List2 = List2
     List3 = [a, b, c|List2]
     | ?- append(List1, List2, [a, b, c, d]).
     List1 = []
     List2 = [a, b, c, d];
     List1 = [a]
     List2 = [b, c, d];
     List1 = [a, b]
     List2 = [c, d];
     List1 = [a, b, c]
     List2 = [d];
     List1 = [a, b, c, d]
     List2 = [];
     nο
length(List, N)
     The length of List is N.
     mode length(@closed_list(term), ?integer)
     mode length(-closed_list(term), @integer)
     Example:
```

```
| ?- length([a, b, c], Length).
     Length = 3
     | ?- length(List, 3).
     List = [A, B, C]
     | ?- length([a, b, c | Rest], 5).
     Rest = [A, B]
     | ?- length(List, Length).
     List = []
     Length = 0;
     List = [A]
     Length = 1;
     List = [A, B]
     Length = 2;
     List = [A, B, C]
     Length = 3
member(Term, List)
     Term is an element of List. The comparison is performed by unification.
     mode member(?term, ?list(term))
     Example:
     | ?- member(b, [a, b, c]).
     yes
     | ?- member(A, [a, b, c]).
     A = a;
     A = b;
     A = c;
     no
     | ?- member(Term, List).
     List = [Term|A];
     List = [A, Term|B];
     List = [A, B, Term|C];
     List = [A, B, C, Term|D]
member_eq(Term, List)
     Term is an element of List. The comparison is performed by ==/2.
     mode member_eq(@term, @closed_list(term))
     Example:
     | ?- member_eq(Term, [a, b, c]).
     | ?- member_eq(b, [a, b, c]).
     yes
```

```
open_append(Open, List)
     Append an open list, Open, and a closed list, Closed, to produce a new
     open list by instantiating the tail of Open.
     mode open_append(+open_list(term), @closed_list(term))
     Example:
     | ?- List = [1, 2 | Tail], open_append(List, [3, 4]).
     List = [1, 2, 3, 4|A]
     Tail = [3, 4|A]
open_length(List, N)
     The length of the open List is N, ignoring the tail.
     mode open_length(@open_list(term), -integer)
     mode open_length(?open_list(term), @integer)
     Example:
     | ?- open_length([a, b, c | Tail], Length).
     Tail = Tail
     Length = 3
     | ?- open_length(List, 5).
     List = [A, B, C, D, E|F]
open_member(Term, Open)
     Term is an element of Open. The comparison is performed by unification
     with existing elements only.
     mode open_member(+term, +open_list(term))
     Example:
     | ?- open_member(b, [a, b, c | Tail]).
     Tail = Tail
     | ?- open_member(Term, [a, b, c | Tail]).
     Term = a
     Tail = Tail;
     Term = b
     Tail = Tail;
     Term = c
     Tail = Tail;
     no
     | ?- open_member(Term, List).
     no
open_member_eq(Term, Open)
```

```
Term is an element of Open. The comparison is performed by ==/2.
     mode open_member_eq(@term, @open_list(term))
     Example:
     | ?- open_member_eq(Term, [a, b, c | Tail]).
     | ?- open_member_eq(b, [a, b, c | Tail]).
     Rest = Rest
open_tail(Open, Variable)
     Variable is the tail of the open list, Open.
     mode open_tail(+open_list(term), -var)
     Example:
     | ?- open_tail([a, b, c | Tail], Var).
     Tail = Var
     Var = Var
remove_duplicates(List1, List2)
     List2 is List1 without duplicates.
     mode remove_duplicates(@closed_list(term), ?closed_list(term))
     Example:
     | ?- remove_duplicates([a, b, d, a, c], List2).
     List2 = [b, d, a, c]
     | ?- remove_duplicates([a, B, c, a, B, C], List2).
     B = B
     C = C
     List2 = [c, a, B, C]
reverse(List1, List2)
     List2 is the reverse of List1. The comparison is performed by ==/2
     (page 50).
     mode reverse(+closed_list(term), ?closed_list(term))
     Example:
     | ?- reverse([a, b, d, a, c], List2).
     List2 = [c, a, d, b, a]
search_insert(Term, Open)
```

```
Search through Open for Term. If not found, insert Term. The comparison
     is performed by ==/2 (page 50).
     mode search_insert(@term, +open_list(term))
     Example:
      | ?- List = [a, b, d, a, c | Tail], search_insert(d, List).
     List = [a, b, d, a, c|Tail]
     Tail = Tail
      | ?- List = [a, b, d, a, c | Tail], search_insert(f, List).
     List = [a, b, d, a, c, f|A]
     Tail = [f|A]
      | ?- List = [a, b, D, a, c | Tail], search_insert(D, List).
     List = [a, b, D, a, c|Tail]
     D = D
     Tail = Tail
      | ?- List = [a, b, D, a, c | Tail], search_insert(E, List).
     List = [a, b, D, a, c, E|A]
     D = D
     Tail = [E|A]
     E = E
sort(List1, List2)
     List2 is the result of sorting List1 into the standard order with duplicates
     mode sort(@closed_list(term), -closed_list(term))
     Example:
      | ?- sort([a, b, d, a, c], List2).
     List2 = [a, b, c, d]
sort(List1, List2, Order)
     List2 is the result of sorting List1 into the order defined by the predicate
     Order with duplicates removed. So
     sort(List1, List2) is the same as sort(List1, List2, '@<')</pre>
     mode sort(@closed_list(term), -closed_list(term), @goal)
msort(List1, List2, Order), msort(List1, List2, Order)
```

The same as the above sorts but with duplicates not removed.

3.9 All Solutions

All the solutions for Goal are collected into List according to the Template format. The solutions are obtained via backtracking.

For the examples given for each predicate below, it is assummed that the following predicate definition has been added to the system.

```
p(a, 1). p(a, 2). p(c, 1). p(b, 6). p(c, 4).
```

Predicates:

Variable^Goal

Execute Goal. It is treated the same as call(Goal). It is expected to be used only inside bagof/3 (page 80), findall/3 (page 81), and setof/3 (page 80), where it represents existential quantification.

mode +var ^ +goal

bagof(Template, Goal, List)

List is the collection of instances of Template, which satisfy the Goal. mode bagof(@term, @goal, ?closed_list(term))

Example:

```
| ?- bagof(X, p(X,Y), R).
X = X
Y = 1
R = [a, c];
X = X
Y = 2
R = [a];
X = X
Y = 4
R = [c];
X = X
Y = 6
R = [b];
\mid ?- bagof(X, Y^p(X,Y), R).
X = X
Y = Y
R = [a, a, c, b, c]
```

setof(Template, Goal, List)

List is the collection of instances of Template, which satisfy the Goal. Duplicates are removed and the result is sorted in the standard order. mode setof(@term, @goal, ?closed_list(term))

```
| ?- setof(X, p(X,Y), R).
X = X
```

```
Y = 1
     R = [a, c];
     X = X
     Y = 2
     R = [a];
     X = X
     Y = 4
     R = [c];
     X = X
     Y = 6
     R = [b];
     \mid ?- setof(X, Y^p(X,Y), R).
     X = X
     Y = Y
     R = [a, b, c]
findall(Template, Goal, List)
     List is the collection of instances of Template, which satisfy the Goal.
     Unlike bagof/3 (page 80), there is an implied existential quantification
     of all variables not in Template.
     mode findall(@term, @goal, ?closed_list(term))
     Example:
      \mid ?- findall(X, p(X,Y), R).
     X = X
     Y = Y
     R = [a, a, c, b, c]
      \mid ?- findall(R, setof(X, p(X,Y), R), S).
     R = R
     X = X
     Y = Y
     S = [[a, c], [a], [c], [b]]
forall(Goal, Test)
     This predicate succeeds (without binding variables) iff whenever Goal
     succeeds, Test also succeeds.
     mode forall(@goal, @goal)
     Example:
      | ?- forall(member(X, [1,2,3]), integer(X)).
     X = X
      | ?- forall(member(X, [5,4,1,3,6]), X > 2).
     no
```

3.10 Arithmetic

These predicates perform arithmetical operations on the arguments, which are arithmetic expressions. Each expression can be a mixture of numbers, variables, and arithmetic functions. The expression must be free of unbound variables when it is evaluated.

```
Predicates:
```

```
Expression1 =:= Expression2
     Expression1 is numerically equal to Expression2.
     mode @ground =:= @ground
Term1 = \ Term2
     Term1 and Term2 are not numerically equal.
     mode @ground =\= @ground
Expression1 < Expression2</pre>
     Expression1 is numerically less than Expression2.
     mode @ground < @ground
Expression1 =< Expression2</pre>
      Expression1 is numerically less than or equal to Expression2.
     mode @ground =< @ground</pre>
Expression1 > Expression2
      Expression1 is numerically greater than Expression2.
     mode @ground > @ground
Expression1 >= Expression2
     Expression1 is numerically greater than or equal to Expression2.
     mode @ground >= @ground
     Example:
      | ?- 12 =:= 3 * 4.
      | ?- 12 =\= 14.
      | ?- -3 < 3.
      | ?- 3*4 =< 12.
      | ?- A = 12, A > 8.
      | ?- A = 12, B = -2, A >= B.
```

 $\verb|between(Integer1, Integer2, N)|$

Integer1 <= N <= Integer2. This predicate can generate N, and may
be used to provide a "for loop" like iteration driven by failure.
mode between(@integer, @integer, ?integer)</pre>

```
| ?- between(1, 3, A).
A = 1;
A = 2;
A = 3;
```

is(Value, Expression)

The result of evaulating ${\tt Expression}$ unifies with ${\tt Value}.$ The following operators are available.

• +

Addition

• -

Subtraction/Negation

• *

Multiplication

• //

Integer division

• /

Division

• rem

Reminder (It is currently the same as mod)

 \bullet mod

Modulus

• **

Power

• >>

Bitwise right shift. Effectively divides by two and rounds towards negative infinity.

• <<

Bitwise left shift. Effectively multiplies by two.

• /\

Bitwise AND

• \/

Bitwise OR

• \

Bitwise complement

• abs

Absolute value

• sqrt

Square root

- exp Exponentiation
- sin Sin
- cos

Cos

- tan Tan
- asin Asin
- acos Acos
- atan

Atan

- round Round to nearest integer
- floor Floor
- ceiling Ceiling truncate Truncate

The atoms pi and e are also available for use in arithmetic expressions.

```
is is an infix operator.
mode is(?number, @gcomp)
mode is(?number, @number)
```

```
| ?- A is 3 + 5.

A = 8

| ?- A is 7 / 4.

A = 1

| ?- A is 9 // 2.

A = 4

| ?- A is 7 mod 4.

A = 3

| ?- A is 2'1010 /\ 2'1001.

A = 8

| ?- A is 10 \/ 9.

A = 11

| ?- A is pi*3.5**2.

A = 38.4845
```

The following predicates provide uniformly distributed pseudo-random numbers.

Predicates:

```
srandom(Seed)
```

Initialize the random numbers with a seed. If Seed is supplied then that seed is used for initialization. Otherwise, a seed is generated from the current time and that seed is used for initialization and Seed is instantiated to that value.

```
mode srandom(?integer)
```

```
random(R)
```

R is unified with a random double between 0 and 1. mode random(?double)

```
random(Lower, Upper, I)
```

I is unified with a random integer in the range [Lower, Upper]. mode random(@integer, @integer, ?integer)

irandom(I)

I is unified with a random integer. mode irandom(?integer)

3.11 Term Expansion

When a file is consulted or compiled, every clause, fact and query within it is subject to term expansion. User term expansions are installed by defining clauses for term_expansion/2,3; the add_ and del_ predicates are provided to assist with this. Goal is a higher-order goal that will be called with two or three extra arguments: the input and output terms (Term1, Term2), and perhaps a list VariableNames of (Variable=Name) pairs for the input clause (as in read_term/[2,3] (page 38)). Definite Clause Grammar (DCG) expansions are carried out automatically after user expansions.

Multi-term expansion is defined using term expansion. When multi-term expansion is active, the current set of multi-expansions will be applied repeatedly to each clause until none succeeds. It is the user's responsibility to avoid cycles; a depth limit helps identify these.

Subterm expansion is defined using term expansion. When subterm expansion is active, the current set of subterm expansions will be applied to every subterm of every clause until none succeeds. It is the user's responsibility to avoid cycles; a depth limit helps identify these.

The output of term expansion and multi-term expansion (but not of subterm expansion) may be a single term or a list of terms.

Predicates:

list_expansions

List all current term expansions, multi-term expansions and subterm expansions.

add_expansion(Goal)

Add Goal to the definition of term_expansion/2. Goal will be called with two extra arguments: the input term and the output term (or list of terms).

mode add_expansion(@goal)

add_expansion_vars(Goal)

Add Goal to the definition of term_expansion/3. Goal will be called with three extra arguments: the input term and the output term (or list of terms), and a list of Variable=Name pairs for the term being expanded. mode add_expansion_vars(@goal)

add_multi_expansion(Goal)

Add Goal to the current set of multi-term expansions.

Also add multi_expand_term/2 (page 88) to the definition of term_expansion/2 if necessary. Goal will be called with two extra arguments: the input term and the output term (or list of terms).

mode add_multi_expansion(@goal)

add_multi_expansion_vars(Goal)

Add Goal to the current set of multi-term expansions with variables and add multi_expand_term/3 (page 88) to the definition of term_expansion/3 if necessary. Goal will be called with three extra arguments: the input term and the output term (or list of terms), and a list of Variable=Name pairs for the term being expanded.

mode add_multi_expansion_vars(@goal)

add_subterm_expansion(Goal)

Add Goal to the current set of subterm expansions.

Also add expand_subterms/2 (page 88) to the definition of term_expansion/2 if necessary. Goal will be called with two extra arguments: the input subterm and the output subterm.

mode add_subterm_expansion(@goal)

Examples (See end of section):

```
| ?- assert(macro_eg(append3(A,B,C,D),
(append(A,X,D), append(B,C,X)))).
| ?- add_subterm_expansion(macro_eg).
yes
| ?- list_expansions.
```

```
term_expansion(B, A) :-
    macro_eg(B, A).
ves
```

add_subterm_expansion_vars(Goal)

Add Goal to the current set of subterm expansions with variables, and add expand_subterms/3 (page 88) to the definition of term_expansion/3 if necessary. Goal will be called with three extra arguments: the input subterm and the output subterm, and a list of Variable=Name pairs for the term being expanded.

mode add_subterm_expansion_vars(@goal)

del_expansion(Goal)

Delete Goal from the definition of term_expansion/2. mode del_expansion(@goal)

del_expansion_vars(Goal)

Delete Goal from the definition of term_expansion/3. mode del_expansion_vars(@goal)

del_multi_expansion(Goal)

Delete Goal from the current set of multi-term expansions, and delete multi_expand_term/2 (page 88) from the definition of term_expansion/2 if it is no longer necessary.

mode del_multi_expansion(@goal)

del_multi_expansion_vars(Goal)

Delete Goal from the current set of multi-term expansions with variables, and delete multi_expand_term/3 (page 88) from the definition of term_expansion/3 if it is no longer necessary.

mode del_multi_expansion_vars(@goal)

del_subterm_expansion(Goal)

Delete Goal from the current set of subterm expansions, and delete expand_subterms/2 (page 88) from the definition of term_expansion/2 if it is no longer necessary.

mode del_subterm_expansion(@goal)

del_subterm_expansion_vars(Goal)

Delete Goal from the current set of subterm expansions with variables, and delete expand_subterms/3 (page 88) from the definition of term_expansion/3 if it is no longer necessary.

mode del_subterm_expansion_vars(@goal)

```
'C'(List1, Term, List2)
     List1 is connected by Term to List2.
     This predicate typically appears only in preprocessed DCG rules.
     mode 'C'(?list(term), ?term, ?list(term))
     Example:
      | ?- 'C'([a,b,c],Y,Z).
     Y = a
     Z = [b, c]
dcg(Rule, Clause)
     Clause is the expansion of Definite Clause Grammars Rule.
     mode dcg(@nonvar, ?nonvar)
     Examples (See end of section):
      | ?- dcg((pairing(P1 + P2) --> filler, pair(P1), pairing(P2)), X),
     portray_clause(X),fail.
     pairing(P1 + P2, D, A) :-
          filler(D, C),
          pair(P1, C, B),
          pairing(P2, B, A).
expand_term(Term1, Term2)
expand_term(Term1, Term2, VariableNames)
     Term2 is the result of applying term expansions to Term1.
     VariableNames is a list of variables and their names.
     mode expand_term(+term, ?term)
     mode expand_term(+term, ?term, ?closed_list(compound))
multi_expand_term(Term1, Term2)
multi_expand_term(Term1, Term2, VariableNames)
     Term2 is the result of applying multi-term expansions to Term1.
     VariableNames is a list of variables and their names.
     mode multi_expand_term(+term, ?term)
     mode multi_expand_term(+term, ?term, ?closed_list(compound))
expand_subterms(Term1, Term2)
expand_subterms(Term1, Term2, Vars)
     Term2 is the result of applying subterm expansions to Term1. VariableNames
     is a list of variables and their names.
     mode expand_subterms(+term, ?term)
     mode expand_subterms(+term, ?term, ?closed_list(compound))
```

```
multi_expand_depth_limit(Limit)
```

The depth limit for multi-term expansion is Limit. Multi-term expansion will stop and a warning (range_exception) will be generated if this limit is exceeded in any one term. This built-in can be used to query the current limit or set a new one. The default depth is 100.

```
mode multi_expand_depth_limit(?integer)
```

```
subterm_expand_depth_limit(Limit)
```

phrase(Rule, List1)

The depth limit for subterm expansion is Limit. Subterm expansion will stop and a warning (range_exception) will be generated if this limit is exceeded in any one subterm. This built-in can be used to query the current limit or set a new one. The default depth is 100.

```
mode subterm_expand_depth_limit(?integer)
```

```
phrase(Rule, List1, List2)
   List1 is parsed according to the DCG Rule. List2 is the remaining
   symbols from List1 after the parsing.
   mode phrase(+nonvar, +closed_list(term))
   mode phrase(+nonvar, +closed_list(term), ?closed_list(term))
   Examples (See end of section):
```

```
| ?- phrase(pairing(T), "a(b(c())e)f").
T = pair(pair(pair))
| ?- phrase(pairing(T), "a(b(c())e)f(").
no
| ?- phrase(pairing(T), "a(b(c())e)f(", R).
T = pair(pair(pair))
R = [40]
```

The following example uses subterm expansion to achieve macro expansion.

One way to append three lists together is to write and use a predicate that appends the lists. Another way is to think of append3/4 as a macro for a pair of appends. Term expansion can then be used to expand occurrences of append3/4 within programs.

This can be achieved by first declaring the term expansion rule in a file (say expand.ql) as follows.

```
macro_eg(append3(A,B,C,D), (append(A,X,D), append(B,C,X))).
?-add_subterm_expansion(macro_eg).
```

This file can then be supplied to the Qu-Prolog compiler to term expand supplied programs. For example, assume the file expand_eg.ql contains the following definition.

```
p(Term, Result) :-
    extract_lists(Term, L1, L2, L3),
    append3(L1, L2, L3, L),
    process_lists(L, Result).
```

The compiler can then be invoked to carry out term expansion as in the following example.

```
qc -G -R expand expand_eg.ql
```

The -R switch tells the compiler to use expand.ql (or expand.qo if it is compiled) for the term expansion rules and the -G switch tells the compiler to stop after term expansion. The result is that a file expand_eg.qg will be generated that is an encoded and term expanded version of expand_eg.ql.

```
p(Term, Result) :-
    extract_lists(Term, L1, L2, L3),
    append(L1, A, L),
    append(L2, L3, A),
    process_lists(L, Result).
```

The example given below uses a Definite Clause Grammar to determine the bracket pairing structure of a string of characters.

The following rules define the grammar.

```
pairing(P1 + P2) --> filler, pair(P1), pairing(P2).
pairing(P) --> filler, pair(P), filler.
pair(pair) --> [0'(], filler, [0')].
pair(pair(P)) --> [0'(], pairing(P), [0')].
filler --> [X], {X \= 0'(, X \= 0')}, filler.
filler --> [].
```

When this grammar is compiled or consulted the DCG expansion will transform the grammar rules into the following Qu-Prolog rules. Note that Qu-Prolog code may appear within grammar rules as long as it is enclosed by parentheses (for example $\{X = 0', X = 0'\}$) and in this case the DCG expansion will leave this code untouched.

```
pairing(D + C, B, A) :-
  filler(B, E),
  pair(D, E, F),
  pairing(C, F, A),
  true.
pairing(C, B, A) :-
  filler(B, D),
```

```
pair(C, D, E),
    filler(E, A),
    true.
filler(B, A) :-
    'C'(B, D, C),
    D = 40,
    D = 41,
    filler(C, A),
    true.
filler(A, A) :-
    true,
    true.
pair(pair, B, A) :-
    'C'(B, 40, C),
    filler(C, D),
    'C'(D, 41, A),
    true.
pair(pair(C), B, A) :-
    'C'(B, 40, D),
    pairing(C, D, E),
    'C'(E, 41, A),
    true.
```

Once this grammar is consulted or loaded then phrase/2 (page 89) may be used to parse strings as in the following example.

```
| ?- phrase(pairing(T), "a(b(c())()e)f()g").
T = pair(pair(pair) + pair) + pair
```

3.12 Database

The system includes three non-backtrackable databases: the dynamic database, the record database, and the global state database.

3.12.1 Dynamic Database

Changes to the dynamic database can be achieved with the following predicates. The dynamic database is composed entirely of interpreted clauses. Clauses can be added to (asserted) or removed from (retracted) the dynamic database. The predicates cannot be applied to compiled clauses.

Clause indexing information is stored in a dynamic hash table that grows as more clauses are added. Consequently, if a dynamic predicate has many clauses then it is more efficient to declare the expected size of the predicate so that extending and rehashing is avoided. This is done with the dynamic predicate.

```
Predicates:
dynamic(PredicateName/Arity)
dynamic(PredicateName/Arity, Index)
dynamic(PredicateName/Arity, Index, Size)
     PredicateName with Arity is declared to be an interpreted predicate,
     initially with no clauses.
     The second argument determines the index argument - first argument
     indexing is the default.
     The third argument declares the size of the indexing hash table for the
     predicate (default 4).
     mode dynamic(@compound)
     mode dynamic(@compound,@integer)
     mode dynamic(@compound,@integer,@integer)
     Example:
      | ?- p(A, B).
     no definition for p/2
      | ?- dynamic(p/2).
      yes
      | ?- p(A, B).
multifile(PredicateName/Arity)
      Esentially the same as dynamic (PredicateName/Arity) and is to provide
      an approximation to multifile as used in other Prologs.
assert(Clause)
      Add the Clause to the end of the current interpreted program.
     mode assert(@term)
     Example:
      \mid ?- assert((p(X) :- q(X))).
     X = X
```

Add the Clause to the beginning (end) of the current interpreted program.

Example:

asserta(Clause) assertz(Clause)

```
\mid ?- asserta((p(X,Y) :- q(X,Z), r(Z,Y))).
     X = X
     Y = Y
     Z = Z
      \mid ?- assertz((p(X,Y) :- p(Y,X)), Ref).
     X = X
     Y = Y
     Ref = 324747
get_name(Clause, PredicateName/Arity)
      The head of Clause has PredicateName and Arity.
     mode get_name(@goal, ?gcomp)
      Example:
      \mid ?- get_name((p(X,Y) :- q(X,Y)), Pred).
      Y = Y
     Pred = p / 2
get_predicate_timestamp(Predicates, StampedPredicates)
     Predicates is a list of the form P/N and StampedPredicates is a list of
      the form P/N-Stamp. The stamp is a number representing the number of
      times this predicate has been modified and is useful for thread_wait_on_goal
      to prevent an unnecessary initial call of the goal.
     mode get_predicate_timestamp(@list, -list)
changed_predicates(StampedPredicates, SPredicates)
      StampedPredicates is a list of the form P/N-Stamp and Predicates
     is a list of the form P/N. Predicates is the list of all predicates from
      StampedPredicates that have more recent timestamps than those given.
      Typically this is used in conjunction with get_predicate_timestamp/2
      above to determine what predicates have changed since the last call to
      get_predicate_timestamp/2.
     mode changed_predicates(@list, -list)
clause(Head, Body)
      There is an existing clause with the given Head and Body.
      mode clause(+goal, ?goal)
      Examples (Continued from last):
      | ?- clause((p(A,B)), Body).
      A = A
     B = B
```

```
Body = q(A, C), r(C, B);
     A = A
     B = B
     Body = p(B, A);
     no
listing
listing(PredicateList)
     List all interpreted predicates or only those given in PredicateList.
     Examples (Continued from last):
      | ?- listing.
     p(A) :-
         q(A).
     p(B, A) :-
          q(B, C),
          r(C, A).
     p(B, A) :-
         p(A, B).
     yes
     | ?- listing(p/1).
     p(A) :-
         q(A).
     yes
retract(Clause)
     Remove the first clause that matches Clause.
     mode retract(+nonvar)
     Examples (Continued from last):
      | ?- retract((p(X) :- q(X))).
     X = X
retractall(Head)
     Remove all the clauses whose heads match Head.
     mode retract(@goal)
     Example: (Continued from last):
     | ?- retractall((p(A,B))).
     A = A
     | ?- clause((p(A,B)), Body).
```

```
abolish(PredicateName/Arity)
```

```
Make PredicateName/Arity undefined. This does not work on compiled code.
```

```
mode abolish(@gcomp)
```

Example:

```
| ?- abolish(p/2).
yes
| ?- p(A, B).
no definition for p/2
```

add_linking_clause(HigherHead, HigherBody, Arity)

A collection of Arity new variables is added to the end of HigherHead and to the end of HigherBody to form Head and Body respectively. The clause Head: - Body is then added to the database.

```
mode add_linking_clause(@nonvar, @nonvar, @integer)
```

Example:

Linking clauses may be used for connecting data stored in the static code area with data stored in the dynamic database.

Assume that there is a table of facts compiled_facts/2 in the static code area and a table of facts dynamic_facts/2 in the dynamic database. These facts can be linked together by executing the following goals.

```
add_linking_clause(all_facts, compiled_facts, 2)
add_linking_clause(all_facts, dynamic_facts, 2)
```

This asserts the following rules to the dynamic database.

```
all_facts(X,Y) :- compiled_facts(X,Y).
all_facts(X,Y) :- dynamic_facts(X,Y).
```

The combined rules can then be queried via the all_facts/2 predicate.

get_linking_clause(HigherHead, HigherBody, Arity)

A collection of Arity new variables is added to the end of HigherHead and to the end of HigherBody to form Head and Body respectively. The clause Head: - Body is then retrieved from the database.

```
mode get_linking_clause(+goal, ?goal, @integer)
```

Examples (Continued from last):

```
| ?- get_linking_clause(all_facts, Body, 2).
Body = compiled_facts;
Body = dynamic_facts;
no
```

```
del_linking_clause(HigherHead, HigherBody, Arity)
```

A collection of Arity new variables is added to the end of HigherHead and to the end of HigherBody to form Head and Body respectively. The clause Head :- Body is then deleted from the database.

mode del_linking_clause(@goal, @goal, @integer)

Examples (Continued from last):

```
| ?- del_linking_clause(all_facts, dynamic_facts, 2).
yes
| ?- clause(all_facts(A,B), Body).
A = A
B = B
Body = compiled_facts(A, B);
```

```
index(PredicateName, Arity, N)
```

Index PredicateName/Arity with the N-th argument. The default is the first argument. This is used as a directive to the compiler to produce clause indexing for static code.

```
mode index(@atom, @integer, @integer)
```

Example:

```
| ?- index(all_facts, 2, 2).
yes
```

3.12.2 Record Database

The record database associates terms with atoms. Terms can be added to (recorda/3,recordz/3) or removed from (erase/1) the record database.

Predicates:

```
recorda(Atom, Term, Reference)
recordz(Atom, Term, Reference)
```

Record Term as the first (last) term associated with Atom in the record database. Reference is the reference to this entry.

```
mode recorda(@atom, @term, -integer)
mode recordz(@atom, @term, -integer)
```

```
| ?- recorda(colour, sky(blue), Ref).
```

```
Ref = 70
     | ?- recorda(colour, sun(yellow), Ref).
     Ref = 72
     | ?- recordz(colour, grass(green), Ref).
     Ref = 74
     | ?- recordz(colour, ocean(blue), Ref).
     Ref = 76
recorded(Atom, Term, Reference)
     Lookup Term associated with Atom in the record database at Reference.
     mode recorded(@atom, ?term, ?integer)
     Examples (Continued from last):
     | ?- recorded(colour, grass(Colour), Ref).
     Colour = green
     Ref = 74
     | ?- recorded(colour, Object(blue), Ref).
     Object = sky
     Ref = 70;
     Object = ocean
     Ref = 76;
     no
instance(Reference, Term)
     Unifies Term with the term at Reference in the record database. This
     call does not instantiate variables in the term at Reference.
     mode instance(@integer, +term)
     Examples (Continued from last):
     | ?- instance(70, Term).
     Term = sky(blue)
     | ?- instance(72, Object(Colour)).
     Object = sun
     Colour = yellow
erase(Reference)
     Erase the record database entry at Reference.
     mode erase(@integer)
     Examples (Continued from last):
     | ?- erase(74).
     yes
```

```
| ?- recorded(colour, Term, Ref).
Term = sun(yellow)
Ref = 72;
Term = sky(blue)
Ref = 70;
Term = ocean(blue)
Ref = 76;
```

3.12.3 Global State Database

The global state database associates atomics with atoms. It is designed to give efficient (non-backtrackable) access/update of atomic values and increment/decrement of integer values.

```
Predicates:
global_state_set(Atom, Atomic)
      The value of the global state associated with Atom is set to Atomic.
     mode global_state_set(@atom, @atomic)
     Example:
      | ?- global_state_set(year, 1999).
      yes
global_state_lookup(Atom, Atomic)
      The current value of the global state associated with Atom is unified with
      Atomic. Fails if the global state associated with Atom has not been given
      a value.
     mode global_state_lookup(@atom, ?atomic)
     Examples (Continued from last):
      | ?- global_state_lookup(year, Term).
     Term = 1999
global_state_increment(Atom, Integer)
      The integer stored in the global state associated with Atom is incremented
      and the new value is returned in Integer. Fails if the global state asso-
     ciated with Atom does not contain an integer.
     mode global_state_increment(@atom, -integer)
     Examples (Continued from last):
      | ?- global_state_increment(year, Value).
      Value = 2000
```

```
global_state_decrement(Atom, Integer)
```

The integer stored in the global state associated with Atom is decremented and the new value is returned in Integer. Fails if the global state associated with Atom does not contain an integer.

```
mode global_state_decrement(@atom, -integer)
```

Examples (Continued from last):

```
| ?- global_state_decrement(year, 1999).
yes
```

3.12.4 Hash Table

The hash table is a table of terms (global to all threads), with two-level indexing: the first index being an atom and the second being an atomic. The hash table provides efficient (non-backtrackable) access/update of terms associated with index pairs.

Predicates:

```
hash_table_insert(Atom, Atomic, Term)
```

The term of the hash table associated with the index pair (Atom, Atomic) is set to Term.

mode hash_table_insert(@atom, @atomic, @term)

Example:

```
| ?- hash_table_insert(student, 1234567, info('Fred', 'Bloggs', 'BSc')).
yes
```

```
hash_table_lookup(Atom, Atomic, Term)
```

The current value indexed by (Atom, Atomic) in the hash table is unified with Term. Fails if the term associated with the index pair has not been given a value.

```
mode hash_table_lookup(@atom, @atomic, ?term)
```

Examples (Continued from last):

```
| ?- hash_table_lookup(student, 1234567, Term).
Term = info(Fred, Bloggs, BSc)
```

```
hash_table_remove(Atom, Atomic)
```

The current value (if any) indexed by (Atom, Atomic) in the hash table is removed.

```
mode hash_table_remove(@atom, @atomic)
```

Examples (Continued from last):

```
| ?- hash_table_remove(student, 1234567).
yes
| ?- hash_table_lookup(student, 1234567, Term).
no
```

hash_table_search(Fst, Snd, Term)

Return, on backtracking, each entry in the hash table that has an index pair that unifies with (Fst, Snd) and corresponding value that unifies with Term. There is no guarantee about the order in which answers are returned.

mode hash_table_search(?atom, ?atomic, ?term)

3.13 Loading Programs

Programs can be loaded into Qu-Prolog in a number of ways. If the source of the program is available, consult/1 (page 100) can be used. If the program has been compiled, it can be loaded with load/1 (page 102).

Predicates:

[Files]

A synonym for consult(Files).

consult(Files)

Read the clauses from Files into the dynamic database. Predicate definitions in Files replace all current definitions of the same name and arity. The .ql extension is added to the file name only after consult fails to locate File. consult also accepts .qle, .qg and .qge files as input. The .qle files are encoded files, the .qg files are term-expanded files and the .qge files are encoded files after term-expansion has been carried out.

reconsult(Files)

Read the clauses from Files into the current interpreted program. Predicate definitions in Files replace all current definitions of the same name and arity. The .ql extension is added to the file name only after reconsult fails to locate File.

```
fcompile(Files)
fcompile(Files, OptionList)
```

Compile the code in Files, using the compiler options given in OptionList. A .ql extension is added, if needed, to each file name in Files to give the source file while the corresponding object file has a .qo extension. The behaviour is similar to that of qc. The options fall into three categories: those that affect the behaviour of the compiler; those that affect

the storage allocated to the compiler; and those that affect the storage allocated to the executable.

```
1. Compiler Behaviour options:
   define(AtomList)
         The preprocessor behaves as if a line of the form #define A had been added to the input files for each atom A in AtomList.
         (Default: [].)
  preprocess_only(Boolean)
         Stop processing after the preprocessor phase.
         (Default: false.)
   expand_only(Boolean)
         Stop processing after the term expansion phase.
         (Default: false.)
   compile_only(Boolean)
         Stop processing after the compilation phase.
         (Default: false.)
   assemble_only(Boolean)
         Stop processing after the assembly phase.
         (Default: false.)
   object_file(File)
         If the assemble_only flag is true, then the output of the
         assembly phase, a .qo file, is placed in this File. Otherwise
         a pair of files are created to hold the final executable. These
         files are the result of linking. The first file's name is given
         by File, the other file's name is given by appending .qx to
         File.
         (Default: No default.)
   term_expand_file(File)
         Term expansion rules are given in File.
         (Default: '/dev/null'.)
   verbose(Boolean)
         Produce diagnostic output during processing.
         (Default: false.)
2. Compiler Storage Options:
   compiler_binding_trail(Integer)
         The size in kilobytes of the binding trail used by the compiler.
         (Default: 32.)
   compiler_other_trail(Integer)
         The size in kilobytes of the other trail used by the compiler.
         (Default: 32.)
   compiler_choice_point_stack(Integer)
         The size in kilobytes of the choice point stack used by the
         compiler.
         (Default: 64.)
   compiler_environment_stack(Integer)
         The size in kilobytes of the environment stack used by the
         compiler.
         (Default: 64.)
   compiler_heap(Integer)
```

```
The size in kilobytes of the heap storage used by the compiler.
                 (Default: 100.)
           compiler_scratchpad(Integer)
                 The size in kilobytes of the scratchpad storage used by the
                 compiler.
                 (Default: 2.)
           compiler_name_table(Integer)
                 The number of entries in the compiler's name table.
                 (Default: 10000.)
           compiler_ip_table(Integer)
                 The number of entries in the compiler's implicit parameter
                 (Default: 10000.)
        3. Executable Storage Options:
           executable_atom_table(Integer)
                 The number of entries in the executable's atom table.
                 (Default: 10000.)
           executable_code_area(Integer)
                 The size in kilobytes of the executable's code area.
                 (Default: 400.)
           executable_predicate_table(Integer)
                 The number of entries in the executable's predicate table.
                 (Default: 10000.)
        4. Options Affecting Both Compiler and Executable:
           string_table(Size_in_k)
                 The size in kilobytes of the string table.
                 (Default: 64.)
load(File)
      Load the object file File. Paths from QPLIBPATH and the suffix '.go' are
      added to the file name.
define_dynamic_lib(Library, PredicateList)
      The predicates in PredicateList are defined in Library.
      The declaration
      define_dynamic_lib(mylib, [p/1, q/2])
      will cause the file mylib.qo to be loaded when a call to an undefined
      p/1 or q/2 is made.
      mode define_dynamic_lib(@atom, @list(compound))
```

3.14 Debugging

The debugger is based on the Procedure Box model of execution, which views program control flow in terms of movement about the program text. The debugger prints out the instantiation states of the goals being debugged at different points of interest (also known as ports). The ports are as follows:

- call The initial invocation of a predicate for a given goal.
- exit A successful termination from the predicate.
- redo Backtracking into the predicate.
- fail Failure of the predicate with respect to the initial goal.
- throw A throw/1 (page 21) occurs out of the predicate.

Through these five ports, information about the initial call and its outcome can be obtained without knowledge of the internal processing of the predicate being debugged.

Interaction is allowed at a port if

- The debugger is in trace mode and leashing is set for that port; or
- The debugger is in debug mode, there is a spy point on the current predicate, and there are no spy conditions associated with the predicate; or
- The debugger is in debug mode, there is a spy point on the current predicate, and some spy condition associated with the predicate succeeds.

A spy condition spy_cond(Goal1, Port, Goal2) (page 106) succeeds only if Goal1 and Port unify with the debugger goal and port and Goal2 succeeds. Any bindings for variables in the debugger goal are discarded after unification with Goal1 and execution of Goal2.

It is impractical to trace through a big program step by step. Spy points provide a method to skip over part of the program and interact with the debugger at predicates which are of interest. A spy point is placed at the predicate where the control flow will be viewed.

At each port, a message in the format below is displayed.

Spy Id Depth Port: Goal ?

Spy A '+' indicates that there is a spy point at this predicate.

Id An unique identifier for this invocation.

Depth The number of ancestors for the current search path.

Port The name of the port.

Goal The goal.

If an interaction is allowed at a port, a '?' is printed and the debugger waits for a command. The available commands are given below.

С

Creep. Take a single step to the next port.

<RETURN>

The same as c.

1

Leap. Continue the execution until a spy point is reached or the program terminates.

s

Skip. Jump to the exit or the fail port of this predicate. This is valid at the call or the redo ports only.

f [id]

Fail. Fail this predicate or fail the execution to the goal given in

r [id]

Retry. Retry this predicate or the goal given in id.

< n

Print depth. Set the print depth to n (10, by default). The print depth is used to control the amount of detail printed for each goal.

d

Display. Display the current message again without using any operator property.

Write. Display the current message again using the available operator property.

p [n]

Print. Display the current message again using ${\tt n}$ or the default as the temporary print depth.

g [n]

Goals. Print the last n or all the ancestors of the current goal.

+ [arg]

Spy. Add a spy point to the current predicate. With an argument, read and add a spy condition.

Nospy. Remove the spy point and any conditions from the current predicate.

Print the current debugging status.

n

Nodebug. Switch off the debugger.

Read and execute a goal.

b

Break. Start another invocation of the interpreter.

a

Abort. Abort the current execution.

h

Help. Display a help message.

?

The same as h.

The user can tailor the actions of the debugger by defining clauses for the hook predicates debugger_hook/4 (page 108) (called at every port) and debugger_cmd_hook/5 (page 108) (called after reading a debugger command). The Goal and Port arguments of these hooks are unified with the debugger goal and port respectively. Note that unification can bind variables in the debugger goal, as well as in Goal, so hooks can affect the execution of the program being debugged. DebugState captures the current debugger state in a structure

debug_state(Spy, Id, Depth, Leash, PrintOptions).

Spy, Id and Depth give further information about the port; Leash gives the current leash state; and PrintOptions is a list of options (see write_term/[2,3] (page 41)) that should be used for any output. If the hook succeeds, Action should be an atom controlling the next action of the debugger. Possible values for Action are listed below.

interact

Continue with the normal interaction for the current port.

creep

Set the debugger mode to trace and continue execution to the next port (as if by the c command).

continue

Continue execution in the current debugger mode.

fail

Fail the current predicate (as if by the f command).

If the hook fails, the debugger interacts normally.

To aid debugging of multiple threads, debugging is turned on/off for each thread independently.

Further, if the process (typically qp) is named then a single debugger GUI will appear for each thread for which debugging is enabled.

All examples are based on debugging a simple ancestor program.

Predicates:

debugging

Display status information about the debugger.

```
| ?- debugging.
The debugger is switched to off.
Leashing at [call exit redo fail exception ] ports.
yes
```

```
spy PredicateList
      Add spy points at PredicateList, removing any associated conditions.
     mode spy @closed_list(gcomp)
     mode spy @gcomp
     Example:
      | ?- spy [male/1].
      | ?- debugging.
     The debugger is switched to off
     Spy points:
          male/1
     Leashing at [call exit redo fail exception ] ports.
spy_cond(Goal1, Port, Goal2)
     Add a condition to the spypoint for Goall's predicate; if there is no
     spypoint, create one.
     mode spy_cond(@goal, @atom, @goal)
     mode spy_cond(@goal, @var, @goal)
nospy PredicateList
     Remove spy points and conditions at PredicateList.
     mode nospy @closed_list(gcomp)
     mode nospy @gcomp
nospyall
     Remove all the spy points and conditions.
debug
     Switch on the debugger. Produce trace at spy points only. If xdebug is
     used instead then the debug GUI will start - see Section 3.25.
     Example:
      | ?- debug.
     yes
      | ?- debugging.
     The debugger is switched to debug.
     Spy points:
          male/1
     Leashing at [call exit redo fail exception ] ports.
     yes
      | ?- father(john, X).
```

```
call: male(john) ? 1
            exit: male(john) ? 1
       2
X = george;
+ 3
       2
            redo: male(john) ? 1
+ 1
       1
            fail: male(john) ? 1
+ 3
       2
            call: male(john) ? 1
       2
            exit: male(john) ? 1
+ 3
X = anne;
+ 3
       2
            redo: male(john) ? 1
+ 1
       1
            fail: male(john) ? 1
no
```

trace

Switch on the debugger. Produce trace at every interpreted clause. If xtrace is used instead then the debug GUI will start - see Section 3.25.

Example:

```
| ?- trace.
yes
| ?- debugging.
The debugger is switched to trace.
Spy points:
    male/1
Leashing at [call exit redo fail exception ] ports.
yes
| ?- father(john, X).
           call: father(john, X) ?
  1
       1
  2
            call: parent(john, X) ?
       2
           exit: parent(john, george) ?
  2
       2
+ 3
           call: male(john) ?
            exit: male(john) ?
+ 3
       2
            exit: father(john, george) ?
       1
X = george
```

leash(Mode)

Set leashing at the list of ports given in Mode. The available ports are: call, exit, redo, fail, exception.

Mode can also be one of the following:

```
none
loose call
half call, redo
tight call, redo, fail, exception
full call, exit, redo, fail, exception
mode leash(@atom)
```

```
nodebug
```

Switch off the debugger.

notrace

Switch off the debugger. It is the same as nodebug/0 (page 108).

```
with_debugging_off(Goal)
```

Execute the Goal with the debugger (debug/0 (page 106) and trace/0 (page 107)) turned off.
mode with_debugging_off(+goal)

```
debugger_hook(Goal, Port, DebugState, Action)
```

A user-defined predicate that is called (if it exists) on every debugger port.

Example:

debugger_cmd_hook(DebugCmd, DebugArg, Goal, Port, Action)

A user-defined predicate that is called (if it exists) after reading a debugger command. DebugCmd and DebugArg are the command and argument (as atoms) to be processed.

3.15 Foreign Language Interface

This interface enables procedures/functions written in another programming language to be called from Qu-Prolog. Currently, it supports C and C++. The interface can be divided into two levels as described below.

3.15.1 High Level Foreign Language Interface.

With this high level interface, arguments and function values are automatically converted between the representations in Qu-Prolog and the types used in the foreign language. The conversion is carried out by foreign/3 (page 109).

Predicates:

```
foreign_file(ObjectFile, ForeignFns)
```

The list of foreign functions, ForeignFns, which are callable from Qu-Prolog, are stored in ObjectFile. Any function that cannot be accessed should not appear in ForeignFns. The ObjectFile must have the .o extension. The file supplying this information cannot be compiled.

```
foreign(ForeignFn, ForeignSpec)
foreign(ForeignFn, Language, ForeignSpec)
```

The foreign function, ForeignFn, is written in Language, which default is C. ForeignSpec specifies the name of the predicate that will call ForeignFn. The arguments of ForeignSpec indicate how the arguments are transferred between the predicate and ForeignFn. Each of these arguments is declared by a combination of mode and a type given below.

Allowable modes

- + An argument to the function.
- A reference (pointer) argument to the function.
- [-] The function returns this argument.

Allowable types

```
integer long
float double
atom char *
```

```
load_foreign_files(ObjectFiles)
load_foreign_files(ObjectFiles, Libraries)
```

Link the ObjectFiles written in another language with the support Libraries. This "high level foreign language interface" generates interface functions between Qu-Prolog and the foreign language. The .o extension in ObjectFiles is optional.

```
mode load_foreign_files(@atom)
mode load_foreign_files(@closed_list(atom))
mode load_foreign_files(@atom, closed_list(atom))
mode load_foreign_files(@closed_list(atom), closed_list(atom))
```

```
generate_foreign_interface(ObjectFiles, Interface)
generate_foreign_interface(ObjectFiles, Libraries, Interface)
```

This predicate is used to generate low-level interface files. Interface is the root name of the interface. This predicates generates a .cc and .ql file with root Interface. The .cc file is compiled. ObjectFiles and Libraries are as above. It requires definitions for foreign_file/2 and foreign/3.

```
mode generate_foreign_interface(@atom, @atom)
```

```
mode generate_foreign_interface(@closed_list(atom), @atom)
mode generate_foreign_interface(@atom, closed_list(atom), @atom)
mode generate_foreign_interface(@closed_list(atom), closed_list(atom), @atom)
```

Consider the following example code in 'test.cc'.

```
// foreign(twice, c, twice(+ integer, [- integer])).
extern "C" long
twice(long a)
{
    return(2 * a);
}
//
// foreign(triple, c++, triple(+ float, - float)).
//
void
triple(double x, double *a)
    *a = (x * 3);
}
//
// foreign(mkfoo, 'c++', mkfoo(- atom)).
//
void mkfoo(char** a)
{
    *a = (char *)"foo";
}
```

The file is compiled with the appropriate compiler to obtain the object file.

```
g++ -c -fPIC test.cc
```

The interface is defined in test.ql with the following clauses.

```
foreign_file('test.o', [twice, triple, mkfoo]).
foreign(twice, c, twice(+ integer, [- integer])).
foreign(triple, 'c++', triple(+ float, - float)).
foreign(mkfoo, 'c++', mkfoo(- atom)).
```

When test.ql and the object file test.o is loaded, interface functions, such as those below, are generated for each function. These interface functions perform the necessary type checking and conversion.

```
#include "QuProlog.h"
extern "C" long twice(long);
extern void triple(double, double*);
extern void mkfoo(char **);
extern "C" bool
twice_interface(ForeignInterface* fi)
{
        bool result = true;
        long integer0;
        long integer1;
        Object* object0;
        Object* object1;
        Object* outarg1;
        object0 = fi->getXReg(0);
        if (!object0->isInteger())
        {
                return(false);
        }
        integer0 = object0->getNumber();
        object1 = fi->getXReg(1);
        integer1 = twice(integer0);
        outarg1 = fi->makeInteger(integer1);
        result = result && fi->unify(object1, outarg1);
        return(result);
}
extern "C" bool
triple_interface(ForeignInterface* fi)
{
        bool result = true;
        double float0;
        double float1;
        Object* object0;
        Object* object1;
        Object* outarg1;
        object0 = fi->getXReg(0);
        if (!object0->isNumber())
        {
                return(false);
        }
        if (object0->isInteger())
        {
                float0 = object0->getNumber();
        }
        else
        {
                float0 = object0->getDouble();
```

```
object1 = fi->getXReg(1);
        triple(float0, &float1);
        outarg1 = fi->makeDouble(float1);
        result = result && fi->unify(object1, outarg1);
        return(result);
}
extern "C" bool
mkfoo_interface(ForeignInterface* fi)
        bool result = true;
        char * atom0;
        Object* object0;
        Object* outarg0;
        object0 = fi->getXReg(0);
        mkfoo(&atom0);
        outarg0 = fi->makeAtom(atom0);
        result = result && fi->unify(object0, outarg0);
        return(result);
}
Here is a sample Qu-Prolog session using these foreign functions.
| ?- consult('test.ql'),
load_foreign_files('test.o'),
abolish(foreign_file/2),
abolish(foreign/3).
yes
| ?- twice(2, N).
N = 4;
| ?- triple(3.1, N).
N = 9.3;
no
| ?- mkfoo(X).
X = foo;
nο
| ?- generate_foreign_interface('test.o', test_interface).
```

The files test_interface.cc, test_interface.o and test_interface.ql are generated by the above call. test_interface.ql contains the required query to load_foreign/2 to initialize the low-level interface.

3.15.2 Low Level Foreign Language Interface

Interface functions are not generated for this interface. Operations such as dereferencing, type checking and conversions, and unification, are the responsibility of the user.

Predicates:

```
load_foreign(ObjectFiles, PredicateList)
load_foreign(ObjectFiles, PredicateList, Libraries)
```

Using the interface functions in the above example, the following line will produce the same effect as load_foreign_files('test.o') (page 109).

mode load_foreign(@closed_list(atom), @closed_list(gcomp),

```
| ?- load_foreign(['test_interface.o', 'test.o'],
[twice/2=twice_interface,
triple/2=triple_interface,
mkfoo/1 = mkfoo_interface]).
```

closed_list(atom))

3.16 Macros

The effect of macro expansions can be achieved in two ways. One is by using term expansion (page 85). The other is by using the inline declaration. The inline declarations are used by the compiler to inline code. Inlining is applied recursively by the compiler. The same directive to the runtime system also gives the interpreted code access to inline definitions.

The main difference between using term expansions and inlining is that term expansion is run as a preprocessor of the compiler, whereas inlining is done during compilation. It is therefore possible to, for example, inline code after higer-order goal unfolding and other compiler transformations.

Predicates:

```
inline(Goal1, Goal2)
inline(Goal1, Goal2, Code)
```

Declares Goal2 to be the inline expansion of Goal1. Code is code typically used to construct Goal2 from Goal1. Goal1 can be a special term of the form Term @ ArgList where Term is a term applied to the list of terms in ArgList.

The semantics for inlining is the same as for a call to Goal1 with definition Goal1: - Goal2. For compiled code this predicate call is avoided (and Goal2 replaces Goal1) where the semantics is not affected.

WARNING: For effeciency reasons, an inlined goal that is also defined as a predicate has a different behaviour for compiled and interpreted code. It is therefore best to avoid using the same name for an inlined goal and a predicate.

```
mode inline(@nonvar, @goal)
mode inline(@nonvar, @term, @goal)
```

The following examples illustrate the use of inline to add two lists of numbers pairwise.

One way to do this is to define add/3 as a predicate and then define add_lists/3 as follows.

```
add_lists(L1, L2, Result) :-
    map(add, [L1, L2, Result]).
```

A slight inefficiency of this approach is that a call from add/3 to is/2 (page 83) is made on each recursive call for map (page 118).

On the other hand, if add/3 is defined using inlining as below then this overhead is avoided.

```
?- inline(add(X,Y,Z), Z is X+Y).
```

Note that, in this case, the compiler unfolds add_lists/3 to the following (up to the choice of the introduced predicate name).

```
add_lists(L1, L2, Result) :-
    '$add_lists_1'(L1, L2, Result).
'$add_lists_1'([], [], []).
'$add_lists_1'([H1|T1], [H2|T2], [H3|T3]) :-
    H3 is H1 + H2,
    '$add_lists_1'(T1, T2, T3).
```

This example can be further extended in a generic way by using inlining to define 'anonymous' (or 'lambda') predicates as below. Once this is done add_lists/3 may be defined as follows.

```
add_lists(L1, L2, Result) :-
map(!!lambda [!x, !y, !z] (!z is !x + !y), [L1, L2, Result]).
```

The compiler will also unfold this to the code given earlier.

Anonymous predicates can be defined as follows.

The inlining of lambda terms defines beta reduction. The first three goals in the third argument of the inline declaration make the bound variables not free in each free variable occurring in the body of the lambda term. The last three goals carry out the beta reduction by constructing the required substitution, applying it, and simplifying the result.

3.17 Higher-Order Predicates

The first argument of each of these higher-order predicates is a goal with zero or more arguments missing. These arguments are filled in during processing from components of the remaining arguments of the higher-order predicate. The order of arguments is the same as the order of the remaining arguments in the higher-order predicate.

Note that any variable in HigherGoal instantiated during a call to a higher-order predicate remains instantiated throughout the computation.

Predicates:

```
List2 is List1 without the longest initial segment, whose elements satisfy HigherGoal.
```

```
mode after_with(+goal, +closed_list(term), ?closed_list(term))
Example:
```

```
| ?- after_with(atom, [a,b,1,c,d],R). R = [1, c, d]
```

build_structure(Functor, Arity, HigherGoal, Term)

Term is the structure with functor Functor and arity Arity and whose arguments are constructed using the higher order goal HigherGoal. HigherGoal is missing two arguments. The first is the position of the argument to be constructed and the second is the constructed argument. This method is preferred for constructing compound terms rather than using functor (page 60) and arg (page 60) because it avoids unnecessary occurs checks, and because it fills in the arguments with values directly (rather than by creating a structure whose arguments are new variables and then instantiating them).

mode build_structure(+term, @integer, +goal, ?compound)

Example:

```
| ?- inline(rev_arg(F,N,A), arg(N,F,A)).
     F = F
     N = N
     A = A
     | ?- build_structure(f, 3, rev_arg(g(a,b,c,d)),R).
     R = f(a, b, c)
     | ?- inline(gen_args(Prefix, Number, Result),
                  (number_codes(Number, NumberCodes),
                  atom_codes(Atom, NumberCodes),
                  atom_concat(Prefix, Atom, Result) )).
     Prefix = Prefix
     Number = Number
     Result = Result
     NumberCodes = NumberCodes
     Atom = Atom
     | ?- gen_args(arg, 2, R).
     R = arg2
     | ?- build_structure(g, 4, gen_args(arg), R).
     R = g(arg1, arg2, arg3, arg4)
filter(HigherGoal, List1, List2)
     List2 contains all the elements from List1 which satisfy HigherGoal.
     mode filter(+goal, +closed_list(term), ?closed_list(term))
     Example:
```

```
| ?- filter(atom, [a,X,1,b],R).
X = X
R = [a, b]
| ?- filter('<'(3), [-2, 8, 1, 2, 4], R).
R = [8, 4]</pre>
```

fold(HigherGoal, Identity, List, Result)

Summarise the List with HigherGoal to give Result. Identity is the value used if List is an empty list.

The same as fold_right(HigherGoal, Identity, List, Result). mode fold(+goal, +term, +closed_list(term), ?term)

Example:

```
| ?- inline(p(X,Y,Z), Z = X + Y).

X = X

Y = Y

Z = Z

| ?- fold(p, 0, [1,2,3],R).

R = 1 + (2 + (3 + 0))
```

fold_left(HigherGoal, Identity, List, Result)

Summarise the List with HigherGoal to give Result. Identity is the value used if List is an empty list. The evaluation is performed on the head of the list before the tail of the list.

mode fold_left(+goal, +term, +closed_list(term), ?term)

Example:

```
| ?- inline(p(X,Y,Z), Z = X + Y).

X = X

Y = Y

Z = Z

| ?- fold_left(p, 0, [1,2,3],R).

R = ((0 + 1) + 2) + 3
```

fold_right(HigherGoal, Identity, List, Result)

Summarise the List with HigherGoal to give Result. Identity is the value used if List is an empty list. The evaluation is performed on the tail of the list before the head of the list.

```
mode fold_right(+goal, +term, +closed_list(term), ?term)
```

Example:

```
\mid ?- inline(p(X,Y,Z), Z = X + Y).
     X = X
     Y = Y
     Z = Z
      | ?- fold_right(p, 0, [1,2,3],R).
     R = 1 + (2 + (3 + 0))
map(HigherGoal, List)
     List is a list of lists of arguments to HigherGoal. HigherGoal is applied
     in turn to the argument list constructed from the n'th elements of each
     list of arguments.
     mode map(+goal, +closed_list(list(term)))
     Example:
      \mid ?- inline(add(X,Y,Z), Z is X + Y).
     X = X
     Y = Y
     Z = Z
     | ?- map(add, [[1, 2, 3], [2, 4, 0], R]).
     R = [3, 6, 3]
      | ?- map(add(2), [[1, 2, 3], R]).
     R = [3, 4, 5]
collect_simple_terms(HigherGoal, Term, Term1, Term2)
     Summarise the simple terms (atomic or any variable) of Term into Term2
     by carrying out a top-down, left-right pass over Term. Term1 is used
     as an initial value for the summarisation. Any simple terms that cause
     HigherGoal to fail are ignored.
     mode collect_simple_terms(+goal, +term, +term, ?term)
     Example:
      | ?- inline(sum(A,B,C), (integer(A), C is A+B)).
     A = A
     B = B
     C = C
      \mid ?- collect_simple_terms(sum, f(g(2), a, 5), 0, X).
     X = 7
      | ?- inline(collect_var(A,B,C), (var(A), C = [A|B])).
     A = A
     B = B
```

| ?- collect_simple_terms(collect_var, f(g(X),a,Y), [], R).

C = C

X = X

```
Y = Y
     R = [Y, X]
      | ?- inline(build(New, Current, List), (atom(New),
                  concat_atom([Current, '-', New], List))).
     New = New
     Current = Current
     List = List
      | ?- collect_simple_terms(build, foo(g(2), a, h(bar), c),
     start, R).
     R = start-foo-g-a-h-bar-c
transform_simple_terms(HigherGoal, Term1, Term2)
     This generates a sequence of calls HigherGoal (T1, T2). T1 is instanti-
     ated to each simple term in Term1, and the result of the transformation
     should be stored in T2. Term2 is the overall result of the transformation
     mode transform_simple_terms(+goal, +term, ?term)
     Example.
      | ?- inline(inc(X,Y), (integer(X) -> Y is X+1; Y=X)).
     X = X
     Y = Y
     | ?- transform_simple_terms(inc, f(X,1,g(2)), R).
     X = X
     R = f(X, 2, g(3))
transform_subterms(HigherGoal, Term1, Term2)
     This generates a sequence of calls HigherGoal (T1, T2). T1 is instanti-
      ated to each non-variable subterm of Term1 in turn, iterating from the
     bottom up (so arguments are transformed before structures and quantifi-
     cations). Term2 is the overall result of the transformation of Term1.
     mode transform_subterms(+goal, +term, ?term)
     Example.
      | ?- inline(change(X,Y), (X = a ->
                  Y = f(a); X = f(T) \rightarrow Y = f(T, T); Y = X).
     X = X
     Y = Y
     T = T
     | ?- transform_subterms(change, g(f(f(a))), R).
```

R = g(f(f(f(a), f(a)), f(f(a), f(a))))

3.18 Implicit Parameters

Consider applications that manage internal state. Such applications include, for example, Definite Clause Grammars processors and theorem provers. In ordinary Prolog implementations, the state is typically handled by including arguments to predicates that represent input and output state information. For some applications where the state is simple, such as Definite Clause Grammars programming, these extra arguments are added by preprocessing the input program. In theorem proving applications the state is usually complex and is typically handled either by including many input/output state pairs to predicates, or by imbedding the state in a data structure for inclusion in predicates.

For processing complex states the above approaches are often clumsy and inefficient. Also, for applications such as interactive theorem provers, it is difficult to hide the internal state from users and from user tactics. Implicit parameters avoid these problems completely by providing an efficient and logically sound solution to the management of internal state.

The declarative semantics of implicit parameters can be explained in terms of a transformed program where a collection of input/output pairs of explicit parameters are added to predicates. The efficient implementation of implicit parameters is achieved via a form of backtrackable assignment.

Predicates:

```
ip_set(Name, Term)
ip_set(Name1, Name2, Term)
```

The value Term is stored in the implicit parameter Name. The value Term is stored in the implicit parameter array Name1 at offset Name2. Name2 is atomic.

The implicit parameter Name contains Term. If Name is initially unset, the value Term is stored in it. Note that variables occurring in the implicit parameter may be instantiated by the unification with Term. The implicit

```
parameter array Name1 contains Term at offset Name2. Name2 is atomic.
     mode ip_lookup(@atom, ?term)
     mode ip_lookup(@atom, @atomic, ?term)
     Example:
     | ?- ip_set(language, english), ip_lookup(language, Lang).
     Lang = english
     | ?- ip_set(weekday, 0, Day), ip_lookup(weekday, 0, 'Sunday').
     Day = Sunday
     | ?- ip_set(weekday, 1, 'Monday'), ip_lookup(weekday, 1, 'Tuesday').
ip_array_clear(Name)
     Clear the implicit parameter array associated with Name
     mode ip_array_clear(@atom)
     Example:
      | ?- ip_set(weekday, 0, 'Sunday'),
     ip_set(weekday, 1, 'Monday'),
     ip_set(weekday, 2, 'Tuesday'),
     ip_lookup(weekday, 1, Day1),
     ip_array_clear(weekday),
     ip_lookup(weekday, 1, Day2).
     Day1 = Monday
     Day2 = Day2
ip_array_init(Name, Size)
```

Initialize the implicit parameter array associated with Name giving it a size that is the smallest power of two greater or equal to Size (the default size is 128). This is typically used when it is expected that the implicit parameter array will be used to store a large number of data items. If the default size is used then access/update performance will degrade as the number of entries gets large. If the array is initialized to a size that is greater of equal to the expected maximum number of data items then the time to access/update entries will remain constant.

mode ip_array_init(@atom, @integer)

ip_array_get_entries(Name, Entries)

This predicate returns a list of the ip array indices that have a corresponding value. The entries can then be used to interate through the ip array and extract all the stored values.

The following predicates define 'methods' for a stack whose state is stored in an implicit parameter with name stack.

```
init_stack :- ip_set(stack, []).
push_stack(X) :-
    ip_lookup(stack, S),
    ip_set(stack, [X|S]).
pop_stack(X) :-
    ip_lookup(stack, [X|S]),
    ip_set(stack, S).
empty_stack :-
    ip_lookup(stack, []).
The stack should then behave as follows:
| ?- init_stack,
push_stack(4), push_stack(3), push_stack(5),
pop_stack(X), pop_stack(Y), pop_stack(Z),
write_term_list([w(X), tab(3), w(Y), tab(3), w(Z), nl]), fail.
5
    3
no
```

3.19 Unification Control

Many applications need to control unifications. For example, some theorem provers apply rewrite rules to carry out expression simplification. Such rules are often applied repeatedly until no further rewrites are applicable. Consider a rewrite system that includes the rule X and true -> X. If this rewrite rule is naively applied to the term A then infinite recursion will result. This problem can be controlled by implementing a form of one-sided unification. Applications written in Qu-Prolog can implement one-sided unification and other more sophisticated constrained unifications by 'freezing' variables. When a variable is frozen, it cannot be instantiated. Rewrite rules can be controlled by freezing the variables in the term to be simplified. This implements one-sided unification.

There are other reasons for controlling unifications in the implementation of theorem provers. One important example is when users wish to prove schematic theorems. It is usually the case that the user does not want variables appearing in the statement of the theorem to be instantiated during the proof. On the other hand, users may be happy if variables introduced during the proof (by the application of inference rules) are instantiated. Terms appearing in a proof often contain a mixture of the two kinds of variables described above. It is therefore critical that the instantiation of variables be controlled during rule applications. This is particularly important when executing tactics. Frozen variables can be used in this situation to achieve the desired result.

The "temperatures" of variables are reset on backtracking.

Predicates:

Term1 = Term2

```
Unify Term1 and Term2.
     mode +term = +term
     Example:
     | ?- A is 10, A = B.
     A = 10
     B = 10
     | ?- A is 10, B is 20, A = B.
unify_with_occurs_check(Term1, Term2)
     This is not really needed because Qu-Prolog's unification always carries
     out occurs checking. It is included for compatibility with the ISO stan-
     dard.
structural_unify(Term1, Term2)
     Unify Term1 and Term2 as structures. Quantified terms and terms with
     substitutions are treated like compound terms.
     mode structural_unify(+term, +term)
     Example:
      | ?- structural_unify([A/!x]B, [C/!y]D).
     A = C
     x = !y
     B = D
     C = C
     y = !y
     D = D
Term1 ?= Term2
     Term1 and Term2 are unifiable.
     mode @term ?= @term
     Example:
     | ?- A is 10, A ?= B.
     A = 10
     B = B
     | ?- A is 10, B is 20, A ?= B.
```

Term1 \= Term2

```
Term1 cannot unify with Term2.
     mode @term \= @term
     Example:
      \mid ?- A is 10, A \setminus= B.
     \mid ?- A is 10, B is 20, A \setminus= B.
     A = 10
     B = 20
freeze_term(Term)
freeze_term(Term, VarList)
     Freeze all the variables in Term, returning the list of newly frozen variables
     in VarList.
     mode freeze_term(@term)
     mode freeze_term(@term, ?closed_list(anyvar))
     Example:
      | ?- Term1 = f(A, B), Term2 = f(C, D),
     Term1 = Term2,
     write(Term1), nl, write(Term2), nl, fail.
     f(C, D)
     f(C, D)
      | ?- Term1 = f(A, B), Term2 = f(C, D),
     freeze_term(Term1, VarList), Term1 = Term2,
     write(Term1), nl, write(Term2), nl,
     write(VarList), nl, fail.
     f(A, B),
     f(A, B),
      [A, B]
     no
thaw_term(Term)
thaw_term(Term, VarList)
     Thaw all the variables in Term and return the newly thawed variables in
     VarList.
     mode thaw_term(+term)
     mode thaw_term(+term, -closed_list(anyvar))
freeze_var(Variable)
     Freeze Variable.
     mode freeze_var(+anyvar)
     Example:
```

```
| ?- Term1 = f(A, B), Term2 = f(C, D), freeze_var(A), Term1 = Term2,
     write(Term1), nl, write(Term2), nl, fail.
     f(A, D)
     f(A, D)
     no
thaw_var(Variable)
     Thaw a Variable.
     mode thaw_var(+anyvar)
frozen_var(Term)
      Succeed if Term is a frozen variable.
     mode frozen_var(@term)
thawed_var(Term)
     Succeed if Term is a thawed variable.
     mode thawed_var(@term)
One-sided unification may be implemented as follows.
one_sided_unify(T1, T2) :-
    freeze_term(T1, FrozenVars),
    T1 = T2
    thaw_term(FrozenVars).
```

3.20 Delayed Problem Handling

The delay mechanism suspends the execution of a goal until the variable given in delay/2 (page 125) is instantiated. When the variable is bound, all the goals associated with this variable are woken up and made ready for execution. The woken goals are executed automatically at the next goal or cut. As well as the automatic retry mechanism, the delayed problems, both woken and suspended goals, can be retried manually by one of the retry_ calls. Qu-Prolog may generate its own unification, not_free_in (page 58), and check_binder (page 59) delayed problems.

Predicates:

```
delay(Variable, Goal)
```

Goal is delayed until Variable is instantiated. If Variable is not a variable or object variable at the time of call then Goal will be called immediately.

```
mode delay(+term, +goal)
```

Example:

```
| ?- delay(X, write(X)), write(b), X=a, write(c), nl, fail.
     bac
     no
      | ?- X=a, delay(X, write(X)), write(b), write(c), nl, fail.
      abc
     no
delay_until(Term, Goal)
      Goal is delayed until the delay condition Term is satisfied.
      The possible values of Term are given below.
        • nonvar(X)
          Satisfied when X becomes a non-variable.
        • ground(X)
          Satisfied when X becomes ground.
        • bound(X)
          Satisfied when the variable (or object variable) X is bound to a term
          (including another variable or object variable).
        • identical_or_apart(X, Y)
          Satisfied when identical_or_apart/2 succeeds.
        • or(A,B)
          Satisfied when either of the delay conditions A or B is satisfied.
        • and(A,B)
          Satisfied when both of the delay conditions A or B are satisfied.
     mode delay_until(+compound, +goal)
      Example:
      | ?- delay_until(bound(X), write(X)),
              write(a), X = Y, write(b), Y = f(Z), write(c),
              Z=a, write(d), nl, fail.
      aYbcd
     no
      | ?- delay_until(nonvar(X), write(X)),
              write(a), X = Y, write(b), Y = f(Z),
              write(c), Z=a, write(d), nl, fail.
     abf(Z)cd
     no
      | ?- delay_until(ground(X), write(X)),
```

abcf(a)d

no

```
get_delays(DelayList)
     DelayList is the list of delayed problems.
     mode get_delays(?closed_list(goal))
     Example:
      | ?- delay_until(ground(X), write(X)), get_delays(L).
     L = [delay_until(ground(X), write(X))]
     provided:
     delay_until(ground(X), write(X))
      | ?- [A/!x]B = 3, get_delays(L).
     x = !x
     B = B
     L= [[A/!x]B = 3]
     provided:
      [A/!x]B = 3
     Note from this example that the interpreter displays all delays related to
     the query in the provided section.
get_var_delays(Var, DelayList)
     DelayList is the list of delayed problems associated with Var.
     mode get_var_delays(@var, ?closed_list(goal))
get_unify_delays(DelayList)
     DelayList is the list of delayed unification problems.
     mode get_unify_delays(?closed_list(goal))
get_unify_delays_avoid(DelayList, Avoid)
     DelayList is the list of delayed unification problems other than those in
     Avoid. This predicate is useful for situations where some computation
     might generate new delayed unification problems. This predicate can be
     used to extract any new problems.
     mode get_unify_delays_avoid(?closed_list(goal), +closed_list(goal))
     Example:
      | ?- get_unify_delays(0ld), some_computation, get_unify_delays_avoid(New, 0ld).
retry_delays
     Retry all the unsolved delayed problems.
     Example:
```

```
write(c), nl, fail.
     bXc
     no
      | ?- [A/!x]B = 3, retry_delays, get_delays(L).
     A = A
     x = !x
     B = B
     L = [[A/!x]B = 3]
     provided:
      [A/!x]B = 3
      |?-[A/!x]B = 3, A = 2, retry_delays, get_delays(L).
     x = !x
     B = 3
     \Gamma = []
retry_var_delays(Var)
     Retry all the delayed problems associated with Var.
retry_woken_delays
retry_woken_delays(Goal)
     Retry all the delayed problems which are woken up by unification and
     then execute Goal. These predicates are generally not needed in appli-
     cations as woken delays will be automatically retried at the next call.
collect_constraints(VarList, List1, List2, List3)
     List1, List2, and List3 contain lists of constraints associated with
     the variables in VarList. List1 gives the distinctness information as
     not_free_in/2 (page 58) goals, while other delayed not_free_in/2 goals
     are in List2. List3 contains all the remaining delayed problems.
     mode collect_constraints(@closed_list(anyvar), -closed_list(goal),
           -closed_list(goal), -closed_list(goal))
     Example:
      |?-[A/!x]B = 3, !x not_free_in f(A, !y),
           delay\_until(ground(C), A = 2),
          collect_constraints([C, !x, !y], List1, List2, List3).
     A = A
     x = !x
     B = B
     y = !y
     C = C
```

| ?- delay(X, write(X)), write(b), retry_delays,

```
List1 = [!x not_free_in [!y], !y not_free_in [!x]]
List2 = [!x not_free_in A]
List3 = [[A/!x]B = 3, delay_until(ground(C), A = 2)]
provided:
[A/!x]B = 3
delay_until(ground(C), A = 2)
!x not_free_in A
!y not_free_in [!x]
!x not_free_in [!y]
```

3.21 Program State

Information about the program state can be obtained via the following predicates.

```
Predicates:
```

```
current_atom(Atom)
    Atom is a currently defined atom.
    mode current_atom(?atom)

current_predicate(PredicateName/Arity)

PredicateName with Arity is a currently defined predicate.
    mode current_predicate(?compound)

Example:
    | ?- current_predicate(foobar/1).
    no
    | ?- current_predicate(current_predicate/1).
    yes

get_args(List)

List is the list of arguments supplied at the invocation of the application.
    mode get_args(?closed_list(ground))

main(List)
```

A user defined predicate. It is the default entry point for applications. List is the list of command line arguments given at the invocation of the application. These are arguments other than the arguments used to set the area sizes and name the process. The command line arguments are the arguments following '-' or arguments without a preceding '-'.

```
predicate_property(Head, Property)
```

```
The predicate specified by Head has Property (built_in<KBD>, <KBD>multifile<KBD>,<KBD>dynamic (KBD) (K
                                static, foreign).
                               mode predicate_property(?goal, ?atom)
                                Example:
                                 | ?- predicate_property(true, Value).
                                Value = built_in
                                 | ?- assert((father(A, B) :- male(A), parent(A, B))).
                               A = A
                               B = B
                                 | ?- predicate_property(father(A, B), Value).
                                A = A
                               B = B
                                Value = dynamic
statistics
statistics(Key, Value)
statistics(ThreadID, Key, Value)
```

The first predicate displays a summary of the statistical information on the current output.

The remaining two predicates return in Value the statistics for Key. If ThreadID is given then that statistic for that thread is returned. The three argument version is of most use for gathering thread specific statistics of another thread. Fails if ThreadID is not a current thread.

The possible values for Key are given below.

• global_stack

Value: [Used, Free, MaxUsage].

Unit: words.

Meaning: Used and free space and the maximum usage in the global stack (heap).

• scratchpad

Value: [Used, Free, MaxUsage].

Unit: words.

Meaning: Used and free space and the maximum usage in the scratch-pad stack.

• local_stack

Value: [Used, Free, MaxUsage].

Unit: words.

Meaning: Used and free space and the maximum usage in the local (environment) stack.

• choice

Value: [Used, Free, MaxUsage].

Unit: words.

Meaning: Used and free space and the maximum usage in the choice point stack.

• binding_trail

Value: [Used, Free, MaxUsage].

Unit: words.

Meaning: Used and free space and the maximum usage in the binding trail.

• other_trail

Value: [Used, Free, MaxUsage].

Unit: words.

Meaning: Used and free space and the maximum usage in the other

trail.

• code

Value: [Used, Free].

Unit: words.

Meaning: Used and free space in the code area.

• string

Value: [Used, Free].

Unit: words.

Meaning: Used and free space in the string area.

• name

Value: [Used, Free].

Unit: words.

Meaning: Used and free entries in the name table.

• ip_table

Value: [Used, Free].

Unit: words.

Meaning: Used and free entries in the implicit parameter table.

• atom

Value: [Used, Free].

Unit: words.

Meaning: Used and free entries in the atom table.

• predicate

Value: [Used, Free]

Unit: words.

Meaning: Used and free entries in the predicate table.

• runtime

Value: [Start, Last].

Unit: milliseconds.

Meaning: Runtime since the start, and last runtime statistics/2

call.

Example:

?- statistics.				
Data Area	Total	Used	Free	Max Usage
global stack	102400	161	102239	717
scratchpad	2560	0	2560	0
local stack	65536	101	65435	107
choice stack	65536	107	65429	171
binding trail	32768	0	32768	3
other trail 3	32768	0	32768	0
code area	409600	321343	88257	321343
string area	65536	51337	14199	51337
number table	4096	840	3256	
name table	32768	0	32768	
IP table	32768	3	32765	
atom table	32768	3301	29467	
predicate table	32768	2286	30482	
runtime	120 ms			
yes				
?- statistics(code, Value).				
Value = [321343, 88257]				

3.22 Exception Handling

There are two kinds of exception handlers: local and global. When an exception is raised (whether by the system or by user code), the current handler state is checked. If a local handler for that exception is in scope, the innermost such handler is called; if the handler returns, execution continues after the with_local_exception_handler/3 (page 136) call. Otherwise, if a global handler for the exception has been defined, the most recent matching handler is called. If the handler returns, execution continues after the goal that raised the exception (unless the severity of the exception forbids that). If neither a local or global handler for the exception is defined, the default action is taken: this default action is to throw an exception term.

Because of problems with signal handling in POSIX threads the only signal that is caught by Qu-Prolog is SIGINT. All other signals have their default behaviour. The SIGINT signal is passed to exception/1 (page 132) for handling.

When a SIGINT is detected the system forks a Qu-Prolog thread to handle the signal.

Because local exception handlers are thread specific then a local exception handler cannot trap SIGINT signals. The Qu-Prolog interpreter catches thrown exceptions (printing a suitable error message) and also catches ctrlC_reset thrown by a reset in the default SIGINT handler.

Predicates:

exception(Data)

Raise an exception. Exceptions are represented by terms of the form ExceptionKind(Severity, Goal, Message, ...).

Severity is an atom indicating how severe the exception is (which determines the default and minimum actions for that exception): see exception_severity/3 (page 135). Goal is the goal being executed when the exception happened. Message determines the message to display by default when that error happens: see get_exception_message/2 (page 136). Each ExceptionKind will have other arguments giving information specific to that kind. The following built-in exceptions have been defined.

- context_error(Severity, Goal, Message)
 Goal appeared in the wrong context.
- declaration_error(Severity, Goal, Message)
 A missing declaration.
- dynamic_code_error(Severity, Goal, Message)
 An attempt to assert a clause for a static predicate.
- exception_error(Severity, Goal, Message)
 A problem was detected with an exception handler. Goal is the exception call that lead to the problem.
- instantiation_error(Severity, Goal, Message, ArgNo, Modes)
 ArgNo is the argument number (of Goal) where the error was detected. Modes is a list of mode declarations giving the allowable modes for Goal.
- permission_error(Severity, Goal, Message)
 A permission error occurred when opening a stream.
- range_error(Severity, Goal, Message, ArgNo, Range)
 ArgNo is the argument number (of Goal) where the error was detected. Range is a term indicating the expected range.
- signal(Severity, Goal, Message, Name)
 Name is the name of the signal. Under Unix, this is an atom like 'SIGINT', 'SIGXCPU' etc.
- stream_error(Severity, Goal, Message, Stream)
 Stream is the stream being manipulated by the erroneous goal.
- syntax_error(Severity, Goal, Message, Stream, StreamPos0, StreamPosN, LineNoO, LineNoN, Tokens, TokensPos)
 Stream is the stream with the syntax error.

StreamPosO and StreamPosN give the stream position at the start and end of the term with the syntax error.

LineNoO and LineNoN give the line number at the start and end of the term with the syntax error.

Tokens is the list of tokens that could not be parsed.

TokensPos is the index into Tokens where the error was detected.

- type_error(Severity, Goal, Message, ArgNo, Modes)
 ArgNo is the argument number (of Goal) where the error was detected. Modes is a list of mode declarations giving the allowable modes for Goal.
- undefined_predicate(Severity, Goal, Message)
 The called predicate is undefined.

The possible values for Severity are given below. The default action will be done (after printing a message) if no handler is found. The minimum action will be done if the user handler returns.

information

Default: true. Minimum: true.

• warning

Default: true. Minimum: true.

• recoverable

Default: fail. Minimum: true (Note 1).

• unrecoverable

Default: fail. Minimum: fail (Note 2).

fatal

Default: halt. Minimum: halt (Note 3).

Notes:

- 1. A handler for a recoverable error should succeed only if it has achieved the effect of Goal in some way.
- 2. A handler for an unrecoverable error may fail or throw.
- 3. A handler for a fatal error may throw, but should normally halt the program.

Messsage is typically a list of the form used for write_term_list. mode exception(+compound)

Example:

Recoverable error: missing declaration for some silly type $\ensuremath{\text{no}}$

Fatal error: type error in dwarf(happy) at argument 1
 allowable modes are [dwarf(+ grumpy)]

exception_exception(Goal)

```
Raise an exception_error exception for Goal. The same as
     exception(exception_error(unrecoverable, Goal, default)) (page
     132).
     mode exception_exception(+goal)
     Example:
     | ?- exception_exception(Goal).
     Unrecoverable error: exception error while handling Goal
     nο
instantiation_exception(Goal, N, PredicateMode)
instantiation_exception(Goal, N, PredicateMode, AbstractType)
     Raise an instantiation_error exception for Goal with PredicateMode
     at argument N. The type of this argument should be AbstractType.
     mode instantiation_exception(+goal, @integer,
           @closed_list(gcomp))
     mode instantiation_exception(+goal, @integer,
           @closed_list(gcomp), @ground)
     Example:
     | ?- instantiation_exception(goal(Arg1, Arg2), 2,
     [goal(-integer, +goal), goal(+integer, -goal)]).
     Recoverable error: instantiation error in goal(Arg1, Arg2) at argument 2
       allowable modes are [goal(- integer, + goal), goal(+ integer, - goal)]
     no
type_exception(Goal, N, PredicateMode)
type_exception(Goal, N, PredicateMode, AbstractType)
     Raise a type_error exception for Goal with PredicateMode at argument
     N. The type of this argument should be AbstractType.
     mode type_exception(+goal, @integer, @closed_list(compound))
     mode type_exception(+goal, @integer, @closed_list(compound), @atom)
     Example:
     | ?- type_exception(dwarf(2), 1, [dwarf(+dwarf_type)], dwarf_type).
     Unrecoverable error: type error in dwarf(happy) at argument 1
       expected type dwarf_type
     nο
exception_severity(Data, Action1, Action2)
     The default and minimum actions for exception Data are Action1 and
     Action2, respectively.
     mode exception_severity(+compound, ?atom, ?atom)
     Example:
```

```
| ?- exception_severity(exception_error(recoverable, G, M),
          Min, Max).
     G = G
     M = M
     Min = fail
     Max = true
      | ?- exception_severity(exception_error(fatal, G, M), Min, Max).
     G = G
     M = M
     Min = halt
     Max = halt
get_exception_message(Data, Msg)
     The default message for exception Data is Msg.
     If user_exception_message(Data, Msg) succeeds, the result is used as
      the message. If the Msg argument of Data is a list of terms, it is used
     as the message. Otherwise, a message is constructed according to the
     particular exception type. In any case the resulting Msg is a suitable
     second argument for write_term_list/[1,2] (page 43).
     mode get_exception_message(+compound, ?closed_list(term))
     Example:
      | ?- get_exception_message(type_error(Sev, Goal, Msg, Arg, Mode),
          Message), write_term_list(Message).
     Information: type error in Goal at argument Arg
        allowable modes are Mode
     Sev = information
     Goal = Goal
     Msg = default
     Arg = Arg
     Mode = Mode
     Message = [Information: , type error in , w(Goal),
                                   allowable modes are , w(Mode), nl]
     at argument , w(Arg), nl,
with_local_exception_handler(Goal1, Data, Goal2)
     Set up Goal2 as a local handler for exception Data, then call Goal1.
     mode with_local_exception_handler(+goal, +compound, +goal)
     Consider an application where certain arithmetic evaluations are to re-
     cover from such errors by returning 0. This can be achieved using the
     following definition.
     Example (assuming the following predicate definition):
      eval(Expr, Result) :-
```

```
with_local_exception_handler(Result is Expr,
          instantiation_error(_, is(_,_),_,_,),
          Result = 0).
     | ?- X is Y+1.
     Recoverable error: instantiation error in _FA is Y + 1 at argument 2
       allowable modes are [? number is @ gcomp, ? number is @ number]
     \mid ?- eval(Y+1,X).
     Y = Y
     X = 0
add_global_exception_handler(Data, Goal)
     Add Goal as a global handler for exception Data. If an exception match-
     ing Data happens and is not caught by any local handler or any later
     global handler, Goal will be called (with no arguments). See Section
     3.11.
     mode add_global_exception_handler(@compound, @goal)
     Example:
     ?- add_global_exception_handler(
       instantiation_error(_, is(R,_),_,_,_), R = 0).
     | ?- X is Y+1.
     Y = Y
     X = 0
remove_global_exception_handler(Data, Goal)
     Remove the most recent global exception handler matching Data and
     Goal.
     mode remove_global_exception_handler(?compound, ?goal)
     Example (Continued from last):
      | ?- remove_global_exception_handler(instantiation_error(_,
       is(_,_),_,_,), _).
     | ?- Y is X +1.
     Recoverable error: instantiation error in _103 is X + 1 at argument 2
        allowable modes are [? integer is @ gcomp, ? integer is @ integer]
     no
default_exception_handler(Data)
     Perform the default exception handler for Data (see exception/1 (page
     132) for the possible values for Data). The default handler typically
     throws an exception term.
     mode default_exception_handler(+compound)
```

```
default_exception_error(Data)
```

Write the default error message for the given exception data to standard error.

```
mode default_exception_error(+compound)
```

```
default_signal_handler(Signal)
```

Execute the default handler for Signal. In the current implementation, if the signal is SIGINT then the default handler produces a menu of choices for how to proceed.

```
mode default_signal_handler(@atom)
```

The following example shows how to declare a signal handler that responds to a SIGINT signal by displaying a message and continuing.

```
?- add_global_exception_handler(signal(recoverable, _, _, 'SIGINT'),
    write_msg).
write_msg :-
    write('You can''t kill me'),nl.
```

Because the signal handler executes in a special thread it does not have access to the state of any of the other threads. The following example shows how to declare a signal handler that is specific to the main thread (thread 0). It is assumed that my_handler is a defined predicate to be called in the main thread when SIGINT is detected.

```
?- add_global_exception_handler(signal(recoverable, _, _, 'SIGINT'),
    thread_push_goal(0, my_handler)).
```

It is possible to write the SIGINT handler so that local exception handlers can be used to indirectly trap SIGINT signals. For example, the predicate my_handler could be defined as follows.

```
my_handler :-
    exception(my_exception(_,_,_)).
```

If the following call is made then the local exception handler will respond to SIGINT.

```
with_local_exception_handler(MyGoal, my_exception(_,_,), ExceptGoal)
```

3.23 Multiple Threads

This section describes predicates for creating and managing threads within a single Qu-Prolog process. All threads have a symbolic name (an atom).

Predicates:

```
thread_set_symbol(Name)
      Set the symbolic name for this thread to Name. Fails if the name is already
     taken or is self or pedro.
     mode thread_set_symbol(@atom)
     Example:
      | ?- thread_set_symbol(foo).
thread_symbol(Name)
      Returns the symbolic Name of the current thread.
     mode thread_symbol(-atom)
     Example (Continued from last):
      | ?- thread_symbol(Symbol).
      Symbol = foo
thread_fork(ThreadName, Goal)
thread_fork(ThreadName, Goal, RootName)
thread_fork(ThreadName, Goal, Sizes)
thread_fork(ThreadName, Goal, Rootname, Sizes)
```

Creates a new thread called ThreadName and sets its goal to be Goal. ThreadName cannot be the name of any existing threads and cannot use the names self or pedro. Use the current defaults for the sizes of the data areas unless otherwise specified in Sizes. The call will fail if the thread cannot be created, if the name is unavailable, if the goal cannot be set or if the supplied sizes are erroneous. Note that the new thread is placed just before the creator thread in the run queue and so does not obtain a timeslice until just before the creator thread gets its next turn.

If ThreadName is a variable at the time of call then the system will generate a name. If you wish to generate your own thread names based on a root name then use the RootName (an atom). The system will generate a name which is the root name followed by an integer. Note that such names will be reused (i.e. the name given to a now-terminated thread can be given to a new thread). You need to be careful because the thread handle will be reused and so messages to the terminated thread will be picked up by the new thread with the same handle.

Possible items for inclusion in Sizes are:

• choice_size(Integer)

Integer is the size of the choice stack in K words.

Default: 64

```
• env_size(Integer)
    Integer is the size of the environment stack in K words.
    Default: 64
  • heap_size(Integer)
    Integer is the size of the heap in K words.
    Default: 400
  • binding_trail_size(Integer)
    Integer is the size of the binding trail in K words.
    Default: 32
  • other_trail_size(Integer)
    Integer is the size of the other trail in K words.
    Default: 32
  • scratchpad_size(Integer)
    Integer is the size of the scratchpad heap in K words.
    Default: 100
  • name_table_size(Integer)
    Integer is the size of the name table.
    Default: 10000
  • ip_table_size(Integer)
    Integer is the size of the IP table.
    Default: 10000
thread_fork(?atom, @gcomp)
thread_fork(?atom, @gcomp, @closed_list(compound)
Example:
| ?- thread_fork(myThread,
    (repeat, Msg <<- Addr:_,</pre>
    write_term_list(['Recieved: ', w(Msg), ' from: ',
                       w(Addr), nl]), fail)
    ).
Msg = Msg
Addr = Addr
| ?- 'hello world' ->> myThread, fail.
| ?- Recieved: hello world from: thread0
(A is 10 + 5) ->> myThread, fail.
| ?- Recieved: A is 10 + 5 from: thread0
```

The message communication predicates $<\!\!\!-$ and $-\!\!\!>$ are described in Section 3.24

Note that the execution of myThread's goal is independent from the succes or failure of any other thread, and its result is written to standard output

after the completion of the query in the initial thread (thread0). Thus the message appears next to the prompt, while the next query is written on the line below.

```
thread_is_thread(Thread)
```

Succeeds iff Thread is a valid thread ID and the thread that it refers to exists.

```
mode thread_is_thread(+thread_id)
```

Examples (Continued from last):

```
| ?- thread_is_thread(foo). \% the main thread
yes
| ?- thread_is_thread(myThread).
yes
| ?- thread_is_thread(aaa).
no
```

thread_is_initial_thread

Succeeds iff the current thread is an initial thread. The main thread is an initial thread.

```
mode thread_is_initial_thread
```

```
thread_exit
thread_exit(Thread)
```

End execution of the current thread or the specified Thread. Fails if Thread is not a current thread.

```
mode thread_exit
mode thread_exit(+thread_id)
```

thread_push_goal(Thread, Goal)

Push Goal to the front of the current conjunction of goals on the specified Thread. This predicate is used in the default handler for SIGINT. The given thread must be different from the thread in which this call is made. Fails if Thread is not a current thread.

```
mode thread_push_goal(+thread_id, +term)
```

```
thread_atomic_goal(Goal)
```

Call Goal with multi-threading turned off. Multi-threading is turned back on when Goal exits (either by success or failure). This predicate has the effect of making Goal atomic with respect to multi-threading.

```
mode thread_atomic_goal(+term)
```

```
thread_wait
thread_wait(Conditions)
```

Wait on the default set of conditions or on the given set of Conditions. Execution resumes when any condition is satisfied. If a condition isn't specified, its default is used.

The available conditions are:

• db(Boolean)

Wait on any database change (including changes to the global state and hash table).

default: true

timeout(N)

The call will wait for N seconds before continuing.

default: block

Note: A timeout of block means that the thread will never timeout. Currently, if the conditions are set to false, false and block then the thread can never be woken.

```
mode thread_wait
  mode thread_wait(+closed_list(compound))
thread_wait_on_goal(Goal)
thread_wait_on_goal(Goal, Options)
```

Options is a list containing:

- at most one occurrence of a term of the form wait_preds(PredList) where PredList is a list of terms of the form P/N or of the form P/N-Stamp where Stamp is a database stamp see get_predicate_timestamps (page ??)
- at most one occurrence of a term of the form wait_for(Secs);/LI;
- at most one occurrence of a term of the form retry_every(Secs);/LI;
- at most one of the above two terms

Goal is first tried (unless wait_preds(PredList) includes stamps), and if it succeeds, then thread_wait_on_goal succeeds. Otherwise, thread_wait_on_goal blocks and waits for the database to change before retrying Goal. If wait_preds(PredList) is given as an option then it waits until one of the listed predicates change. If wait_for(Secs) is given and Goal is not successfully retried within the given number of seconds then thread_wait_on_goal fails. If retry_every(Secs) is given then Goal is retried at least every Secs seconds, even if there is no change to the dynamic database.

Note that if the supplied goal produces a side-effect and then fails, then the side-effect will be produced each time the database is modified. Also note that, if wait_each(Secs) is given, one way the goal could succeed without a change to the database is if the Prolog state changed in another way, for example by the use of random or because of a message or socket event.

```
mode thread_wait_on_goal(+term)
mode thread_wait_on_goal(+term, @list(terms))
```

```
thread_sleep(Time_Out)
      This is the same as
      thread_wait([timeout(Time_Out), db(false)]).
     mode thread_sleep(+integer)
thread_sleep_until(Time)
      This is similar to thread_sleep except that the argument is the time at
      which the thread should wake as the number of seconds since the Unix
      epoch. See realtime/[1] (page 155).
      mode thread_sleep_until(+integer)
thread_defaults(DefaultList)
      Get the values for the default sizes of data areas used when a new thread
      is created
      The entries returned in DefaultList are the same as for thread_fork/[3,4]
      (page 139).
     mode thread_defaults(-closed_list(compound)
thread_set_defaults(DefaultList)
      Set the values for the default sizes of data areas used when a new thread
      is created.
      The items allowed in DefaultList are the same as for thread_fork/[3,4]
      (page 139).
     mode thread_set_defaults(+closed_list(compound)
thread_errno(Errno)
```

Returns the current errno for this thread. mode thread_errno(-integer)

thread_yield

The thread gives up its timeslice. mode thread_yield

3.24**Interprocess Communication**

Qu-Prolog supports high-level interprocess communication using the Pedro server. Pedro supports both subscription/notification and peer-to-peer messages. A Qu-Prolog process can connect to the Pedro server and then send messages to and receive messages from other Pedro clients.

The reader is referred to the Pedro reference manual for further details.

For peer-to-peer messages addresses (handles) are used to determine the recepient of a message, and the received message will be accompanied by the address of the sender and a reply-to address if required.

A handle is of the form ThreadName: ProcessName@MachineName where the components are respectively the name of the thread, the registered name of the process and the name of the machine on which the process is running.

When specifying addresses the handle can be used, but if the address is for a process on the same machine then the machine name can be elided. Further, if the address is for a thread on the same process then the process name can also be elided. The special address self is the shorthand for the address of this thread.

For non-Qu-Prolog processes for which the thread name is not relevant, handles can be of the form ProcessName@MachineName. If a process uses such a handle when sending a message to a Qu-Prolog process then the initial thread (thread0) will receive the message. If the thread name is a variable then all running threads on the process will receive the message.

It is also possible, when sending a message, to use a handle with either the process name or the machine name being a variable. If the process name is a variable all registered processes on that machine will receive the message. If the machine name is a variable all registered processes with that name (on any machine) will receive the message. If both are variables then the message will be sent to all registered processes on all machines that have registered processes.

All messages (both notifications and peer-to-peer), together with address information, received by a thread are placed in a message queue for that thread. A notification received by a thread that is not a peer-to-peer message will get the handle pedro

```
Predicates:
```

```
pedro_connect
pedro_connect(Machine)
pedro_connect(Machine, Port)
```

Connect to an Pedro server. Machine is the machine on which the Pedro server is running (default localhost) and Port is the port on which the Pedro server is listening (default 4550).

```
mode pedro_connect
mode pedro_connect(@atom)
mode pedro_connect(@atom, @integer)
Example:

| ?- pedro_connect.
| ?- pedro_connect(fred).
| ?- pedro_connect(fred, 4999).

pedro_disconnect
Disconnect from the Pedro server.
```

mode pedro_disconnect

```
pedro_is_connected
```

Succeeds if and only if the process is connected to Pedro. ${\tt mode\ pedro_is_connected}$

pedro_register(Name)

Register Name with the Pedro server. The process needs to be connected first. This name is used as part of the address of this process for peer-to-peer messages. If the process is started with the -Aname switch then the process connects with the Pedro server and registers the supplied name. mode pedro_register(@atom)

pedro_deregister

Deregisters the current name with the Pedro server. mode pedro_deregister

pedro_is_registered

Succeeds if and only if the process is registered with Pedro. mode pedro_is_registered

pedro_subscribe(Head, Body, ID)

Subscribe to notifications which unify with Head and satisfy the goal Body. The Pedro reference manual lists the goals that can be used in Body. If the subscription succeeds ID will be instantiated to the ID for this subscription. This ID is used when unsubscribing. mode pedro_subscribe(@compound, @goal, ?integer)

pedro_unsubscribe(ID)

Remove the subscription with the supplied ID. mode pedro_unsubscribe(@integer)

pedro_notify(T)

Sends the compound term T as a notification. mode pedro_notify(@compound)

thread_handle(Handle)

Handle is the handle (peer-to-peer address) of this thread.
mode thread_handle(?handle)

same_handle(Handle1, Handle2)

This is true if Handle1 and Handle2 represent the same handle. Handle1 must be ground at the time of call and be an handle. mode same_handle(@handle, ?handle)

```
ipc_send(Message, ToAddress)
ipc_send(Message, ToAddress, OptList)
```

Send Message to ToAddress. The options supplied in OptList will determine the actions taken during sending.

The only available option is:

• remember_names(Value)

Remember the names of the variables in Message.

Default: true.

```
mode ipc_send(+term, @handle)
  mode ipc_send(+term, @handle, @handle)
  mode ipc_send(+term, @handle, @handle, +closed_list(compound))
ipc_peek(Message)
ipc_peek(Message, FromAddress)
```

Examine the incoming message queue of this thread for a message that will unify with Message and an address that will unify with FromAddress. The options supplied in OptList will determine the actions taken on peeking at the messages in the queue.

Address unification is done via same_handle/2 and so shortened forms of handles can be given in the address patterns.

The available options are:

ipc_peek(Message, FromAddress, OptList)

• timeout(Value)

Value is either block, poll or a number. If Value is block then the call delays until a message arrives. If Value is poll then the call fails immediately if no message is in the queue. If Value is a number, N, then the call will wait N seconds for a message, and if no matching message arrives in that time the call fails.

Default: block

remember_names(Value)

Remember the names of variables in the incoming Message

Default: true

```
mode ipc_peek(?term)
  mode ipc_peek(?term, ?handle)
  mode ipc_peek(?term, ?handle, +closed_list(compound))
ipc_recv(Message)
ipc_recv(Message, FromAddress)
ipc_recv(Message, FromAddress, OptList)
```

Attempt to unify Message with a message from the thread's message queue if possible. FromAddress will be unified with the address of the sender of the message. The available options are identical to those available with ipc_peek/4 (page 146).

```
mode ipc_recv(?term)
     mode ipc_recv(?term, ?handle)
     mode ipc_recv(?term, ?handle, +closed_list(compound))
Examples (of the above four predicates):
| ?- thread_handle(MyHandle),
ipc_send('Hello World', MyHandle, []).
MyHandle = thread0 : foo @ bloggs
| ?- ipc_peek(Msg, FromHandle).
Msg = Hello World
FromHandle = thread0 : foo @ bloggs
| ?- ipc_recv(Msg, Th:PID).
Msg = Hello World
Th = thread0
PID = foo
Msg ->> Address
     Send Msg to Address.
     mode @term ->> @handle
Msg <<- Address
     Read a message from the thread's message queue and set Address to the
     senders address.
     mode ?term <<- ?handle</pre>
Msg <<= Address
     Search the thread's message queue for a message that will unify with Msg
     and Address.
     mode ?term <<= ?handle</pre>
Examples (Of the above three predicates):
| ?- 'Other World' ->> self.
yes
| ?- Msg <<- Th:_.
Msg = Hello World
Th = thread0
| ?- 'Other World' <<= self.
yes
broadcast (Term)
     Send Term as a message to all current threads within this process.
```

mode broadcast(+term)

```
message_choice(ChoiceGoals)
message_choice(ChoiceGoals;timeout(T) -> TimeoutGoal)
```

ChoiceGoals takes the form:

```
Term1 -> Goal1; Term2 -> Goal2; ...; TermN -> GoalN
```

Term1 to TermN are either message patterns or of the form Msg::Goal where Msg is a message pattern and Goal is a goal (for compatibility with logtalk ?? can be used instead of ::). Message patterns take the form Msg <<- Addr. Where timeout(T) -> TimeoutGoal appears it should be last as any subsequent choices are ignored.

Messages in the incoming message queue are tested against the test terms Term1 to TermN. The first message to match against the test terms and the first such matching test term are chosen.

The message is removed from the message queue, alternatives are cut and the goal Goali corresponding to the chosen term Termi is called.

If no matching messages are found then the call suspends until another message arrives or until the (optional) timeout is reached, in which case the TimeoutGoal is called.

```
mode message_choice(+term)
```

Example:

```
| ?- msg(apple, orange) ->> self.
yes
| ?- msg(pear, orange) ->> self.
| ?- msg(grape, grape) ->> self.
| ?- msg(pear, grape) ->> self.
| ?- repeat, message_choice((
    (msg(apple, _) <<- _) -> (write('Apple Pie'), nl, fail);
    (msg(_, orange) <<- _) -> (write('Orange Juice'), nl, fail);
    (msg(F1, F2) <<- _)::(F1==F2) -> (write('Matching Fruit'), nl, fail);
    timeout(5) -> (write('No (more) matching messages'), nl)
    )).
Apple Pie
Orange Juice
Matching Fruit
No (more) matching messages
F1 = F1
F2 = F2
```

pedro_address(IPAddress)

IPAddress is the IP address of the Pedro server with which the process is connected.

mode pedro_address(?atom)

```
pedro_port(Port)
```

Port is the port used by the Pedro server with which the process is connected.

mode pedro_port(?integer)

3.25 Graphical User Interface

Qu-Prolog comes with a GUI built on the QT libraries. The program xqp is a GUI interface to qp built on these libraries. The program xqpdebug is a GUI interface to the debugger also using QT. If a qp process is registered with Pedro then starting the debugger using xtrace or xdebug will cause the xqpdebug interface to start. This debugger is specific to the thread that started the debugger. It is possible to start debuggers in serveral threads.

3.26 Garbage Collection

Garbage collection of the heap (global stack) is triggered when the heap becomes over 90% full or by making a call to gc. If the garbage collector does not cause the heap to drop below 90% full then the process terminates with a heap overflow error.

Note that the garbage collector may "thrash" if it only recovers enough space for the heap to drop just below 90% full.

Predicates:

gc

Trigger the garbage collector.

3.27 TCP/IP

It is expected that most communications between processes will be carried out using Pedro communication. Where communication with applications such as FTP or HTTP servers are required, communications using sockets may be needed. The predicates described in this section provide support for basic socket communication.

A simple example using these predicates is given in the examples directory.

Predicates:

```
tcp_server(Socket, Port)
tcp_server(Socket, Port, IPAddress)
```

Open a socket using the specified Port and IPAddress. This call is intended for setting up a socket that will be used in the server end of some processing relationship. If Port is zero then some unused port will

```
be chosen.
     mode tcp_server(-integer, +integer)
     mode tcp_server(-integer, +integer, +integer)
tcp_client(Port, IPAddress, Socket)
      Open a socket using the specified Port and IPAddress. This call is
     intended for setting up a socket that will be used in the client end of
     some processing relationship.
     mode tcp_client(+integer, +integer, -integer)
tcp_open(Socket)
      Open a socket.
     mode tcp_open(-integer)
tcp_close(Socket)
      Close a socket. This closes an opened input (output) stream for this
     mode tcp_close(+integer)
tcp_bind(Socket, Port)
tcp_bind(Socket, Port, IPAddress)
     Bind Socket to the specified Port and IPAddress. If Port is zero then
     some unused port will be chosen.
     Corresponds to the C function: bind(3N).
     mode tcp_bind(+integer, +integer)
     mode tcp_bind(+integer, +integer, +integer)
tcp_listen(Socket)
     Listen for a connection on the socket.
     Corresponds to the C function: listen(3N).
     mode tcp_listen(+integer)
tcp_connect(Socket, Port, IPAddress)
     Establish a connection between Socket and the specified Port and IPAddress.
     Corresponds to the C function: connect(3N).
     mode tcp_connect(+integer, +integer, +integer)
tcp_accept(Socket, NewSocket)
tcp_accept(Socket, NewSocket, Port, IPAddress)
      Accept a connection to Socket.
     Corresponds to the C function: accept(3N).
     mode tcp_accept(@integer, -integer)
     mode tcp_accept(@integer, -integer, @integer, @integer)
open_socket_stream(Socket, IOMode, Stream)
```

```
Open a stream for reading or writing on Socket.
     mode open_socket_stream(@integer, @atom, -integer)
tcp_getsockname(Socket, Port, IPAddress)
      Return the local port and IP address associated with the socket.
      Corresponds to the C function: getsockname(3N)
     mode tcp_getsockname(+integer, -integer, -integer)
tcp_getpeername(Socket, Port, IPAddress)
      Return the remote port and IP address associated with the socket.
      Corresponds to the C function: getpeername(3N)
     mode tcp_getpeername(+integer, -integer, -integer)
tcp_host_to_ip_address(Name, IPAddress)
      Look up the IP address of the given host.
     Corresponds to the C function: nslookup(1N)
     mode tcp_host_to_ip_address(+atom, -integer)
tcp_host_from_ip_address(Name, IPAddress)
     Look up the host name of the given IP address.
      Corresponds to the C function: nslookup(1N)
     mode tcp_host_from_ip_address(-atom, +integer)
```

3.28 CHR System

This section briefly describes the Qu-Prolog implementation of the K.U.Leuven Constraint Handling Rules (CHR) system (see http://www.cs.kuleuven.be/dtai/projects/CHR/). This implementation is reasonably consistent with that of SWI Prolog.

The syntax of CHR rules is given below.

```
chr_rules --> chr_rule, chr_rules.
chr_rules --> [].
chr_rule --> name, rule_part, pragma, ['.'].
name --> atom, ['@'].
name --> [].
rule_part --> simplification_rule.
rule_part --> propagation_rule.
rule_part --> simpagation_rule.
simplification_rule --> head, ['<=>'], guard, body.
propagation_rule --> head, ['==>'], guard, body.
simpagation_rule --> head, ['\'], head, ['<=>'], guard, body.
head --> constraints.
constraints --> constraint, constraint_id.
constraints --> constraint, constraint_id, [','], constraints.
```

```
constraint --> nonvar_term.
constraint_id --> [].
constraint_id --> ['#'], variable.
constraint_id --> ['#', 'passive'] .
guard --> [].
guard --> goal, ['|'].
body --> goal.
pragma --> [].
pragma --> ['pragma'], pragmas.
pragmas --> pragma_part.
pragmas --> pragma_part, [','], pragmas.
pragma_part --> ['passive('], variable, [')'].
```

The semantics of the rules are as follows.

Whenever a new constraint is added or some variable in an existing constraint is bound (causing the constraint of be retried) then the constraint becomes 'active'. The rules are then tried in order. If the active constraint together with other ('passive') constraints match the head of a rule and the guard is true then the body of the rule is executed. Note that variables occurring in the constraints are not allowed to be bound when matching against the rule head or in the guard.

There are three rules types:

- Simplification
 - The matched head constraints are removed from the constraint store.
- Propagation

The matched head constraints are not removed and the rule cannot be replied to the same collection of constraints (in the same order) again.

Simpagation

The constraints before the \ are retrained while the constraints after the \ are removed.

The following examples are adapted from the reference above.

```
\%\% CHR rules for less_than_or_equal
:- chr_init.
:- chr_constraint leq/2.
reflexivity @ leq(X,X) <=> true.
antisymmetry @ leq(X,Y), leq(Y,X) <=> X = Y.
idempotence @ leq(X,Y) \ leq(X,Y) <=> true.
transitivity @ leq(X,Y), leq(Y,Z) ==> leq(X,Z).
```

The directive chr_init must occur before any CHR directives or rules. This loads the CHR operator declarations and enables the term expansion rules to convert the rules to Qu-Prolog clauses.

The chr_constraint declares the allowed constraints. This is followed by the required rules. Normal Qu-Prolog code can be freely intermixed with CHR rules.

The next example uses the passive pragma.

In this example, the first constraint in the first rule can only be passive.

3.29 Miscellaneous

Predicates:

os(Term)

Access the operating system.

The possible values for Term are

- access(File, Mode)
 The same as access(File, Mode, 0).
- argv(Args)
 The same as get_args/1 (page 129).
- exit(Integer)
 The same as halt/1 (page 19).
- mktemp(Atom, File)
 Call the Unix system call mktemp(3) which returns a unique file name, File. The name is derived from the Atom which must have six trailing Xs.
- system(Cmd)
 Execute the Cmd using /bin/sh.
- system(Cmd, Status)
 Execute the Cmd and return exit code in Status using /bin/sh.

```
mode os(+compound)
     Example:
      | ?- os(mktemp(fileXXXXXX, File)).
     File = filenCwJaB
      | ?- os(system(date)).
      Tue Jan 11 14:40:04 EST 2000
     ves
current_prolog_flag(Flag, Value)
     Extract the Value of the prolog Flag. Currently, the only flag is version
      - the version number of Qu-Prolog.
     mode current_prolog_flag(@atom, ?term)
interpreter
      Start the standard Qu-Prolog interpreter. This is useful for stand-alone
      applications that need an interpreter as part of the processing.
     mode interpreter
chdir(Dir)
      Change directory to that given by the atom Dir.
     mode chdir(@atom)
     Example:
      | ?- chdir('...').
     changes to the parent directory.
getcwd(Dir)
      Get the current working directory.
     mode getcwd(-atom)
working_directory(Dir)
working_directory(OldDir, NewDir)
      Get/set the current working directory with working_directory(Dir).
     If Dir is a variable then it is set to the working directory. Otherwise it
     should be an atom representing a directory, in which case the working
      directory is set to Dir.
     working_directory(OldDir, NewDir) sets the working directory. NewDir
     is the new working directory and OldDir is previous working directory.
      These are interfaces to chdir and getcwd.
      mode working_directory(?atom)
```

mode working_directory(-atom, @atom)

```
absolute_file_name(File, Path)
      Expand File (file or directory) to its full path (Path). Environment vari-
      ables, , . and .. are expanded.
     mode absolute_file_name(+atom, -atom)
getenv(EnvVar, Value)
      Get the environment variable EnvVar and unify with Value.
     mode getenv(+atom, -atom)
setenv(EnvVar, Value)
      Set the environment variable EnvVar to Value.
     mode setenv(+atom, +atom)
prompt(Variable, Atom)
      The current prompt is returned in Variable before setting the prompt
      to Atom. The prompt is reset to the previous value on backtracking.
     mode prompt(?atom, @atom)
      Example:
      | ?- prompt(P, atom), write(P), nl, prompt(P2, P).
     P = | ?-
     P2 = atom
realtime(Time)
     The argument is unified with the current time given as the number of
     seconds since the Unix epoch. It has the same semantics as the Unix C
     function time(2).
     mode realtime(?integer)
gmtime(Time, GMTime)
      gmtime(Time, GMTime) is true if and only if GMTime is a compound term
     of the form
      time(Year, Month, Day, Hour, Min, Sec)
      that corresponds to the GMT time for Time as the number of seconds
     since the Unix epoch. When Time is given, it has the same semantics as
     the Unix C function gmtime.
     mode gmtime(@integer, ?compound)
     mode gmtime(?integer, +compound)
      Example:
```

```
| ?- gmtime(ET, time(100, 5, 6, 10, 5, 20)).

ET = 960285920

| ?- gmtime(960285920,GT).

GT = time(100, 5, 6, 10, 5, 20)
```

localtime(Time, GMTime)

localtime(Time, LTime) is true if and only if LTime is a compound term of the form

time(Year, Month, Day, Hour, Min, Sec, IsDS)

that corresponds to the local time for Time as the number of seconds since the Unix epoch. When Time is given, it has the same semantics as the Unix C function localtime.

```
mode localtime(@integer, ?compound)
mode localtime(?integer, +compound)
```

gettimeofday(Time)

The argument is unified with the current time given as the number of seconds since the Unix epoch. It is similar to realtime except it contains the fractional part of the time

mode gettimeofday(?double)

```
create_timer(Goal, Time, OneTime, ID)
```

This creates a timer that in Time seconds will call Goal. If OneTime is true then the timer will be deleted when the goal is called. Otherwise, the timer will reset so that the goal is repeadly called every Time seconds. ID is a unique ID given to the timer. When the thread that created the timer exists then all its timers will be removed. The goal will be called once and then failed over and so the goal should have a side-effect such as database modification. If an exception is thrown in the goal then the entire process terminates.

```
mode create_timer(+goal, @number, @term, -integer)
```

```
delete_timer(ID)
```

Delete the timer with the given ID. This thread must be the thread that created the timer.

```
mode delete_timer(@integer)
```

4 Standard Operators

```
:- op(1200, xfx, [:-, -->]).
:- op(1200, fx, [:-, ?-]).
```

```
:- op(1100, xfy, [;]).
:- op(1050, xfy, [->]).
:- op(1024, xfx, [ '::']).
:- op(1000, xfy, [ ',']).
:- op(900, fy, [ \+ , spy , nospy ]).
:- op(700, xfx, [ = , \= , ?= , == , \== , @< , @=< , @> , @>= ,
    =.. , is , =:= , =\= , < , =< , > , >= ]).
:- op(600, xfx, [not_free_in, is_free_in, is_not_free_in]).
:- op(500, yfx, [+,-,/\, \/]).
:- op(500, fy, [ message_choice ]).
:- op(452, xfx, [ ->> , +>> , <<- , <<= ]).
:- op(400, yfx, [ * , / , // , rem , mod , << , >> ]).
:- op(200, xfx, [ ** ]).
:- op(200, xfy, [{})).
:- op(200, fy, [?, @, +, -, \]).
:- op(100, xfx, [@]).
           xfx, [:]).
:- op(50,
```

5 Notation

Below is a summary of the notations used to describe the built-in predicates.

AbstractType

An abstract Qu-Prolog type.

Action

An atom specifying an action.

Argument

A term which is an argument of a compound term.

Arity

An integer giving the arity of a predicate or a compound term.

Associativity

An atom giving the associativity of an operator.

Atom

An atom.

Atomic

An atom or a number.

AtomList

A list of atoms.

Body

The body of a clause or a term.

Boolean

One of the atoms true or false.

Character

An atom denoting a single character.

CharCode

An integer giving the character code of a character.

 ${\bf CharCodeList}$

A list of character codes.

Clause

A clause.

Closed

A closed (proper) list.

Data

A compound term describing the exception.

 ${\bf DebugState}$

A compound term describing the state of the debugger.

DebugArg

An atom standing for an argument of a debugger command.

DebugCmd

A character (atom) standing for a debugger command typed by the user.

DelayList

A list of delayed problems.

 ${\bf DistinctList}$

A list object variables.

Expression

An expression.

File

An atom giving the name of a file.

Files

A list of files separated by commas.

Float

A double precision float.

 ${\bf ForeignFn}$

An atom denoting the name of the foreign function.

ForeignFns

A list of atoms denoting the names of the foreign functions.

ForeignSpec

A predicate describing the type and mode of its arguments.

Functor

The functor of a compound term.

Goal

An atom or a compound term.

Head

The head of a clause.

HigherBody

An atom or a compound term. Extra arguments will be added to the term to form a body.

 ${\bf Higher Goal}$

An atom or a compound term. Extra arguments will be added to the term to form a goal.

HigherHead

An atom or a compound term. Extra arguments will be added to the term to form a head.

Identity

An identity of an operation (goal).

Integer
An integer.
Language
The name of the foreign programming language.
Library
An atom naming a library.
Libraries
A list of atoms giving the names of the libraries.
Limit
An integer.
List
A list.
Location
An integer.
Mode
An atom or a list of atoms.
Message
A list of terms.
N
An integer.
Name
An atom.
ObjectFile
An atom giving the name of the object file.
ObjectFiles
A list of atoms or an atom giving the names of the object files.
ObVar
An object variable.

 ${\rm OnOff}$

An atom on or an atom off.

Open

An open (improper) list.

Operator

An atom describing a binary relationship.

OptionList

A list of options, which depend on individual predicate.

Permission

An integer encoding the access permission of a file.

Port

An atom naming a port of the debugger.

Precedence

An integer giving the precedence of an operator.

 ${\bf PredicateList}$

A list of "predicate/arity" pairs.

PredicateMode

A list of mode declarations.

 ${\bf PredicateName}$

An atom which gives the name of a predicate.

Property

An atom or a compound term describing a property.

Quantified

A quantified term.

Quantifier

The quantifier of a quantified term.

Reference

An integer, which is like a pointer.

Result

The result of an operation (goal).

Rule

A Definite Clause Grammars rule.

Signal

An atom.

Stream

A compound term holding the information about a stream.

 ${\bf String Mode}$

An atom or a compound term describing the mode of operation and the string to be parsed.

Substituted

A term with a substitution.

Substitutions

A list of lists representing a sequence of substitutions.

Table

An atom naming a table.

Template

A compound term.

 Term

Any Qu-Prolog term.

Type

An atom describing the type of an argument.

Variable

A meta or object variable.

VariableNames

A list of Variable=Name pairs.

VarList

A list of variables.

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