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Prolog – Meta-predicates

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Meta-predicates

- In Prolog predicates (i.e., programs) and terms (i.e., data) have the same syntactical structure...
- ... as a consequence, predicates and terms can be exchanged and exploited in different roles!!!
- There are several pre-defined predicates that allows to deal with these structures, and work with them



The `call` predicate

- If terms are predicates:
 - I could “prepare/create” a term in a “proper” way...
 - ... and then... EXECUTE IT!
- **`call(T)`**: the term **`T`** is considered as a atom (a predicate), and the Prolog interpreter is requested to evaluate (execute) it.
- Obviously, at the moment of the evaluation, **`T`** must be a non-numeric term
 - A number is a constant, and cannot be “evaluated” in logical sense



The `call` predicate

- The predicate `call` is considered to be a meta-predicate since:
 - its evaluation directly interfere with the Prolog interpreter underneath, within the same evaluation instance
 - It directly “alterates” the program.
- The predicate `call` takes as input a term that can be interpreted as a predicate:

```
p(a) .
```

```
q(X) :- p(X) .
```

```
:- call(q(Y)) .
```

```
yes Y = a.
```

When executed, `call` asks to the Prolog interpreter of proving `q(Y)`



The call predicate

- The predicate call can be used also within programs:

```
p(X) :- call(X).  
q(a).
```

```
:- p(q(Y)).  
yes Y = a.
```

- Some Prolog interpreters allow the following notation

```
p(X) :- X.
```

- X is also said to be a *meta-logic variable*



The `call` predicate – Example

- Define a program that behaves as a procedural `if_then_else` construct

`if_then_else(Cond, Goal1, Goal2)`

- If `Cond` is evaluated to true, then `Goal1` is evaluated
- If `Cond` is evaluated to false, then `Goal2`, is evaluated

```
if_then_else(Cond, Goal1, Goal2) :-
```

```
    call(Cond), !,
```

```
    call(Goal1).
```

```
if_then_else(Cond, Goal1, Goal2) :-
```

```
    call(Goal2).
```



The `fail` predicate

- `fail` takes no arguments (its arity is zero)
- Its evaluation always fails!
- As a consequence, it forces the interpreter to explore other alternatives...
- ... in other words, it explicitly activates the backtracking
- Why on the earth should we force the failure of a proof?
 - To obtain some form of iteration over data;
 - To implement the negation as failure;
 - To implement a logical implication



The *fail* predicate – the iteration

- Let us consider a KB with facts $p/1$. Apply a predicate $q(X)$ on all x that satisfy $p(X)$.
- A possible solution (not the only one) :

```
iterate :- call(p(X)) ,  
           verify(q(X)) ,  
           fail.
```

```
iterate.
```

```
verify(q(X)) :- call(q(X)) , !.
```



The `fail` predicate – the negation as failure

- Implement the negation as failure through a predicate `not(P)`
- `not(P)` is true if `P` is not a consequence of the program

```
not(P) :- call(P), !, fail.  
not(P) .
```



Combining `fail` and `cut`

- The sequence `!, fail` is often used to force a global failure of a predicate `p` (and not only backtracking)
- For example, define the `fly` property, that is true for all the birds except penguins and ostrich...
- ... in other words, write a KB able to deal with default, but supporting exceptions.

```
fly(X) :- penguin(X), !, fail.
```

```
fly(X) :- ostrich(X), !, fail.
```

```
....
```

```
fly(X) :- bird(X).
```



Predicates setof and bagof

- In Prolog, the usual query `:- p(X) .` is interpreted with **x** existentially quantified. As result, it is returned a possible substitution for variables of **p** such that the query is satisfied.
- Sometimes, it might be interested to answer to queries like "**which is the set S of element X such that p(X) is true?**" (second-order query)
- Some Prolog interpreters support this type of second-order queries by providing pre-definite predicates.



Predicates **setof** and **bagof**

- **setof** (**X**, **P**, **S**) .

S is the set of instances X that satisfy the goal P

- **bagof** (**X**, **P**, **L**) .

L is the list of instances X that satisfy the goal P

- In both cases, if there are no X satisfying P, the predicates fail.
- Which is the difference? **bagof** returns a list possibly containing repetitions, **setof** should not contain repetitions. Not always true: it depends by the implementation.



Predicates setof and bagof – examples

Knowledge Base:

`p(1) .`

`p(2) .`

`p(0) .`

`p(1) .`

`q(2) .`

`r(7) .`

`:- setof(X, p(X), S) .`

`yes S = [0,1,2]`

`X = X`

`:- bagof(X, p(X), S) .`

`yes S = [1,2,0,1]`

`X = X`

NOTICE: variable X, at the end, has not been unified with any value.



Predicates setof and bagof – examples

Parameters are reversible. Knowledge Base:

`p(1) .`

`p(2) .`

`p(0) .`

`p(1) .`

`q(2) .`

`r(7) .`

`:- setof(X, p(X), [0,1,2]) .`

`yes X = X`

`:- bagof(X, p(X), [1,2,0,1]) .`

`yes X = X`



Predicates setof and bagof – examples

Conjunction of goals. Knowledge Base:

`p(1) .`

`p(2) .`

`p(0) .`

`p(1) .`

`q(2) .`

`r(7) .`

`:- setof(X, (p(X), q(X)), S) .`

`yes S = [2]`

`X = X`

`:- bagof(X, (p(X), q(X)), S) .`

`yes S = [2]`

`X = X`

`:- setof(X, (p(X), r(X)), S) .`

`no`

`:- bagof(X, (p(X), r(X)), S) .`

`no`



Predicates setof and bagof – examples

Non existing goals. Knowledge Base:

`p(1) .`

`p(2) .`

`p(0) .`

`p(1) .`

`q(2) .`

`r(7) .`

```
:- setof(X, s(X), S) .  
no
```

```
:- bagof(X, s(X), S) .  
no
```

*NOTICE: this is the expected behaviour...
however, some interpreters return an error
calling an undefined procedure
s(X)*



Predicates setof and bagof – examples

Complex terms in the answer. Knowledge Base:

`p(1) .`

`p(2) .`

`p(0) .`

`p(1) .`

`q(2) .`

`r(7) .`

`:- setof(p(X) , p(X) , S) .`

`yes S=[p(0) ,p(1) ,p(2)]`

`X=X`

`:- bagof(p(X) , p(X) , S) .`

`yes S=[p(1) ,p(2) ,p(0) ,p(1)]`

`X=X`



Predicates setof and bagof -- quantification of variables

- Knowledge base:

`father(giovanni,mario) .`

`father(giovanni,giuseppe) .`

`father(mario, paola) .`

`father(mario,aldo) .`

`father(giuseppe,maria) .`

*I was expecting all the X for which
father(X,Y) is true...*

*INSTEAD, it returned those X for which, for
the same value of Y, father(X,Y) is true.*

?????

`:- setof(X, father(X,Y), S) .`

yes	X=X	Y= aldo	S=[mario] ;
	X=X	Y= giuseppe	S=[giovanni] ;
	X=X	Y= maria	S=[giuseppe] ;
	X=X	Y= mario	S=[giovanni] ;
	X=X	Y= paola	S=[mario] ;

no



Predicates setof and bagof -- quantification of variables

- Knowledge base:

`father(giovanni,mario) .`

`father(giovanni,giuseppe) .`

`father(mario, paola) .`

`father(mario,aldo) .`

`father(giuseppe,maria) .`

We need to specify that Y has to be quantified existentially...

`:- setof(X, Y^father(X,Y) , S) .`

`yes [giovanni,mario,giuseppe]`

`X=X`

`Y=Y`



Predicates setof and bagof -- quantification of variables

- Compound terms in the answer. Knowledge base:

```
father(giovanni,mario) .
```

```
father(giovanni,giuseppe) .
```

```
father(mario, paola) .
```

```
father(mario,aldo) .
```

```
father(giuseppe,maria) .
```

```
:- setof( (X,Y) , father(X,Y) , S) .
```

```
yes S=[ (giovanni,mario) , (giovanni,giuseppe) ,  
        (mario, paola) , (mario,aldo) ,  
        (giuseppe,maria) ]
```

```
X=X
```

```
Y=Y
```



Predicate `findall`

- Often, we are interested in `setof` and `bagof`, with the semantics of the variables not appearing in the first argument being quantified existentially...

`findall(X, P, S)`

- true if `S` is the list of instance `X` (without repetitions) for which predicate `P` is true.
- If there is no `X` satisfying `P`, then `findall` returns an empty list.



Predicate findall – example

- Knowledge base:

`father(giovanni,mario) .`

`father(giovanni,giuseppe) .`

`father(mario, paola) .`

`father(mario,aldo) .`

`father(giuseppe,maria) .`

`:- findall(X, father(X,Y) , S) .`

`yes S=[giovanni, mario, giuseppe]`

`X=X`

`Y=Y`

Equivalent to:

`:- setof(X, Y^father(X,Y) , S) .`



Bagof, setof, and findall are not limited to facts

- Predicates **setof**, **bagof** e **findall** works also when the property to be verified is not a simple fact, but it is defined by rules.

```
p(X,Y) :- q(X), r(X) .
```

```
q(0) .
```

```
q(1) .
```

```
r(0) .
```

```
r(2) .
```

```
:- findall(X, p(X,Y), S) .
```

```
yes S=[0]
```

```
X=X
```

```
Y=Y
```



Verification of implication through setof

- Let us have predicates of the type **father**(X,Y) and **employee**(Y)
- We want to verify if it is true that for every Y for which **father**(p,Y) holds, then Y is an employee (all the sons of p are employees)
 $\text{father}(p,Y) \rightarrow \text{employee}(Y)$

```
imply(Y) :- setof(X, father(Y,X), L), verify(L).
```

```
verify([]).
```

```
verify([H|T]) :- employee(H), verify(T).
```



Iteration through setof

- Execute the procedure q on each element for which p is true

```
iterate:- setof(X, p(X), L),  
          filter(L).
```

```
filter([]).
```

```
filter([H|T]):- call(q(H)),  
                filter(T).
```

- Which difference with the implementation made through fail? What about backtrackability?



Verifying properties of terms

- **var (Term)**
true if Term is currently a variable
- **nonvar (Term)**
true if Term currently is not a free variable
- **number (Term)**
true if Term is a number
- **ground (Term)**
true if Term holds no free variables.



Accessing the structure of a term

- Term =.. List
[SWI documentation]
 - List is a list whose head is the functor of Term and the remaining arguments are the arguments of the term.
 - Either side of the predicate may be a variable, but not both.

```
?- foo(hello, X) =.. List.
```

```
List = [foo, hello, X]
```

```
?- Term =.. [baz, foo(1)].
```

```
Term = baz(foo(1))
```



Accessing the clauses of a program

- In Prolog, terms and predicates are represented with the same structure
- In particular, a clause (a query) is represented as a term

- Example: given

h.

h :- b1, b2, ..., bn.

- They correspond to the terms:

(h, true)

(h, ' , ' (b1, ' , ' (b2, ' , ' (... ' , ' (bn-1, bn) ...))))



Accessing the clauses of a program – the predicate clause

- **clause(Head, Body)**
true if (Head, Body) is unified with a clause stored within the database program
- When evaluated
 - Head must be instantiated to a non-numeric term
 - Body can be a variable or a term describing the body of a clause
- Its evaluation opens choice points, if more clauses with the same head are available



The predicate clause – example

- Program:

```
?-dynamic(p/1).
```

```
?-dynamic(q/2).
```

```
p(1).
```

```
q(X,a) :- p(X), r(a).
```

```
q(2,Y) :- d(Y).
```

```
?- clause(p(1),BODY).
```

```
yes      BODY=true
```

```
?- clause(p(X),true).
```

```
yes      X=1
```

```
?- clause(q(X,Y), BODY).
```

```
yes      X=_1      Y=a      BODY=p(_1),r(a);
```

```
         X=2      Y=_2      BODY=d(_2);
```

```
no
```

```
?- clause(HEAD,true).
```

```
Error - invalid key to data-base
```



Other amenities... Loading modules and libraries

- Modern Prolog interpreters come equipped with a huge library of code.
- To load a library:
`use_module(library(XXX)) .`
- Example (SWI Prolog):
`:- use_module(library(lists)) .`
Load the pre-defined predicates for dealing with lists

- `library(aggregate)`
- `library(ansi_term)`
- `library(apply)`
- `library(assoc)`
- `library(broadcast)`
- `library(charsio)`
- `library(check)`



Other amenities... Loading modules

- library(**clpb**)
- library(**clpfd**)
- library(**clpqr**)
- library(csv)
- library(**dcgbasics**)
- library(dcghighorder)
- library(debug)
- library(dicts)
- library(error)
- library(explain)
- library(help)
- library(intercept)
- library(summaries.d/intercept.tex)
- library(iostream)
- library(lists)
- library(main)
- library(occurs)
- library(option)
- library(optparse)
- library(ordsets)
- library(persistency)
- library(predicate_options)
- library(prologjiti)
- library(prologpack)
- library(prologxref)
- library(pairs)
- library(pio)
- library(random)
- library(readutil)
- library(record)
- library(registry)
- library(settings)
- library(simplex)
- library(ugraphs)
- library(url)
- library(www_browser)
- library(solution_sequences)
- library(thread)
- library(thread_pool)
- library(varnumbers)
- library(yall)



Other amenities... packages

- SWI-Prolog Semantic Web Library 3.0
- Constraint Query Language A high level interface to SQL databases
- SWI-Prolog binding to GNU readline
- SWI-Prolog ODBC Interface
- SWI-Prolog binding to libarchive
- Transparent Inter-Process Communications (TIPC) libraries
- JPL: A bidirectional Prolog/Java interface
- Pengines: Web Logic Programming Made Easy
- SWI-Prolog SSL Interface
- Google's Protocol Buffers Library
- SWI-Prolog Natural Language Processing Primitives
- Prolog Unit Tests
- SWI-Prolog Unicode library
- SWI-Prolog YAML library
- SWI-Prolog HTTP support



Other amenities... packages

- SWI-Prolog Regular Expression library
- Managing external tables for SWI-Prolog
- A C++ interface to SWI-Prolog
- SWI-Prolog SGML/XML parser
- SWI-Prolog binding to zlib
- Paxos -- a SWI-Prolog replicating key-value store
- SWI-Prolog Source Documentation Version 2
- SWI-Prolog C-library
- SWI-Prolog binding to BSD libedit
- SWI-Prolog RDF parser

