SWI-Prolog is a Prolog implementation based on a subset of the WAM (Warren Abstract Machine). SWI-Prolog was developed as an open Prolog environment, providing a powerful and bi-directional interface to C in an era this was unknown to other Prolog implementations. This environment is required to deal with XPCE, an object-oriented GUI system developed at SWI. XPCE is used at SWI for the development of knowledge-intensive graphical applications.

As SWI-Prolog became more popular, a large user-community provided requirements that guided its development. Compatibility, portability, scalability, stability and providing a powerful development environment have been the most important requirements. Edinburgh, Quintus, SICStus and the ISO-standard guide the development of the SWI-Prolog primitives.

This document gives an overview of the features, system limits and built-in predicates.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>Notes on signal handling</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>DCG Grammar rules</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>Database</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.12.1</td>
<td>Update view</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.12.2</td>
<td>Indexing databases</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>Declaring predicates properties</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>Examining the program</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>Input and output</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.15.1</td>
<td>ISO Input and Output Streams</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.15.2</td>
<td>Edinburgh-style I/O</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.15.3</td>
<td>Switching Between Edinburgh and ISO I/O</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.15.4</td>
<td>Write onto atoms, code-lists, etc.</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>Status of streams</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>Primitive character I/O</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>Term reading and writing</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>Analysing and Constructing Terms</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.19.1</td>
<td>Non-logical operations on terms</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>Analysing and Constructing Atoms</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>Character properties</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.21.1</td>
<td>Case conversion</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.21.2</td>
<td>White space normalization</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.21.3</td>
<td>Language specific comparison</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>Representing text in strings</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>Operators</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>Character Conversion</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>Arithmetic</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.25.1</td>
<td>Special purpose integer arithmetic</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.25.2</td>
<td>General purpose arithmetic</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>Adding Arithmetic Functions</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>Misc arithmetic support predicates</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>Built-in list operations</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>Finding all Solutions to a Goal</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>Forall</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>Formatted Write</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.31.1</td>
<td>Writef</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.31.2</td>
<td>Format</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.31.3</td>
<td>Programming Format</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>Terminal Control</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>Operating System Interaction</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.33.1</td>
<td>Dealing with time and date</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.33.2</td>
<td>Controlling the \texttt{swipl-win.exe} console window</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>File System Interaction</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>User Top-level Manipulation</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>Creating a Protocol of the User Interaction</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>Debugging and Tracing Programs</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>Obtaining Runtime Statistics</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>Execution profiling</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual

## 7.4 Tracing
7.4.2 Tracing .................................................. 214
7.4.3 CHR Debugging Predicates .......................... 215

## 7.5 Examples ................................................ 216

## 7.6 Backwards Compatibility ......................... 217
7.6.1 The Old SICStus CHR implementation ........ 217
7.6.2 The Old ECLiPSe CHR implementation ........ 218

## 7.7 Programming Tips and Tricks .................... 218

## 7.8 Compiler Errors and Warnings ................... 219
7.8.1 CHR Compiler Errors ............................... 219

## 8 Multi-threaded applications ..................... 221
8.1 Creating and destroying Prolog threads .......... 221
8.2 Monitoring threads .................................. 224
8.3 Thread communication .............................. 225
8.3.1 Message queues .................................... 225
8.3.2 Signalling threads ............................... 227
8.3.3 Threads and dynamic predicates ............... 228
8.4 Thread synchronisation ................................ 228
8.5 Thread-support library(threadutil) .............. 230
8.5.1 Debugging threads ............................... 231
8.5.2 Profiling threads ................................. 232
8.6 Unbounded thread creation ......................... 232
8.7 Multi-threaded mixed C and Prolog applications . 232
8.7.1 A Prolog thread for each native thread (one-to-one) ..... 232
8.7.2 Pooling Prolog engines (many-to-many) ....... 234
8.8 Multithreading and the XPCE graphics system .. 235

## 9 Foreign Language Interface ....................... 236
9.1 Overview of the Interface ......................... 236
9.2 Linking Foreign Modules ............................ 236
9.2.1 What linking is provided? ...................... 237
9.2.2 What kind of loading should I be using? .... 237
9.2.3 library(shlib): Utility library for loading foreign objects (DLLs, shared objects) 237
9.2.4 Low-level operations on shared libraries .... 239
9.2.5 Static Linking .................................... 240
9.3 Interface Data types ................................. 241
9.3.1 Type term_t: a reference to a Prolog term .... 241
9.3.2 Other foreign interface types .................. 242
9.4 The Foreign Include File ......................... 243
9.4.1 Argument Passing and Control ................. 243
9.4.2 Atoms and functors ............................. 245
9.4.3 Analysing Terms via the Foreign Interface .... 246
9.4.4 Constructing Terms ............................. 255
9.4.5 Unifying data .................................... 257
9.4.6 Convenience functions to generate Prolog exceptions .... 263
9.4.7 BLOBS: Using atoms to store arbitrary binary data .... 265
9.4.8 Exchanging GMP numbers ...................... 267
F Summary

F.1 Predicates
F.2 Library predicates
  F.2.1 aggregate
  F.2.2 apply
  F.2.3 assoc
  F.2.4 broadcast
  F.2.5 charsio
  F.2.6 check
  F.2.7 csv
  F.2.8 lists
  F.2.9 option
  F.2.10 ordsets
  F.2.11 prologxref
  F.2.12 pairs
  F.2.13 pio
  F.2.14 readutil
  F.2.15 record
  F.2.16 registry
  F.2.17 ugraphs
  F.2.18 url
  F.2.19 www_browser
  F.2.20 clp/clpf
  F.2.21 clpqr
  F.2.22 clp/simplex
  F.2.23 thread_pool
F.3 Arithmetic Functions
F.4 Operators
Introduction

1.1 SWI-Prolog

SWI-Prolog started back in 1986 with the requirement for a Prolog that could handle recursive interaction with the C-language: Prolog calling C and C calling Prolog recursively. Those days Prolog systems were very aware of their environment and we needed such a system to support interactive applications. Since then, SWI-Prolog’s development has been guided by requests from the user community, especially focussing on (in arbitrary order) interaction with the environment, scalability, (I/O) performance, standard compliance, teaching and the program development environment.

SWI-Prolog is based on a very simple Prolog virtual machine called ZIP [Bowen et al., 1983, Neumerkel, 1993] which defines only 7 instructions. Prolog can easily be compiled into this language and the abstract machine code is easily decompiled back into Prolog. As it is also possible to wire a standard 4-port debugger in the virtual machine there is no need for a distinction between compiled and interpreted code. Besides simplifying the design of the Prolog system itself this approach has advantages for program development: the compiler is simple and fast, the user does not have to decide in advance whether debugging is required and the system only runs slightly slower when in debug mode. The price we have to pay is some performance degradation (taking out the debugger from the VM interpreter improves performance by about 20%) and somewhat additional memory usage to help the decompiler and debugger.

SWI-Prolog extends the minimal set of instructions described in [Bowen et al., 1983] to improve performance. While extending this set care has been taken to maintain the advantages of decompilation and tracing of compiled code. The extensions include specialised instructions for unification, predicate invocation, some frequently used built-in predicates, arithmetic, and control (;/2, |/2), if-then (->/2) and negation-by-failure (\+/1).

1.1.1 Books about Prolog

This manual does not describe the full syntax and semantics of Prolog, nor how one should write a program in Prolog. These subjects have been described extensively in the literature. See [Bratko, 1986], [Sterling & Shapiro, 1986], and [Clocksin & Melish, 1987]. For more advanced Prolog material see [O’Keefe, 1990]. Syntax and standard operator declarations conform to the ‘Edinburgh standard’. Most built-in predicates are compatible with those described in [Clocksin & Melish, 1987]. SWI-Prolog also offers a number of primitive predicates compatible with Quintus Prolog\(^1\) [Qui, 1997] and BIM_Prolog\(^2\) [BIM, 1989].

ISO compliant predicates are based on “Prolog: The Standard”, [Deransart et al., 1996], validated using [Hodgson, 1998].

\(^1\)Quintus is a trademark of Quintus Computer Systems Inc., USA
\(^2\)BIM is a trademark of BIM sa/nv., Belgium
1.2 Status

This manual describes version 5.10 of SWI-Prolog. SWI-Prolog has been used now for many years. The application range includes Prolog course material, meta-interpreters, simulation of parallel Prolog, learning systems, natural language processing, complex interactive systems, web-server and web-server components. Although in our experience rather obvious and critical bugs can remain unnoticed for a remarkable long period, we assume the basic Prolog system is fairly stable. Bugs can be expected in infrequently used built-in predicates.

Some bugs are known to the author. They are described as footnotes in this manual.

1.3 Compliance to the ISO standard

SWI-Prolog 3.3.0 implements all predicates described in “Prolog: The Standard” [Deransart et al., 1996].

Exceptions and warning are still weak. Some SWI-Prolog predicates silently fail on conditions where the ISO specification requires an exception (functor/3 for example). Some predicates print warnings rather than raising an exception. All predicates where exceptions may be caused due to a correct program operating in an imperfect world (I/O, arithmetic, resource overflows) should behave according to the ISO standard. In other words: SWI-Prolog should be able to execute any program conforming to [Deransart et al., 1996] that does not rely on exceptions generated by errors in the program.

1.4 Should you be using SWI-Prolog?

There are a number of reasons why you better choose a commercial Prolog system, or another academic product:

- **SWI-Prolog is not supported**
  Although I usually fix bugs shortly after a bug report arrives, I cannot promise anything. Now that the sources are provided, you can always dig into them yourself.

- **Memory requirements and performance are your first concerns**
  A number of commercial compilers are more keen on memory and performance than SWI-Prolog. I do not wish to sacrifice some of the nice features of the system, nor its portability to compete on raw performance.

- **You need features not offered by SWI-Prolog**
  In this case you may wish to give me suggestions for extensions. If you have great plans, please contact me (you might have to implement them yourself however).

On the other hand, SWI-Prolog offers some nice facilities:

- **Nice environment**
  This includes ‘Do What I Mean’, automatic completion of atom names, history mechanism and a tracer that operates on single key-strokes. Interfaces to some standard editors are provided (and can be extended), as well as a facility to maintain programs (see make/0).
• **Very fast compiler**
  Even very large applications can be loaded in seconds on most machines. If this is not enough, there is a Quick Load Format that is slightly more compact and loading is almost always I/O bound.

• **Transparent compiled code**
  SWI-Prolog compiled code can be treated just as interpreted code: you can list it, trace it, etc. This implies you do not have to decide beforehand whether a module should be loaded for debugging or not. Also, performance is much better than the performance of most interpreters.

• **Profiling**
  SWI-Prolog offers tools for performance analysis, which can be very useful to optimise programs. Unless you are very familiar with Prolog and Prolog performance considerations this might be more helpful than a better compiler without these facilities.

• **Flexibility**
  SWI-Prolog can easily be integrated with C, supporting non-determinism in Prolog calling C as well as C calling Prolog (see section 9). It can also be embedded in external programs (see section 9.5). System predicates can be redefined locally to provide compatibility with other Prolog systems.

• **Integration with XPCE**
  SWI-Prolog offers a tight integration to the Object Oriented Package for User Interface Development, called XPCE [Anjewierden & Wielemaker, 1989]. XPCE allows you to implement graphical user interfaces that are source-code compatible over Unix/X11, Win32 (Windows 95/98/ME and NT/2000/XP) and MacOS X (darwin).

1.5 **The XPCE GUI system for Prolog**

The XPCE GUI system for dynamically typed languages has been with SWI-Prolog for a long time. It is developed by Anjo Anjewierden and Jan Wielemaker from the department of SWI, University of Amsterdam. It aims at a high-productive development environment for graphical applications based on Prolog.

Object oriented technology has proven to be a suitable model for implementing GUIs, which typically deal with things Prolog is not very good at: event-driven control and global state. With XPCE, we designed a system that has similar characteristics that make Prolog such a powerful tool: dynamic typing, meta-programming and dynamic modification of the running system.

XPCE is an object-system written in the C-language. It provides for the implementation of methods in multiple languages. New XPCE classes may be defined from Prolog using a simple, natural syntax. The body of the method is executed by Prolog itself, providing a natural interface between the two systems. Below is a very simple class definition.

```prolog
:- pce_begin_class(prolog_lister, frame,
                   "List Prolog predicates").

initialise(Self) :->
    "As the C++ constructor"::
    send_super(Self, initialise, 'Prolog Lister'),
```
send(Self, append, new(D, dialog)),
send(D, append,
    text_item(predicate, message(Self, list, @arg1))),
send(new(view), below, D).

list(Self, From:name) :-
    "List predicates from specification"::{
        catch(term_to_atom(Term, From), _, fail)
    -> get(Self, member, view, V),
        current_output(Old),
        pce_open(V, write, Fd),
        set_output(Fd),
        listing(Term),
        close(Fd),
        set_output(Old)
    ; send(Self, report, error, 'Syntax error')
    }.

:- pce_end_class.

test :- send(new(prolog_lister), open).

Its 165 built-in classes deal with the meta-environment, data-representation and—of course—graphics. The graphics classes concentrate on direct-manipulation of diagrammatic representations.

Availability. XPCE runs on most Unix\textsuperscript{tm} platforms, Windows 95/98/ME, Windows NT/2000/XP and MacOS X (using X11). In the past, versions for Quintus- and SICStus Prolog as well as some Lisp dialects have existed. After discontinuing active Lisp development at SWI the Lisp versions have died. Active development on the Quintus and SICStus versions has been stopped due to lack of standardisation in the Prolog community. If adequate standards emerge we are happy to actively support other Prolog implementations.

Info. further information is available from http://www.swi-prolog.org/packages/xpce/ or by E-mail to info@www.swi-prolog.org.

1.6 Release Notes

Collected release-notes. This section only contains some highlights. Smaller changes to especially older releases have been removed. For a complete log, see the file ChangeLog from the distribution.

Version 1.8 Release Notes

Version 1.8 offers a stack-shifter to provide dynamically expanding stacks on machines that do not offer operating-system support for implementing dynamic stacks.
Version 1.9 Release Notes

Version 1.9 offers better portability including an MS-Windows 3.1 version. Changes to the Prolog system include:

- **Redefinition of system predicates**
  Redefinition of system predicates was allowed silently in older versions. Version 1.9 only allows it if the new definition is headed by `:- redefine_system_predicate/1` directive. top-level

- **‘Answer’ reuse**
  The top-level maintains a table of bindings returned by top-level goals and allows for reuse of these bindings by prefixing the variables with the $ sign. See section 2.8.

- **Better source code administration**
  Allows for proper updating of multifile predicates and finding the sources of individual clauses.

Version 2.0 Release Notes

New features offered:

- **32-bit Virtual Machine**
  Removes various limits and improves performance.

- **Inline foreign functions**
  ‘Simple’ foreign predicates no longer build a Prolog stack-frame, but are directly called from the VM. Notably provides a speedup for the test predicates such as `var/1`, etc.

- **Various compatibility improvements**

- **Stream based I/O library**
  All SWI-Prolog’s I/O is now handled by the stream-package defined in the foreign include file `SWI-Stream.h`. Physical I/O of Prolog streams may be redefined through the foreign language interface, facilitating much simpler integration in window environments.

Version 2.5 Release Notes

Version 2.5 is an intermediate release on the path from 2.1 to 3.0. All changes are to the foreign-language interface, both to user- and system-predicates implemented in the C-language. The aim is twofold. First of all to make garbage-collection and stack-expansion (stack-shifts) possible while foreign code is active without the C-programmer having to worry about locking and unlocking C-variables pointing to Prolog terms. The new approach is closely compatible with the Quintus and SICStus Prolog foreign interface using the `+term` argument specification (see their respective manuals). This allows for writing foreign interfaces that are easily portable over these three Prolog platforms.

Apart from various bug fixes listed in the ChangeLog file, these are the main changes since 2.1.0:

- **ISO compatibility**
  Many ISO compatibility features have been added: `open/4`, arithmetic functions, syntax, etc.
1.6. RELEASE NOTES

- **Win32**
  Many fixes for the Win32 (NT, ’95 and win32s) platforms. Notably many problems related to pathnames and a problem in the garbage collector.

- **Performance**
  Many changes to the clause indexing system: added hash-tables, lazy computation of the index information, etc.

- **Portable saved-states**
  The predicate `qsave_program/[1,2]` allows for the creating of machine independent saved-states that load very quickly.

**Version 2.6 Release Notes**

Version 2.6 provides a stable implementation of the features added in the 2.5.x releases, but at the same time implements a number of new features that may have impact on the system stability.

- **32-bit integer and double float arithmetic**
  The biggest change is the support for full 32-bit signed integers and raw machine-format double precision floats. The internal data representation as well as the arithmetic instruction set and interface to the arithmetic functions has been changed for this.

- **Embedding for Win32 applications**
  The Win32 version has been reorganised. The Prolog kernel is now implemented as Win32 DLL that may be embedded in C-applications. Two front ends are provided, one for window-based operation and one to run as a Win32 console application.

- **Creating stand-alone executables**
  Version 2.6.0 can create stand-alone executables by attaching the saved-state to the emulator. See `qsave_program/2`.

**Version 2.7 Release Notes**

Version 2.7 reorganises the entire data-representation of the Prolog data itself. The aim is to remove most of the assumption on the machine’s memory layout to improve portability in general and enable embedding on systems where the memory layout may depend on invocation or on how the executable is linked. The latter is notably a problem on the Win32 platforms. Porting to 64-bit architectures is feasible now.

Furthermore, 2.7 lifts the limits on arity of predicates and number of variables in a clause considerably and allow for further expansion at minimal cost.

**Version 2.8 Release Notes**

With version 2.8, we declare the data-representation changes of 2.7.x stable. Version 2.8 exploits the changes of 2.7 to support 64-bit processors like the DEC Alpha. As of version 2.8.5, the representation of recorded terms has changed, and terms on the heap are now represented in a compiled format. SWI-Prolog no longer limits the use of malloc() or uses assumptions on the addresses returned by this function.
Version 2.9 Release Notes

Version 2.9 is the next step towards version 3.0, improving ISO compliance and introducing ISO compliant exception handling. New are catch/3, throw/1, abolish/1, write_term/[2,3], write_canonical/[1,2] and the C-functions PL_exception() and PL_throw(). The predicates display/[1,2] and displayq/[1,2] have been moved to backcomp, so old code referring to them will autoload them.

The interface to PL_open_query() has changed. The debug argument is replaced by a bitwise or’ed flags argument. The values FALSE and TRUE have their familiar meaning, making old code using these constants compatible. Non-zero values other than TRUE (1) will be interpreted different.

Version 3.0 Release Notes

Complete redesign of the saved-state mechanism, providing the possibility of ‘program resources’. See resource/3, open_resource/3, and qsave_program/[1,2].

Version 3.1 Release Notes

Improvements on exception-handling. Allows relating software interrupts (signals) to exceptions, handling signals in Prolog and C (see on_signal/3 and PL_signal()). Prolog stack overflows now raise the resource_error exception and thus can be handled in Prolog using catch/3.

Version 3.3 Release Notes

Version 3.3 is a major release, changing many things internally and externally. The highlights are a complete redesign of the high-level I/O system, which is now based on explicit streams rather then current input/output. The old Edinburgh predicates (see/1, tell/1, etc.) are now defined on top of this layer instead of the other way around. This fixes various internal problems and removes Prolog limits on the number of streams.

Much progress has been made to improve ISO compliance: handling strings as lists of one-character atoms is now supported (next to character codes as integers). Many more exceptions have been added and printing of exceptions and messages is rationalised using Quintus and SICStus Prolog compatible print_message/2, message_hook/3 and print_message_lines/3. All predicates described in [Deransart et al., 1996] are now implemented.

As of version 3.3, SWI-Prolog adheres the ISO logical update view for dynamic predicates. See section 4.12.1 for details.

SWI-Prolog 3.3 includes garbage collection on atoms, removing the last serious memory leak especially in text-manipulation applications. See section 9.4.2. In addition, both the user-level and foreign interface supports atoms holding 0-bytes.

Finally, an alpha version of a multi-threaded SWI-Prolog for Linux is added. This version is still much slower than the single-threaded version due to frequent access to ‘thread-local-data’ as well as some too detailed mutex locks. The basic thread API is ready for serious use and testing however. See section 8.

Incompatible changes

A number of incompatible changes result from this upgrade. They are all easily fixed however.
1.6. RELEASE NOTES

- */0, call/1
  The cut now behaves according to the ISO standard. This implies it works in compound goals passed to call/1 and is local to the condition part of if-then-else as well as the argument of \+/1.

- atom_chars/2
  This predicate is now ISO compliant and thus generates a list of one-character atoms. The behaviour of the old predicate is available in the —also ISO compliant— atom_codes/2 predicate. Safest repair is a replacement of all atom_chars into atom_codes. If you do not want to change any source-code, you might want to use

  \begin{verbatim}
  user:goalExpansion(atom_chars(A,B), atom_codes(A,B)).
  \end{verbatim}

- number_chars/2
  Same applies for number_chars/2 and number_codes/2.

- feature/2, set_feature/2
  These are replaced by the ISO compliant current_prolog_flag/2 and set_prolog_flag/2. The library backcomp provides definitions for these predicates, so no source must be updated.

- Accessing command-line arguments
  This used to be provided by the undocumented '$argv'1 and Quintus compatible library unix/1. Now there is also documented current_prolog_flag(argv, Argv).

- dup_stream/2
  Has been deleted. New stream-aliases can deal with most of the problems for which dup_stream/2 was designed and dup/2 from the clib package can with most others.

- op/3
  Operators are now local to modules. This implies any modification of the operator-table does not influence other modules. This is consistent with the proposed ISO behaviour and a necessity to have any usable handling of operators in a multi-threaded environment.

- set_prolog_flag(character_escapes, Bool)
  This Prolog flag is now an interface to changing attributes on the current source-module, effectively making this flag module-local as well. This is required for consistent handling of sources written with ISO (obligatory) character-escape sequences together with old Edinburgh code.

- current_stream/3 and stream_position
  These predicates have been moved to quintus.

Version 3.4 Release Notes

The 3.4 release is a consolidation release. It consolidates the improvements and standard conformance of the 3.3 releases. This version is closely compatible with the 3.3 version except for one important change:
• **Argument order in select/3**

The list-processing predicate `select/3` somehow got into a very early version of SWI-Prolog with the wrong argument order. This has been fixed in 3.4.0. The correct order is `select(?Elem, ?List, ?Rest).

As `select/3` has no error conditions, runtime checking cannot be done. To simplify debugging, the library module `checkselect` will print references to `select/3` in your source code and install a version of `select` that enters the debugger if `select` is called and the second argument is not a list.

This library can be loaded explicitly or by calling `check_old_select/0`.

**Version 4.0 Release Notes**

As of version 4.0 the standard distribution of SWI-Prolog is bundled with a number of its popular extension packages, among which the now open source XPCE GUI toolkit (see section 1.5). No significant changes have been made to the basic SWI-Prolog engine.

Some useful tricks in the integrated environment:

• **Register the GUI tracer**

  Using a call to `guitracer/0`, hooks are installed that replace the normal command-line driven tracer with a graphical front-end.

• **Register PceEmacs for editing files**

  From your initialisation file, you can load `emacs/swi_prolog` that cause `edit/1` to use the built-in PceEmacs editor.

**Version 5.0 Release Notes**

Version 5.0 marks a breakpoint in the philosophy, where SWI-Prolog moves from a dual GPL/proprietary to a uniform LGPL (Lesser GNU Public Licence) schema, providing a widely usable Free Source Prolog implementation.

On the technical site the development environment, consisting of source-level debugger, integrated editor and various analysis and navigation tools progress steadily towards a mature set of tools.

Many portability issues have been improved, including a port to MacOS X (Darwin).

For details, please visit the new website at [http://www.swi-prolog.org](http://www.swi-prolog.org)

---

**Version 5.1 Release Notes**

Version 5.1 is a beta-serie introducing portable multi-threading. See chapter 8. In addition it introduces many new facilities to support server applications, such as the new `rlimit` library to limit system resources and the possibility to set timeouts on input streams.

**Version 5.2 Release Notes**

Version 5.2 consolidates the 5.1.x beta series that introduced threading and many related modifications to the kernel.
Version 5.3 Release Notes

Version 5.3.x is a development series for adding coroutining, constraints, global variables, cyclic terms (infinite trees) and other goodies to the kernel. The package JPL, providing a bidirectional Java/Prolog interface is added to the common source-tree and common binary packages.

Version 5.4 Release Notes

Version 5.4 consolidates the 5.3.x beta series.

Version 5.5 Release Notes

Version 5.5.x provides support for wide characters with UTF-8 and UNICODE I/O (section 2.17.1). On both 32 and 64-bit hardware Prolog integers are now at minimum 64-bit integers. If available, SWI-Prolog arithmetic uses the GNU GMP library to provided unbounded integer arithmetic as well as rational arithmetic. Adding GMP support is sponsored by Scientific Software and Systems Limited, www.sss.co.nz. This version also incorporates clp(r) by Christian Holzbaur, brought to SWI-Prolog by Tom Schrijvers and Leslie De Koninck (section A.8).

Version 5.6 Release Notes

Version 5.6 consolidates the 5.5.x beta series.

Version 5.7 Release Notes

The aim of the 5.7 series is to cleanup much of the system. Notably, the virtual machine has a much simpler setup that makes it much easier to add new instructions. This facility has been exploited to enhance performance and provide proper support for the meta_predicate/1 directive for enhanced portability.

Version 5.10 Release Notes

The 5.9 series has enhanced SWI-Prolog in terms of memory management, scalability and robustness. Notable, threads are much cheaper and now limited in count only by the OS. Database and stream-handles have becomes safe. Compatibility to YAP and SISCtus has been improved.

1.7 Donate to the SWI-Prolog project

If you are happy with SWI-Prolog, you care it to be around for much longer while it becomes faster, more stable and with more features you should consider to donate to the SWI-Prolog foundation. Please visit the page below.

http://www.swi-prolog.org/donate.html
1.8 Acknowledgements

Some small parts of the Prolog code of SWI-Prolog are modified versions of the corresponding Edinburgh C-Prolog code: grammar rule compilation and `writef/2`. Also some of the C-code originates from C-Prolog: finding the path of the currently running executable and some of the code underlying `absolute_file_name/2`. Ideas on programming style and techniques originate from C-Prolog and Richard O’Keefe’s `thief` editor. An important source of inspiration are the programming techniques introduced by Anjo Anjewierden in PCE version 1 and 2.

I also would like to thank those who had the fade of using the early versions of this system, suggested extensions or reported bugs. Among them are Anjo Anjewierden, Huub Knops, Bob Wielinga, Wouter Jansweijer, Luc Peerdeman, Eric Nombden, Frank van Harmelen, Bert Rengel.

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Bart Demoen and Tom Schrijvers have helped me adding coroutining, constraints, global variables and support for cyclic terms to the kernel. Tom has provided the integer interval constraint solver, the CHR compiler and some of the coroutining predicates.

Paul Singleton has integrated Fred Dushin’s Java-calls-Prolog side with his Prolog-calls-Java side into the current bidirectional JPL interface package.

Richard O’Keefe is gratefully acknowledged for his efforts to educate beginners as well as valuable comments on proposed new developments.

Scientific Software and Systems Limited, www.sss.co.nz has sponsored the development if the SSL library as well as unbounded integer and rational number arithmetic.

Leslie de Koninck has made clp(QR) available to SWI-Prolog.

Markus Triska has contributed to various libraries.

Paulo Moura’s great experience in maintaining Logtalk for many Prolog systems including SWI-Prolog has helped in many places fixing compatibility issues. He also worked on the MacOS port and fixed many typos in the 5.6.9 release of the documentation.
2.1 Getting started quickly

2.1.1 Starting SWI-Prolog

Starting SWI-Prolog on Unix

By default, SWI-Prolog is installed as ‘swipl’. The command-line arguments of SWI-Prolog itself and its utility programs are documented using standard Unix man pages. SWI-Prolog is normally operated as an interactive application simply by starting the program:

```
machine% swipl
Welcome to SWI-Prolog (Version \plversion)
...
1 ?-
```

After starting Prolog, one normally loads a program into it using consult/1, which — for historical reasons — may be abbreviated by putting the name of the program file between square brackets. The following goal loads the file likes.pl containing clauses for the predicates likes/2:

```
?- [likes].
% likes compiled, 0.00 sec, 596 bytes.

Yes
?- 
```

After this point, Unix and Windows users unite, so if you are using Unix please continue at section 2.1.2.

Starting SWI-Prolog on Windows

After SWI-Prolog has been installed on a Windows system, the following important new things are available to the user:

- A folder (called directory in the remainder of this document) called pl containing the executables, libraries, etc. of the system. No files are installed outside this directory.

- A program swipl-win.exe, providing a window for interaction with Prolog. The program swipl.exe is a version of SWI-Prolog that runs in a DOS-box.
The file-extension .pl is associated with the program swipl-win.exe. Opening a .pl file will cause swipl-win.exe to start, change directory to the directory in which the file-to-open resides and load this file.

The normal way to start with the likes.pl file mentioned in section 2.1.1 is by simply double-clicking this file in the Windows explorer.

2.1.2 Executing a query

After loading a program, one can ask Prolog queries about the program. The query below asks Prolog what food ‘sam’ likes. The system responds with \( X = \langle \text{value} \rangle \) if it can prove the goal for a certain \( X \). The user can type the semi-colon (;)\(^1\) if (s)he wants another solution, or RETURN if (s)he is satisfied, after which Prolog will say Yes. If Prolog answers No, it indicates it cannot find any (more) answers to the query. Finally, Prolog can answer using an error message to indicate the query or program contains an error.

\[
\text{?- likes(sam, X).}
\]

\[
X = \text{dahl} ;
\]

\[
X = \text{tandoori} ;
\]

\[
\ldots
\]

\[
X = \text{chips} ;
\]

No

?-

2.2 The user’s initialisation file

After the necessary system initialisation the system consults (see consult/1) the user’s startup file. The base-name of this file follows conventions of the operating system. On MS-Windows, it is the file pl.ini and on Unix systems .plrc. The file is searched using the file_search_path/2 clauses for user_profile. The table below shows the default value for this search-path. The phrase \( \langle \text{appdata} \rangle \) refers to the Windows CSIDL name for the folder. The actual name depends on the Windows language. English versions typically use ApplicationData. See also win_folder/2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Unix</th>
<th>Windows</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>local</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>home</td>
<td>~</td>
<td>( \langle \text{appdata} \rangle /\text{SWI-Prolog} )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After the first startup file is found it is loaded and Prolog stops looking for further startup files. The name of the startup file can be changed with the ‘-f file’ option. If File denotes an absolute path,

\(^1\)On most installations, single-character commands are executed without waiting for the RETURN key.
this file is loaded, otherwise the file is searched for using the same conventions as for the default startup file. Finally, if file is none, no file is loaded.

See also the -s (script) and -F (system-wide initialisation) in section 2.4 and section 2.3.

2.3 Initialisation files and goals

Using command-line arguments (see section 2.4), SWI-Prolog can be forced to load files and execute queries for initialisation purposes or non-interactive operation. The most commonly used options are -f file or -s file to make Prolog load a file, -g goal to define an initialisation goal and -t goal to define the top-level goal. The following is a typical example for starting an application directly from the command-line.

```
machine% swipl -s load.pl -g go -t halt
```

It tells SWI-Prolog to load load.pl, start the application using the entry-point go/0 and —instead of entering the interactive top-level— exit after completing go/0. The -q may be used to suppress all informational messages.

In MS-Windows, the same can be achieved using a short-cut with appropriately defined command-line arguments. A typically seen alternative is to write a file run.pl with content as illustrated below. Double-clicking run.pl will start the application.

```
:- [load]. % load program
:- go. % run it
:- halt. % and exit
```

Section 2.10.2 discusses further scripting options and chapter 10 discusses the generation of runtime executables. Runtime executables are a mean to deliver executables that do not require the Prolog system.

2.4 Command-line options

The full set of command-line options is given below:

--arch

When given as the only option, it prints the architecture identifier (see Prolog flag arch) and exits. See also -dump-runtime-variables. Also available as --arch.

--dump-runtime-variables

When given as the only option, it prints a sequence of variable settings that can be used in shell-scripts to deal with Prolog parameters. This feature is also used by swipl-ld (see section 9.5). Below is a typical example of using this feature. Also available as -dump-runtime-variables.

```
eval ‘swipl --dump-runtime-variables’
cc -I$PLBASE/include -L$PLBASE/lib/$PLARCH ...
```
The option can be followed by \texttt{=sh} to dump in POSIX shell format (default) or \texttt{cmd} to dump in MS-Windows \texttt{cmd.exe} compatible format.

\textbf{--help}

When given as the only option, it summarises the most important options. Also available as \texttt{-h} and \texttt{--help}.

\textbf{--home=DIR}

Use DIR as home directory. See section 9.6 for details.

\textbf{--quiet}

Set the Prolog flag \texttt{verbose} to \texttt{silent}, suppressing informational and banner messages. Also available as \texttt{-q}.

\textbf{--nodebug}

Disable debugging. See the \texttt{current_prolog_flag/2} flag \texttt{generate_debug_info} for details.

\textbf{--nosignals}

Inhibit any signal handling by Prolog, a property that is sometimes desirable for embedded applications. This option sets the flag \texttt{signals} to \texttt{false}. See section 9.4.21 for details.

\textbf{--tty}

Unix only. Switches controlling the terminal for allowing single-character commands to the tracer and \texttt{get_single_char/1}. By default manipulating the terminal is enabled unless the system detects it is not connected to a terminal or it is running as a GNU-Emacs inferior process. This flag is sometimes required for smooth interaction with other applications.

\textbf{--version}

When given as the only option, it summarises the version and the architecture identifier. Also available as \texttt{-v}.

\textbf{--win_app}

This option is available only in \texttt{swipl-win.exe} and is used for the start-menu item. If causes \texttt{plwin} to start in the folder \ldots\textbackslash My Documents\textbackslash Prolog or local equivalent thereof (see \texttt{win_folder/2}). The Prolog subdirectory is created if it does not exist.

\textbf{--}

Stops scanning for more arguments, so you can pass arguments for your application after this one. See \texttt{current_prolog_flag/2} using the flag \texttt{argv} for obtaining the command-line arguments.

\section*{2.4.1 Controlling the stack-sizes}

As of SWI-Prolog 5.9.8, the default limit for the stack-sizes is 128Mb on 32-bit and 256Mb on 64-bit hardware. The 128Mb limit on 32-bit system is the highest possible value and this option can thus only be used to lower the limit. On 64-bit systems, the limit can both be reduced and enlarged. See section 2.18. Here are two examples, the first reducing the local stack limit to catch unbounded recursion really quickly and the second using a really big (32Gb) global limit on a 64-bit machine:
2.4. COMMAND-LINE OPTIONS

$ swipl -L8m
$ swipl -G32g

-\texttt{G} size[kmg]
Limit for the global stack (sometimes also called \textit{term-stack} or \textit{heap}). This is where compound terms and large numbers live.

-\texttt{L} size[kmg]
Limit for the local stack ((sometimes also called \textit{environment-stack}). This is where environments and choice-points live.

-\texttt{T} size[kmg]
Limit for the trail stack. This is where we keep track of assignments, so we can rollback on backtracking or exceptions.

2.4.2 Running goals from the commandline

-\texttt{g} goal
\textit{Goal} is executed just before entering the top level. Default is a predicate which prints the welcome message. The welcome message can be suppressed with \texttt{--quiet}, but also with \texttt{-g true}. \textit{goal} can be a complex term. In this case quotes are normally needed to protect it from being expanded by the shell. A safe way to run a goal non-interactively is here:

\begin{verbatim}
% swipl <options> -g go,halt -t 'halt(1)'
\end{verbatim}

-\texttt{t} goal
Use \textit{goal} as interactive top-level instead of the default goal \texttt{prolog/0}. \textit{goal} can be a complex term. If the top-level goal succeeds SWI-Prolog exits with status 0. If it fails the exit status is 1. If the top-level raises an exception, this is printed as an uncaught error and the toplevel is restarted. This flag also determines the goal started by \texttt{break/0} and \texttt{abort/0}. If you want to stop the user from entering interactive mode start the application with \texttt{-g goal} and give \texttt{‘halt’} as top-level.

2.4.3 Compiler options

-\texttt{c} file …
Compile files into an ‘intermediate code file’. See section 2.10.

-\texttt{o} output
Used in combination with \texttt{-c} or \texttt{-b} to determine output file for compilation.

-\texttt{O}
Optimised compilation. See current\_prolog\_flag/2 flag optimise for details.

-\texttt{s} file
Use \textit{file} as a script-file. The script file is loaded after the initialisation file specified with the \texttt{-f file} option. Unlike \texttt{-f file}, using \texttt{-s} does not stop Prolog from loading the personal initialisation file.
-f file
Use file as initialisation file instead of the default .plrc (Unix) or pl.ini (Windows).
-ф none’ stops SWI-Prolog from searching for a startup file. This option can be used as an
alternative to -s file that stops Prolog from loading the personal initialisation file. See also
section 2.2.

-F script
Selects a startup-script from the SWI-Prolog home directory. The script-file is named
⟨script⟩.rc. The default script name is deduced from the executable, taking the leading
alphanumerical characters (letters, digits and underscore) from the program-name. -F none
stops looking for a script. Intended for simple management of slightly different versions.
One could for example write a script iso.rc and then select ISO compatibility mode using
pl -F iso or make a link from iso-pl to pl.

-x bootfile
Boot from bootfile instead of the system’s default boot file. A bootfile is a file result-
ing from a Prolog compilation using the -b or -c option or a program saved using
qsave,program/[1,2].

-p alias=path1[:path2 . . .]
Define a path alias for file_search path. alias is the name of the alias, path1 ... is a list of
values for the alias. On Windows the list-separator is ;. On other systems it is :. A value
is either a term of the form alias(value) or pathname. The computed aliases are added to
file_search path/2 using asserta/1, so they precede predefined values for the alias.
See file_search path/2 for details on using this file-location mechanism.

2.4.4 Maintenance options
The following options are for system maintenance. They are given for reference only.

-b initfile ...-c file ...
Boot compilation. initfile ... are compiled by the C-written bootstrap compiler, file ... by the
normal Prolog compiler. System maintenance only.

-d level
Set debug level to level. Only has effect if the system is compiled with the -DO_DEBUG flag.
System maintenance only.

2.5 GNU Emacs Interface
The default Prolog mode for GNU-Emacs can be activated by adding the following rules to your
Emacs initialisation file:

```
(setq auto-mode-alist
 (append
   '(("\.pl" . prolog-mode))
   auto-mode-alist))
(setq prolog-program-name "swipl")
```
Unfortunately the default Prolog mode of GNU-Emacs is not very good. There are several alternatives though:

- [http://turing.ubishops.ca/home/bruda/emacs-prolog/](http://turing.ubishops.ca/home/bruda/emacs-prolog/)
- [http://stud4.tuwien.ac.at/e0225855/ediprolog/ediprolog.html](http://stud4.tuwien.ac.at/e0225855/ediprolog/ediprolog.html)
- [http://stud4.tuwien.ac.at/e0225855/pceprolog/pceprolog.html](http://stud4.tuwien.ac.at/e0225855/pceprolog/pceprolog.html)
- [http://stud4.tuwien.ac.at/e0225855/etrace/etrace.html](http://stud4.tuwien.ac.at/e0225855/etrace/etrace.html)

### 2.6 Online Help

Online help provides a fast lookup and browsing facility to this manual. The online manual can show predicate definitions as well as entire sections of the manual. The online help is displayed from the file `MANUAL`. The file `helpidx` provides an index into this file. `MANUAL` is created from the \LaTeX\ sources with a modified version of `dvitty`, using overstrike for printing bold text and underlining for rendering italic text. XPCE is shipped with `swi help`, presenting the information from the online help in a hypertext window. The Prolog flag `write help with overstrike` controls whether or not `help/1` writes its output using overstrike to realise bold and underlined output or not. If this Prolog flag is not set it is initialised by the `help` library to `true` if the `TERM` variable equals `xterm` and `false` otherwise. If this default does not satisfy you, add the following line to your personal startup file (see section 2.2):

```prolog
:- set_prolog_flag(write help with overstrike, true).
```

`help`

Equivalent to `help(help/1)`.

`help(+What)`

Show specified part of the manual. `What` is one of:

- `(Name)/(Arity)` Give help on specified predicate
- `(Name)` Give help on named predicate with any arity or C interface function with that name
- `(Section)` Display specified section. Section numbers are dash-separated numbers: `2-3` refers to section 2.3 of the manual. Section numbers are obtained using `apropos/1`.

Examples:

```prolog
?- help(assert). Give help on predicate assert
?- help(3-4). Display section 3.4 of the manual
?- help('PL_retry'). Give help on interface function PL_retry()
```

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
### Table 2.1: History commands

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>!!.</code></td>
<td>Repeat last query</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>!nr.</code></td>
<td>Repeat query numbered <code>&lt;nr&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>!str.</code></td>
<td>Repeat last query starting with <code>&lt;str&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>h.</code></td>
<td>Show history of commands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>!h.</code></td>
<td>Show this list</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See also `apropos/1`, and the SWI-Prolog home page at http://www.swi-prolog.org, which provides a FAQ, an HTML version of manual for online browsing and HTML and PDF versions for downloading.

**apropos(+Pattern)**

Display all predicates, functions and sections that have Pattern in their name or summary description. Lowercase letters in Pattern also match a corresponding uppercase letter. Example:

```prolog
?- apropos(file).  % Display predicates, functions and sections that have 'file'
                   % (or 'File', etc.) in their summary description.
```

**explain(+ToExplain)**

Give an explanation on the given ‘object’. The argument may be any Prolog data object. If the argument is an atom, a term of the form `Name/Arity` or a term of the form `Module:Name/Arity`, `explain/1` describes the predicate as well as possible references to it. See also `gxref/0`.

**explain(+ToExplain, -Explanation)**

Unify Explanation with an explanation for ToExplain. Backtracking yields further explanations.

### 2.7 Command-line history

SWI-Prolog offers a query substitution mechanism called ‘history’. The availability of this feature is controlled by `set_prolog_flag/2`, using the `history` Prolog flag. By default, history is available if the Prolog flag `readline` is `false`. To enable this feature, remembering the last 50 commands, put the following into your startup file (see section 2.2):

```prolog
:- set_prolog_flag(history, 50).
```

The history system allows the user to compose new queries from those typed before and remembered by the system. The available history commands are shown in table 2.1. History expansion is not done if these sequences appear in quoted atoms or strings.

### 2.8 Reuse of top-level bindings

Bindings resulting from the successful execution of a top-level goal are asserted in a database. These values may be reused in further top-level queries as $Var$. Only the latest binding is available. Example:

Note that variables may be set by executing `=/2`:
2.9 Overview of the Debugger

SWI-Prolog has a 6-port tracer, extending the standard 4-port Byrd box model tracer [Byrd, 1980, Clocksin & Melish, 1987] with two additional ports. The optional unify port allows the user to inspect the result after unification of the head. The exception port shows exceptions raised by throw/1 or one of the built-in predicates. See section 4.9.

The standard ports are called call, exit, redo, fail and unify. The tracer is started by the trace/0 command, when a spy point is reached and the system is in debugging mode (see spy/1 and debug/0) or when an exception is raised.

The interactive top-level goal trace/0 means “trace the next query”. The tracer shows the port, displaying the port name, the current depth of the recursion and the goal. The goal
min_numlist([H|T], Min) :-
    min_numlist(T, H, Min).

min_numlist([], Min, Min).

min_numlist([H|T], Min0, Min) :-
    Min1 is min(H, Min0),
    min_numlist(T, Min1, Min).

1 ?- visible(+all), leash(-exit).
true.

2 ?- trace, min_numlist([3, 2], X).
   Call: (7) min_numlist([3, 2], _G0) ? creep
   Unify: (7) min_numlist([3, 2], _G0)
   Call: (8) min_numlist([2], 3, _G0) ? creep
   Unify: (8) min_numlist([2], 3, _G0)
   ^ Call: (9) _G54 is min(2, 3) ? creep
   ^ Exit: (9) 2 is min(2, 3)
   Call: (9) min_numlist([], 2, _G0) ? creep
   Unify: (9) min_numlist([], 2, 2)
   Exit: (9) min_numlist([], 2, 2)
   Exit: (8) min_numlist([2], 3, 2)
   Exit: (7) min_numlist([3, 2], 2)
X = 2.

Figure 2.2: Example trace of the program above showing all ports. The lines marked ^ indicate calls
   to transparent predicates. See section 5.

is printed using the Prolog predicate write_term/2. The style is defined by the Prolog flag
debugger_print_options and can be modified using this flag or using the w, p and d com-
mands of the tracer.

On leashed ports (set with the predicate leash/1, default are call, exit, redo and fail) the user is prompted for an action. All actions are single character commands which are executed
without waiting for a return, unless the command-line option -tty is active. Tracer options:

+ (Spy)
   Set a spy point (see spy/1) on the current predicate.

– (No spy)
   Remove the spy point (see nospy/1) from the current predicate.

/ (Find)
   Search for a port. After the ‘/’, the user can enter a line to specify the port to search for. This line consists of a set of letters indicating the port type, followed by an optional term, that should unify with the goal run by the port. If no term is specified it is taken as a variable, searching for
any port of the specified type. If an atom is given, any goal whose functor has a name equal to that atom matches. Examples:

- `/f` Search for any fail port
- `/fe solve` Search for a fail or exit port of any goal with name `solve`
- `/c solve(a, _)` Search for a call to `solve/2` whose first argument is a variable or the atom `a`
- `/a member(_, _)` Search for any port on `member/2`. This is equivalent to setting a spy point on `member/2`.

. (Repeat find)
Repeat the last find command (see `'/`).

A (Alternatives)
Show all goals that have alternatives.

C (Context)
Toggle ‘Show Context’. If on, the context module of the goal is displayed between square brackets (see section 5). Default is off.

L (Listing)
List the current predicate with `listing/1`.

a (Abort)
Abort Prolog execution (see `abort/0`).

b (Break)
Enter a Prolog break environment (see `break/0`).

c (Creep)
Continue execution, stop at next port. (Also return, space).

d (Display)
Set the `max_depth(Depth)` option of `debugger_print_options`, limiting the depth to which terms are printed. See also the `w` and `p` options.

e (Exit)
Terminate Prolog (see `halt/0`).

f (Fail)
Force failure of the current goal.

g (Goals)
Show the list of parent goals (the execution stack). Note that due to tail recursion optimization a number of parent goals might not exist any more.

h (Help)
Show available options (also ` '?'`).

i (Ignore)
Ignore the current goal, pretending it succeeded.
1 (Leap)
   Continue execution, stop at next spy point.

n (No debug)
   Continue execution in ‘no debug’ mode.

p (Print)
   Set the Prolog flag `debugger_print_options` to `[quoted(true), portray(true), max_depth(10), priority(699)]`. This is the default.

r (Retry)
   Undo all actions (except for database and i/o actions) back to the call port of the current goal and resume execution at the call port.

s (Skip)
   Continue execution, stop at the next port of this goal (thus skipping all calls to children of this goal).

u (Up)
   Continue execution, stop at the next port of the parent goal (thus skipping this goal and all calls to children of this goal). This option is useful to stop tracing a failure driven loop.

w (Write)
   Set the Prolog flag `debugger_print_options` to `[quoted(true), attributes(write), priority(699)]`, bypassing `portray/1`, etc.

The ideal 4 port Byrd box model [Byrd, 1980] as described in many Prolog books [Clocksin & Melish, 1987] is not visible in many Prolog implementations because code optimisation removes part of the choice- and exit-points. Backtrack points are not shown if either the goal succeeded deterministically or its alternatives were removed using the cut. When running in debug mode (`debug/0`) choice points are only destroyed when removed by the cut. In debug mode, last call optimisation is switched off. This implies the system can run out of local stack in debug mode, while no problems arise when running in non-debug mode.

Reference information to all predicates available for manipulating the debugger is in section 4.37.

2.10 Compilation

2.10.1 During program development

During program development, programs are normally loaded using `consult/1`, or the list abbreviation. It is common practice to organise a project as a collection of source files and a `load-file`, a Prolog file containing only `use_module/1,2` or `ensure_loaded/1` directives, possibly with a definition of the `entry-point` of the program, the predicate that is normally used to start the program. This file is often called `load.pl`. If the entry-point is called `go`, a typical session starts as:

```prolog
% swipl
<banner>
```

---

2. This implies the system can run out of local stack in debug mode, while no problems arise when running in non-debug mode.
2.10. COMPILATION

1 ?- [load].
<compilation messages>
Yes
2 ?- go.
<program interaction>

When using Windows, the user may open load.pl from the Windows explorer, which will cause swipl-win.exe to be started in the directory holding load.pl. Prolog loads load.pl before entering the top-level.

2.10.2 For running the result

There are various options if you want to make your program ready for real usage. The best choice depends on whether the program is to be used only on machines holding the SWI-Prolog development system, the size of the program and the operating system (Unix vs. Windows).

Using PrologScript

New in version 4.0.5 is the possibility to use a Prolog source file directly as a Unix script-file. The same mechanism is useful to specify additional parameters for running a Prolog file on Windows.

If the first letter of a Prolog file is #, the first line is treated as comment.\(^3\) To create a Prolog script, make the first line start like this:

```
#!/path/to/pl ⟨options⟩ -s
```

Prolog recognises this starting sequence and causes the interpreter to receive the following argument-list:

```
/path/to/pl ⟨options⟩ -s ⟨script⟩ -- ⟨ScriptArguments⟩
```

Instead of -s, the user may use -f to stop Prolog from looking for a personal initialisation file.
Here is a simple script doing expression evaluation:

```
#!/usr/bin/pl -q -t main -f

eval :-
    current_prolog_flag(argv, Argv),
    append(_, [--|Args], Argv),
    concat_atom(Args, '', SingleArg),
    term_to_atom(Term, SingleArg),
    Val is Term,
    format('˜w˜n', [Val]).

main :-
```

\(^3\)The # sign can be the legal start of a normal Prolog clause. In the unlikely case this is required, leave the first line blank or add a header-comment.
catch(eval, E, (print_message(error, E), fail)),
            halt.
main :-
            halt(1).

And here are two example runs:

% eval 1+2
3
% eval foo
ERROR: Arithmetic: ‘foo/0’ is not a function
%

The Windows version supports the #! construct too, but here it serves a rather different role. The Windows shell already allows the user to start Prolog source files directly through the Windows file-type association. Windows however makes it rather complicated to provide additional parameters, such as the required stack-size for an individual Prolog file. The #! line provides for this, providing a more flexible approach than changing the global defaults. The following starts Prolog with unlimited stack-size on the given source file:

#!/usr/bin/pl -L0 -T0 -G0 -s
....

Note the use of /usr/bin/pl, which specifies the interpreter. This argument is ignored in the Windows version, but required to ensure best cross-platform compatibility.

Creating a shell-script

With the introduction of PrologScript (see section 2.10.2), using shell-scripts as explained in this section has become redundant for most applications.

Especially on Unix systems and not-too-large applications, writing a shell-script that simply loads your application and calls the entry-point is often a good choice. A skeleton for the script is given below, followed by the Prolog code to obtain the program arguments.

#!/bin/sh
base=<absolute-path-to-source>
PL=pl
exec $PL -f none -g "load_files(['$base/load'],[silent(true)])" \
    -t go -- $*
On Windows systems, similar behaviour can be achieved by creating a shortcut to Prolog, passing the proper options or writing a .bat file.

Creating a saved-state

For larger programs, as well as for programs that are required to run on systems that do not have the SWI-Prolog development system installed, creating a saved state is the best solution. A saved state is created using `qsave_program/1,2` or using the linker `swipl-ld(1)`. A saved state is a file containing machine-independent intermediate code in a format dedicated for fast loading. Optionally, the emulator may be integrated in the saved state, creating a single-file, but machine-dependent, executable. This process is described in chapter 10.

Compilation using the -c command-line option

This mechanism loads a series of Prolog source files and then creates a saved-state as `qsave_program/2` does. The command syntax is:

```
% swipl [option ...] [-o output] -c file ...
```

The `options` argument are options to `qsave_program/2` written in the format below. The option-names and their values are described with `qsave_program/2`.

```
--option-name=option-value
```

For example, to create a stand-alone executable that starts by executing `main/0` and for which the source is loaded through `load.pl`, use the command

```
% swipl --goal=main --stand_alone=true -o myprog -c load.pl
```

This performs exactly the same as executing

```
% swipl
<banner>
?- [load].
?- qsave_program(myprog, [
goal(main),
stand_alone(true)
]).
?- halt.
```
2.11 Environment Control (Prolog flags)

The predicates `current_prolog_flag/2` and `set_prolog_flag/2` allow the user to examine and modify the execution environment. It provides access to whether optional features are available on this version, operating system, foreign-code environment, command-line arguments, version, as well as runtime flags to control the runtime behaviour of certain predicates to achieve compatibility with other Prolog environments.

`current_prolog_flag(?Key, -Value)`  
The predicate `current_prolog_flag/2` defines an interface to installation features: options compiled in, version, home, etc. With both arguments unbound, it will generate all defined Prolog flags. With ‘Key’ instantiated, it unifies the value of the Prolog flag. Flag values are typed. Flags marked as `bool` can have the values `true` and `false`. Some Prolog flags are not defined in all versions, which is normally indicated in the documentation below as “if present and true”. A Boolean Prolog flag is true iff the Prolog flag is present and the `Value` is the atom `true`. Tests for such flags should be written as below.

```prolog
    ( current_prolog_flag(windows, true)  
      -> <Do MS-Windows things>  
      ;  <Do normal things>  
    )
```

`address_bits (integer)`  
Address-size of the hosting machine. Typically 32 or 64. Except for the maximum stack limit, this has few implications to the user. See also the Prolog flag `arch`.

`age_margin (integer, changeable)`  
If this amount of atoms has been created since the last atom-garbage collection, perform atom garbage collection at the first opportunity. Initial value is 10,000. May be changed. A value of 0 (zero) disables atom garbage collection. See also `PL_register_atom()`.

`allow_variable_name_as_functor (bool, changeable)`  
If true (default is false), `Functor(arg)` is read as if it was written ‘Functor’ (arg). Some applications use the Prolog `read/1` predicate for reading an application defined script language. In these cases, it is often difficult to explain to non-Prolog users of the application that constants and functions can only start with a lowercase letter. Variables can be turned into atoms starting with an uppercase atom by calling `read_term/2` using the option `variable_names` and binding the variables to their name. Using this feature, F(x) can be turned into valid syntax for such script languages. Suggested by Robert van Engelen. SWI-Prolog specific.

`argv (list)`  
List is a list of atoms representing the command-line arguments used to invoke SWI-Prolog. Please note that all arguments are included in the list returned.

`arch (atom)`  
Identifier for the hardware and operating system SWI-Prolog is running on. Used to select foreign files for the right architecture. See also section 9.2.3 and `file_search_path/2`. 

---

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
associate (atom, changeable)
On Windows systems, this is set to the filename extension (pl (default) or pro (can be selected in the installer)) associated with swipl-win.exe.

autoload (bool, changeable)
If true (default) autoloading of library functions is enabled.

backquoted_string (bool, changeable)
If true (default false), read translates text between backquotes into a string object (see section 4.22). This flag is mainly for compatibility with LPA Prolog.

bounded (bool)
ISO Prolog flag. If true, integer representation is bound by min_integer and max_integer. If false integers can be arbitrarily large and the min_integer and max_integer are not present. See section 4.25.2.

c_cc (atom)
Name of the C-compiler used to compile SWI-Prolog. Normally either gcc or cc. See section 9.5.

c_ldflags (atom)
Special linker flags passed to link SWI-Prolog. See section 9.5.

c_libs (atom)
Libraries passed to the C-linker when SWI-Prolog was linked. May be used to determine the libraries needed to create statically linked extensions for SWI-Prolog. See section 9.5.

char_conversion (bool, changeable)
Determines whether character-conversion takes place while reading terms. See also char_conversion/2.

character_escapes (bool, changeable)
If true (default), read/1 interprets \ escape sequences in quoted atoms and strings. May be changed. This flag is local to the module in which it is changed.

compiled_at (atom)
Describes when the system has been compiled. Only available if the C-compiler used to compile SWI-Prolog provides the __DATE__ and __TIME__ macros.

console_menu (bool)
Set to true in swipl-win.exe to indicate the console supports menus. See also section 4.33.2.

cpu_count (integer, changeable)
Number of physical CPUs in the system. Unfortunately there is no standard to get this number, so on most operating systems this flag is not available. It is marked read-write both to allow obtaining this value later and to allow pretending the system has more or less processors. See also thread_setconcurrency/2 and the library thread. Currently this flag is supported in Windows and Linux if /proc is enabled. If you can provide us with a C-code fragment getting the number for a specific OS, please submit an enhancement report at http://gollem.science.uva.nl/bugzilla/

dde (bool)
Set to true if this instance of Prolog supports DDE as described in section 4.41.
debug (bool, changeable)
Switch debugging mode on/off. If debug mode is activated the system traps encountered
spy-points (see spy/1) and trace-points (see trace/1). In addition, last-call optimi-
sation is disabled and the system is more conservative in destroying choice points to
simplify debugging.
Disabling these optimisations can cause the system to run out of memory on programs
that behave correctly if debug mode is off.

debug_on_error (bool, changeable)
If true, start the tracer after an error is detected. Otherwise just continue execution. The
goal that raised the error will normally fail. See also fileerrors/2 and the Prolog
flag report_error. May be changed. Default is true, except for the runtime version.

debugger_print_options (term, changeable)
This argument is given as option-list to write_term/2 for printing goals by the de-
bugger. Modified by the ‘w’, ‘p’ and ‘langle N’ d’ commands of the debugger. Default is
[quoted(true), portray(true), max_depth(10), attributes(portray)].

debugger_show_context (bool, changeable)
If true, show the context module while printing a stack-frame in the tracer. Normally
controlled using the ‘C’ option of the tracer.

dialect (atom)
Fixed to swi. The code below is a reliable and portable way to detect SWI-Prolog.

is_dialect(swi) :-
catch(current_prolog_flag(dialect, swi), _, fail).

double_quotes (codes, chars, atom, string, changeable)
This flag determines how double quoted strings are read by Prolog and is —like
character_escapes— maintained for each module. If codes (default), a list of
character-codes is returned, if chars a list of one-character atoms, if atom double
quotes are the same as single-quotes and finally, string reads the text into a Prolog
string (see section 4.22). See also atom_chars/2 and atom_codes/2.

double_quotes (codes, chars, atom, string, changeable)
This flag determines how double quoted strings are read by Prolog and is —like
character_escapes— maintained for each module. If codes (default), a list of
character-codes is returned, if chars a list of one-character atoms, if atom double
quotes are the same as single-quotes and finally, string reads the text into a Prolog
string (see section 4.22). See also atom_chars/2 and atom_codes/2.

default_encoding (atom)
Default encoding used for opening files in text
mode. The initial value is deduced from
the environment. See section 2.17.1 for details.

editor (atom, changeable)
Determines the editor used by edit/1. See section 4.4 for details on selecting the editor
used.

dia(scene, inferior) (bool)
If true, SWI-Prolog is running as an inferior process of (GNU/X-)Emacs. SWI-Prolog
assumes this is the case if the environment variable EMACS is t and INFERIOR is yes.

dia(scene, inferior) (bool)
If true, SWI-Prolog is running as an inferior process of (GNU/X-)Emacs. SWI-Prolog
assumes this is the case if the environment variable EMACS is t and INFERIOR is yes.

encoding (atom, changeable)
Default encoding used for opening files in text mode. The initial value is deduced from
the environment. See section 2.17.1 for details.

executable (atom)
Path-name of the running executable. Used by qsave_program/2 as default emulator.

file_name_variables (bool, changeable)
If true (default false), expand $varname and ˜ in arguments of built-in predicates
that accept a file name (open/3, exists_file/1, access_file/2, etc.). The predicate expand_file_name/2 can be used to expand environment variables and
wildcard patterns. This Prolog flag is intended for backward compatibility with older
versions of SWI-Prolog.

**gc (bool, changeable)**
If true (default), the garbage collector is active. If false, neither garbage-collection, nor
stack-shifts will take place, even not on explicit request. May be changed.

**generate_debug_info (bool, changeable)**
If true (default) generate code that can be debugged using trace/0, spy/1, etc. Can
be set to false using the -nodebug. The predicate load_files/2 restores the value
of this flag after loading a file, causing modifications to be local to a source file. Many of
the libraries have :- set_prolog_flag(generate_debug_info, false) to
hide their details from a normal trace.

**gmp_version (integer)**
If Prolog is linked with GMP, this flag gives the major version of the GMP library used.
See also section 9.4.8.

**gui (bool)**
Set to true if XPCE is around and can be used for graphics.

**history (integer, changeable)**
If integer > 0, support Unix csh(1) like history as described in section 2.7. Otherwise,
only support reusing commands through the command-line editor. The default is to set
this Prolog flag to 0 if a command-line editor is provided (see Prolog flag readline)
and 15 otherwise.

**home (atom)**
SWI-Prolog’s notion of the home-directory. SWI-Prolog uses its home directory to find
its startup file as ⟨home⟩/boot32.prc (32-bit machines) or ⟨home⟩/boot64.prc
(64-bit machines) and to find its library as ⟨home⟩/library.

**hwnd (integer)**
In swipl-win.exe, this refers to the MS-Windows window-handle of the console
window.

**integer_rounding_function (down, toward_zero)**
ISO Prolog flag describing rounding by // and rem arithmetic functions. Value depends
on the C-compiler used.

**iso (bool, changeable)**
Include some weird ISO compatibility that is incompatible with normal SWI-Prolog
behaviour. Currently it has the following effect:

- The //2 (float division) always return a float, even if applied to integers that can be
divided.
- In the standard order of terms (see section 4.6.1), all floats are before all integers.
- atom_length/2 yields a type error if the first argument is a number.
- clause/[2,3] raises a permission error when accessing static predicates.
- abolish/[1,2] raises a permission error when accessing static predicates.
- Syntax is closer to the ISO standard.

---

4 In the current implementation this only causes a flag to be set on the predicate that causes children to be hidden from
the debugger. The name anticipates on anticipated changes to the compiler.
– Unquoted commas and bars appearing as atoms are not allowed. Instead of $f(,,a)$ now write $f(',,a)$. Unquoted commas can only be used to separate arguments in functional notation and list notation, and as a conjunction operator. Unquoted bars can only appear within lists to separate head and tail like [Head|Tail], and as infix operator for alternation in grammar rules like a --> b | c.

– Within functional notation and list notation terms must have priority below 1000. That means that rules and control constructs appearing as arguments need bracketing. A term like [a :- b, c]. must now be disambiguated to mean [(a :- b), c]. or [(a :- b, c)].

– Operators appearing as operands must be bracketed. Instead of $X == -, true.$ write $X == (-), true.$ Currently, this is not entirely enforced.

**large_files** (bool)

If present and true, SWI-Prolog has been compiled with *large file support* (LFS) and is capable to access files larger than 2GB on 32-bit hardware. Large file-support is default on installations built using configure that support it and may be switched off using the configure option --disable-largefile.

**max arity** (unbounded)

ISO Prolog flag describing there is no maximum arity to compound terms.

**max_integer** (integer)

Maximum integer value if integers are bounded. See also the flag bounded and section 4.25.2.

**max_tagged_integer** (integer)

Maximum integer value represented as a ‘tagged’ value. Tagged integers require 1 word storage. Larger integers are represented as ‘indirect data’ and require significantly more space.

**min_integer** (integer)

Minimum integer value if integers are bounded. See also the flag bounded and section 4.25.2.

**min_tagged_integer** (integer)

Start of the tagged-integer value range.

**occurs_check** (atom, changeable)

This flag controls unification that creates an infinite tree (also called cyclic term) and can have three values. Using false (default), unification succeeds, creating an infinite tree. Using true, unification behaves as unify_with_occurs_check/2, failing silently. Using error, an attempt to create a cyclic term results in an occurs_check exception. The latter is intended for debugging unintentional creations of cyclic terms. Note that this flag is a global flag modifying fundamental behaviour of Prolog. Changing the flag from its default may cause libraries to stop functioning properly.

**open_shared_object** (bool)

If true, open_shared_object/2 and friends are implemented, providing access to shared libraries (.so files) or dynamic link libraries (.DLL files).
2.11. ENVIRONMENT CONTROL (PROLOG FLAGS)

**optimise** *(bool, changeable)*
If true, compile in optimised mode. The initial value is true if Prolog was started with the -O command-line option.
Currently optimise compilation implies compilation of arithmetic, and deletion of redundant true/0 that may result from expand_goal/2.
Later versions might imply various other optimisations such as integrating small predicates into their callers, eliminating constant expressions and other predictable constructs.
Source code optimisation is never applied to predicates that are declared dynamic (see dynamic/1).

**pid** *(int)*
Process identifier of the running Prolog process. Existence of this flag is implementation defined.

**pipe** *(bool, changeable)*
If true, open(pipe(command), mode, Stream), etc. are supported. Can be changed to disable the use of pipes in applications testing this feature. Not recommended.

**prompt_alternatives_on** *(atom, changeable)*
Determines prompting for alternatives in the Prolog toplevel. Default is determinism, which implies the system prompts for alternatives if the goal succeeded while leaving choicepoints. Many classical Prolog systems behave as groundness: they prompt for alternatives if and only if the query contains variables.

**qcompile** *(atom, changeable)*
This option provides the default for the qcompile(+Atom) option of load_files/2.

**readline** *(bool)*
If true, SWI-Prolog is linked with the readline library. This is done by default if you have this library installed on your system. It is also true for the Win32 swipl-win.exe version of SWI-Prolog, which realises a subset of the readline functionality.

**resource_database** *(atom)*
Set to the absolute-filename of the attached state. Typically this is the file boot32.prc, the file specified with -x or the running executable. See also resource/3.

**report_error** *(bool, changeable)*
If true, print error messages, otherwise suppress them. May be changed. See also the debug_on_error Prolog flag. Default is true, except for the runtime version.

**runtime** *(bool)*
If present and true, SWI-Prolog is compiled with -DO_RUNTIME, disabling various useful development features (currently the tracer and profiler).

**saved_program** *(bool)*
If present and true, Prolog has been started from a state saved with qsave_program/[1,2].

**shared_object_extension** *(atom)*
Extension used by the operating system for shared objects. .so for most Unix systems and .dll for Windows. Used for locating files using the file_type executable. See also absolute_file_name/3.

**shared_object_search_path** *(atom)*
Name of the environment variable used by the system to search for shared objects.
signals (bool)
Determine whether Prolog is handling signals (software interrupts). This flag is false if the hosting OS does not support signal handling or the command-line option -nosignals is active. See section 9.4.21 for details.

system_thread_id (int)
Available in multi-threaded version (see section 8) where the operating system provides system-wide integer thread identifiers. The integer is the thread-identifier used by the operating system for the calling thread. See also thread_self/1.

last_call_optimisation (bool, changeable)
Determines whether or not last-call optimisation is enabled. Normally the value of this flag is equal to the debug flag. As programs may run out of stack if last-call optimisation is omitted, it is sometimes necessary to enable it during debugging.

timezone (integer)
Offset in seconds west of GMT of the current time-zone. Set at initialization time from the timezone variable associated with the POSIX tzset() function. See also convert_time/2.

toplevel_print_anon (bool, changeable)
If true, top-level variables starting with an underscore (_) are printed normally. If false they are hidden. This may be used to hide bindings in complex queries from the top-level.

toplevel_print_factorized (bool, changeable)
If true (default false) show the internal sharing of subterms in the answer substitution. The example below reveals internal sharing of leaf-nodes in red-black trees as implemented by the rbtrees predicate rb_new/1:

?- set_prolog_flag(toplevel_print_factorized, true).
?- rb_new(X).
X = t(_S1, _S1), % where
   _S1 = black('', _G387, _G388, '').

If this flag is false, the % where notation is still used to indicate cycles as illustrated below. This example also shows that the implementation reveals the internal cycle length, and not the minimal cycle length. Cycles of different length are indistinguishable in Prolog (as illustrated by S == R).

?- S = s(S), R = s(s(R)), S == R.
S = s(S),
R = s(s(R)).

toplevel_print_options (term, changeable)
This argument is given as option-list to write_term/2 for printing results of queries. Default is [quoted(true), portray(true), max_depth(10), attributes(portray)].

toplevel_var_size (int, changeable)
Maximum size counted in literals of a term returned as a binding for a variable in a top-level query that is saved for re-use using the $ variable reference. See section 2.8.

trace_gc (bool, changeable)
If true (false is the default), garbage collections and stack-shifts will be reported on the
terminal. May be changed. Values are reported in bytes as $G+T$, where $G$ is the global stack value and $T$ the trail stack value. ‘Gained’ describes the number of bytes reclaimed. ‘used’ the number of bytes on the stack after GC and ‘free’ the number of bytes allocated, but not in use. Below is an example output.

```
% GC: gained 236,416+163,424 in 0.00 sec; used 13,448+5,808; free 72,568+47,440
```

tty_control (bool)

Determines whether the terminal is switched to raw mode for `get_single_char/1`, which also reads the user-actions for the trace. May be set. See also the +/-tty command-line option.

unix (bool)

If present and true, the operating system is some version of Unix. Defined if the C-compiler used to compile this version of SWI-Prolog either defines `__unix__` or `unix`. On other systems this flag is not available.

unknown (fail, warning, error, changeable)

Determines the behaviour if an undefined procedure is encountered. If fail, the predicates fails silently. If warn, a warning is printed, and execution continues as if the predicate was not defined and if error (default), an existence_error exception is raised. This flag is local to each module and inherited from the module’s import-module. Using default setup, this implies that normal modules inherit the flag from user, which in turn inherits the value error from system. The user may change the flag for module user to change the default for all application modules or for a specific module. It is strongly advised to keep the error default and use dynamic/1 and/or multifile/1 to specify possible non-existence of a predicate.

user_flags (Atom, changeable)

Define the behaviour of set_prolog_flag/2 if the flag is not known. Values are silent, warning and error. The first two create the flag on-the-fly, where warning prints a message. The value error is consistent with ISO: it raises an existence error and does not create the flag. See also create_prolog_flag/3. The default is silent, but future versions may change that. Developers are encouraged to use another value and ensure proper use of create_prolog_flag/3 to create flags for their library.

verbose (Atom, changeable)

This flags is used by `print_message/2`. If its value is silent, messages of type informational and banner are suppressed. The -q switches the value from the initial normal to silent.

verbose_autoload (bool, changeable)

If true the normal consult message will be printed if a library is autoloaded. By default this message is suppressed. Intended to be used for debugging purposes.

verbose_load (bool, changeable)

If false normal consult messages will be suppressed. Default is true. The value of this flag is normally controlled by the option silent(Bool) provided by load_files/2.

verbose_file_search (bool, changeable)

If true (default false), print messages indicating the progress of
absolute_file_name/[2,3] in locating files. Intended for debugging complicated file-search paths. See also file_search_path/2.

version (integer)
The version identifier is an integer with value:

\[ 10000 \times \text{Major} + 100 \times \text{Minor} + \text{Patch} \]

Note that in releases up to 2.7.10 this Prolog flag yielded an atom holding the three numbers separated by dots. The current representation is much easier for implementing version-conditional statements.

version_data (swi(Major, Minor, Patch, Extra))
Part of the dialect compatibility layer, See also the Prolog flag dialect and section C. Extra provides platform specific version information. Currently it is simply unified to [].

version_git (atom)
Available if created from a git repository. See git-describe for details.

windows (bool)
If present and true, the operating system is an implementation of Microsoft Windows (NT/2000/XP, etc.). This flag is only available on MS-Windows based versions.

write_attributes (atom, changeable)
Defines how write/1 and friends write attributed variables. The option values are described with the attributes option of write_term/3. Default is ignore.

write_help_with_overstrike (bool)
Internal flag used by help/1 when writing to a terminal. If present and true it prints bold and underlined text using overstrike.

xpce (bool)
Available and set to true if the XPCE graphics system is loaded.

xpce_version (atom)
Available and set to the version of the loaded XPCE system.

set_prolog_flag(:Key, +Value) [ISO]
Define a new Prolog flag or change its value. Key is an atom. If the flag is a system-defined flag that is not marked changeable above, an attempt to modify the flag yields a permission_error. If the provided Value does not match the type of the flag, a type_error is raised.

Some flags (e.g., unknown) are maintained on a per-module basis. The addressed module is determined by the Key argument.

In addition to ISO, SWI-Prolog allows for user-defined Prolog flags. The type of the flag is determined from the initial value and cannot be changed afterwards. Defined types are boolean (if the initial value is one of false, true, on or off), atom if the initial value is any other atom, integer if the value is an integer that can be expressed as a 64-bit signed value. Any other initial value results in an untyped flag that can represent any valid Prolog term.

Originally, SWI-Prolog’s set_prolog_flag/2 created a new Prolog flag if the flag Key did not exist. It still does this, but now prints a warning. New code must use create_prolog_flag/3 to introduce new flags. Future versions are likely to replace this printed warning with an existence error.
create_prolog_flag(+Key, +Value, +Options)  \[YAP\]
Create a new Prolog flag. The ISO standard does not foresee creation of new flags, but many libraries introduce new flags. Options is a list of the following options:

access(+Access)
Define access-rights for the flag. Values are read, write, and read_only. The default is read/write.

type(+Atom)
Define a type-restriction. Possible values are boolean, atom, integer, float and term. The default is determined from the initial value. Note that term restricts the term to be ground.

This predicate behaves as set_prolog_flag/2 if the flag already exists. See also user_flags.

2.12 An overview of hook predicates

SWI-Prolog provides a large number of hooks, mainly to control handling messages, debugging, startup, shut-down, macro-expansion, etc. Below is a summary of all defined hooks with an indication of their portability.

- portray/1
  Hook into write_term/3 to alter the way terms are printed (ISO).

- message_hook/3
  Hook into print_message/2 to alter the way system messages are printed (Quintus/SICStus).

- library_directory/1
  Hook into absolute_file_name/3 to define new library directories. (most Prolog system).

- file_search_path/2
  Hook into absolute_file_name/3 to define new search-paths (Quintus/SICStus).

- term_expansion/2
  Hook into load_files/2 to modify read terms before they are compiled (macro-processing) (most Prolog system).

- goal_expansion/2
  Same as term_expansion/2 for individual goals (SICStus).

- prolog_load_file/2
  Hook into load_files/2 to load other data-formats for Prolog sources from ‘non-file’ resources. The load_files/2 predicate is the ancestor of consult/1, use_module/1, etc.

- prolog_edit:locate/3
  Hook into edit/1 to locate objects (SWI).
• `prolog_edit:edit_source/1`
  Hook into `edit/1` to call some internal editor (SWI).

• `prolog_edit:edit_command/2`
  Hook into `edit/1` to define the external editor to use (SWI).

• `prolog_list_goal/1`
  Hook into the tracer to list the code associated to a particular goal (SWI).

• `prolog_trace_interception/4`
  Hook into the tracer to handle trace-events (SWI).

• `prolog:debug_control_hook/1`
  Hook in `spy/1`, `nospy/1`, `nospyall/0` and `debugging/0` to extend these control-predicates to higher-level libraries.

• `prolog:help_hook/1`
  Hook in `help/0`, `help/1` and `apropos/1` to extend the help-system.

• `resource/3`
  Defines a new resource (not really a hook, but similar) (SWI).

• `exception/3`
  Old attempt to a generic hook mechanism. Handles undefined predicates (SWI).

• `attr_unify_hook/2`
  Unification hook for attributed variables. Can be defined in any module. See section 6.1 for details.

### 2.13 Automatic loading of libraries

If—at runtime—an undefined predicate is trapped the system will first try to import the predicate from the module’s default module. If this fails the auto loader is activated. On first activation an index to all library files in all library directories is loaded in core (see `library_directory/1`, `file_search_path/2` and `reload_library_index/0`). If the undefined predicate can be located in one of the libraries that library file is automatically loaded and the call to the (previously undefined) predicate is restarted. By default this mechanism loads the file silently. The current prolog flag `verbose_autoload` is provided to get verbose loading. The Prolog flag `autoload` can be used to enable/disable the auto-load system.

Autoloading only handles (library) source files that use the module mechanism described in chapter 5. The files are loaded with `use_module/2` and only the trapped undefined predicate will be imported to the module where the undefined predicate was called. Each library directory must hold a file `INDEX.pl` that contains an index to all library files in the directory. This file consists of lines of the following format:

```
index(Name, Arity, Module, File).
```

The predicate `make/0` updates the autoload index. It searches for all library directories (see `library_directory/1` and `file_search_path/2`) holding the file MKINDEX.pl or
INDEX.pl. If the current user can write or create the file INDEX.pl and it does not exist or is older than the directory or one of its files, the index for this directory is updated. If the file MKINDEX.pl exists updating is achieved by loading this file, normally containing a directive calling make_library_index/2. Otherwise make_library_index/1 is called, creating an index for all *.pl files containing a module.

Below is an example creating a completely indexed library directory.

```
% mkdir ~/lib/prolog
% cd ~/lib/prolog
% swipl -g true -t 'make_library_index(.)'
```

If there are more than one library files containing the desired predicate the following search schema is followed:

1. If there is a library file that defines the module in which the undefined predicate is trapped, this file is used.
2. Otherwise library files are considered in the order they appear in the library_directory/1 predicate and within the directory alphabetically.

**make_library_index(+Directory)**

Create an index for this directory. The index is written to the file `INDEX.pl` in the specified directory. Fails with a warning if the directory does not exist or is write protected.

**make_library_index(+Directory, +ListOfPatterns)**

Normally used in MKINDEX.pl, this predicate creates INDEX.pl for **Directory**, indexing all files that match one of the file-patterns in **ListOfPatterns**.

Sometimes library packages consist of one public load file and a number of files used by this load-file, exporting predicates that should not be used directly by the end-user. Such a library can be placed in a sub-directory of the library and the files containing public functionality can be added to the index of the library. As an example we give the XPCE library's MKINDEX.pl, including the public functionality of trace/browse.pl to the autoloadable predicates for the XPCE package.

```
:- make_library_index('..',
                        ['*.pl',
                         'trace/browse.pl'])
```

**reload_library_index**

Force reloading the index after modifying the set of library directories by changing the rules for library_directory/1, file_search_path/2, adding or deleting INDEX.pl files. This predicate does not update the INDEX.pl files. Check make_library_index/[1,2] and make/0 for updating the index files.

Normally, the index is reloaded automatically if a predicate cannot be found in the index and the set of library directories has changed. Using reload_library_index/0 is necessary if directories are removed or the order of the library directories is changed.
2.14 Garbage Collection

SWI-Prolog provides garbage-collection, last-call optimization and atom garbage collection. These features are controlled using Prolog flags (see current_prolog_flag/2).

2.15 Syntax Notes

SWI-Prolog syntax is close to ISO-Prolog standard syntax, which is closely compatible with Edinburgh Prolog syntax. A description of this syntax can be found in the Prolog books referenced in the introduction. Below are some non-standard or non-common constructs that are accepted by SWI-Prolog:

- /* ...*/...
  The /* ...*/ comment statement can be nested. This is useful if some code with /* ...*/ comment statements in it should be commented out.

2.15.1 ISO Syntax Support

SWI-Prolog offers ISO compatible extensions to the Edinburgh syntax.

Processor Character Set

The processor character set specifies the class of each character used for parsing Prolog source text. Character classification is fixed to use UCS/Unicode as provided by the C-library wchar_t based primitives. See also section 2.17.

Character Escape Syntax

Within quoted atoms (using single quotes: ‘<atom>’) special characters are represented using escape-sequences. An escape sequence is lead in by the backslash (\) character. The list of escape sequences is compatible with the ISO standard, but contains one extension and the interpretation of numerically specified characters is slightly more flexible to improve compatibility.

\a
  Alert character. Normally the ASCII character 7 (beep).

\b
  Backspace character.

\c
  No output. All input characters up to but not including the first non-layout character are skipped. This allows for the specification of pretty-looking long lines. For compatibility with Quintus Prolog. Not supported by ISO. Example:

  format('This is a long line that looks better if it was \c split across multiple physical lines in the input')
2.15. SYNTAX NOTES

\(\texttt{(RETURN)}\)

No output. Skips input to the next non-layout character or to the end of the next line. ISO demands skipping only the newline. We advice to use \texttt{\texttt{\}} or put the layout \texttt{before} the \texttt{\}, as shown below. Using \texttt{\}} is supported by various other Prolog implementations and will remain supported by SWI-Prolog. The style shown below is the most compatible solution.\(^5\)

```
format(’This is a long line that looks better if it was \n split across multiple physical lines in the input’)
```

instead of

```
format(’This is a long line that looks better if it was\n split across multiple physical lines in the input’)
```

\texttt{\e}

Escape character (ASCII 27).

\texttt{\f}

Form-feed character.

\texttt{\n}

Next-line character.

\texttt{\r}

Carriage-return only (i.e., go back to the start of the line).

\texttt{\t}

Horizontal tab-character.

\texttt{\v}

Vertical tab-character (ASCII 11).

\texttt{\xXX..\}

Hexadecimal specification of a character. The closing \texttt{\}} is obligatory according to the ISO standard, but optional in SWI-Prolog to enhance compatibility with the older Edinburgh standard. The code \texttt{\xa\3} emits the character 10 (hexadecimal ‘a’) followed by ‘3’. Characters specified this way are interpreted as Unicode characters. See also \texttt{\u}.

\texttt{\uXXXX}

Unicode character specification where the character is specified using \textit{exactly} 4 hexadecimal digits. This is an extension to the ISO standard fixing two problems. First of all, where \texttt{\x} defines a numeric character code, it doesn’t specify the character set in which the character should be interpreted. Second, it is not needed to use the idiosyncratic closing \texttt{\ ISO Prolog syntax.}

\texttt{\UXXXXXXXX}

Same as \texttt{\uXXXX}, but using 8 digits to cover the whole Unicode set.

\(^5\)Future versions are likely to interpret \texttt{\texttt{(return)}} according to ISO.
Octal character specification. The rules and remarks for hexadecimal specifications apply to octal specifications as well.

Any character immediately preceded by a \ and not covered by the above escape sequences is copied verbatim. Thus, '\\' is an atom consisting of a single \ and ''' and ''' both describe the atom with a single '.

Character escaping is only available if the current_prolog_flag(character_escapes, true) is active (default). See current_prolog_flag/2. Character escapes conflict with writef/2 in two ways: \40 is interpreted as decimal 40 by writef/2, but character escapes handling by read has already interpreted as 32 (40 octal). Also, \l is translated to a single 'l'. It is advised to use the more widely supported format/[2,3] predicate instead. If you insist upon using writef/2, either switch character_escapes to false, or use double \, as in writef('\\l').

Syntax for non-decimal numbers

SWI-Prolog implements both Edinburgh and ISO representations for non-decimal numbers. According to Edinburgh syntax, such numbers are written as ⟨radix⟩<number>, where ⟨radix⟩ is a number between 2 and 36. ISO defines binary, octal and hexadecimal numbers using 0[bxo]<number>. For example: A is 0b100 / 0xf00 is a valid expression. Such numbers are always unsigned.

Unicode Prolog source

The ISO standard specifies the Prolog syntax in ASCII characters. As SWI-Prolog supports Unicode in source files we must extend the syntax. This section describes the implication for the source files, while writing international source files is described in section 3.1.3.

The SWI-Prolog Unicode character classification is based on version 6.0.0 of the Unicode standard. Please note that char_type/2 and friends, intended to be used with all text except Prolog source code is based on the C-library locale-based classification routines.

- **Quoted atoms and strings**
  Any character of any script can be used in quoted atoms and strings. The escape sequences \uxXXX and \uXXXXXXXX (see section 2.15.1) were introduced to specify Unicode code points in ASCII files.

- **Atoms and Variables**
  We handle them in one item as they are closely related. The Unicode standard defines a syntax for identifiers in computer languages. In this syntax identifiers start with ID_Start followed by a sequence of ID_Continue codes. Such sequences are handled as a single token in SWI-Prolog. The token is a variable iff it starts with an uppercase character or an underscore (_). Otherwise it is an atom. Note that many languages do not have the notion of character-case. In such languages variables must be written as _name.

- **White space**
  All characters marked as separators (Z*) in the Unicode tables are handled as layout characters.

\(\text{http://www.unicode.org/reports/tr31/}\)
• **Control and unassigned characters**
  Control and unassigned (C*) characters produce a syntax error if encountered outside quoted atoms/strings and outside comments.

• **Other characters**
  The first 128 characters follow the ISO Prolog standard. Unicode symbol and punctuation characters (general category S* and P*) act as glueing symbol characters (i.e., just like ==: an unquoted sequence of symbol characters are combined into an atom).

Other characters (this is mainly No: a numeric character of other type) are currently handled as ‘solo’.

### Singleton variable checking

A *singleton variable* is a variable that appears only one time in a clause. It can always be replaced by _, the *anonymous* variable. In some cases however people prefer to give the variable a name. As mistyping a variable is a common mistake, Prolog systems generally give a warning (controlled by style_check/1) if a variable is used only once. The system can be informed a variable is known to appear once by starting it with an underscore. E.g. _Name. Please note that any variable, except plain _, shares with variables of the same name. The term t (_, X, _X) is equivalent to t (X, X), which is different from t (_-, _).

As Unicode requires variables to start with an underscore in many languages this schema needs to be extended.⁷ First we define the two classes of named variables.

• **Named singleton variables**
  Named singletons start with a double underscore (__) or a single underscore followed by an uppercase letter. E.g. __var or _Var.

• **Normal variables**
  All other variables are ‘normal’ variables. Note this makes _var a normal variable.⁸

Any normal variable appearing exactly once in the clause *and* any named singleton variables appearing more than once are reported. Below are some examples with warnings in the right column. Singleton messages can be suppressed using the style_check/1 directive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Singleton variables</th>
<th>Singleton-marked variables appearing more than once</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>test(_).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>test(_a).</td>
<td>[a]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>test(_12).</td>
<td>[_12]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>test(A).</td>
<td>[A]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>test(_A).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>test(_a).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>test(_, _).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>test(_a, _a).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>test(_a, _a).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>test(_, _a).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>test(_A, _a).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>test(A, A).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

⁷ After a proposal by Richard O’Keefe.

⁸ Some Prolog dialects write variables this way.
2.16 Infinite trees (cyclic terms)

SWI-Prolog has limited support for infinite trees, also known as cyclic terms. Full support requires special code in all built-in predicates that require recursive exploration of a term. The current version supports cyclic terms in the pure Prolog kernel including the garbage collector and in the following predicates: =../2, ==/2, @=/2, =/2, @</2, @=</2, \=/2, \=/@=/2, \=/2, acyclic_term/1, bagof/3, compare/3, copy_term/2, cyclic_term/1, dif/2, duplicate_term/2, findall/3, ground/1, term_hash/2, numvars/[3, 4], recorda/3, recordz/3, setof/3, term_variables/2, throw/1, when/2, write/1 (incomplete).

2.17 Wide character support

SWI-Prolog supports wide characters, characters with character codes above 255 that cannot be represented in a single byte. Universal Character Set (UCS) is the ISO/IEC 10646 standard that specifies a unique 31-bits unsigned integer for any character in any language. It is a superset of 16-bit Unicode, which in turn is a superset of ISO 8859-1 (ISO Latin-1), a superset of US-ASCII. UCS can handle strings holding characters from multiple languages and character classification (uppercase, lowercase, digit, etc.) and operations such as case-conversion are unambiguously defined.

For this reason SWI-Prolog has two representations for atoms and string objects (see section 4.22). If the text fits in ISO Latin-1, it is represented as an array of 8-bit characters. Otherwise the text is represented as an array of 32-bit numbers. This representational issue is completely transparent to the Prolog user. Users of the foreign language interface as described in section 9 sometimes need to be aware of these issues though.

Character coding comes into view when characters of strings need to be read from or written to file or when they have to be communicated to other software components using the foreign language interface. In this section we only deal with I/O through streams, which includes file I/O as well as I/O through network sockets.

2.17.1 Wide character encodings on streams

Although characters are uniquely coded using the UCS standard internally, streams and files are byte (8-bit) oriented and there are a variety of ways to represent the larger UCS codes in an 8-bit octet stream. The most popular one, especially in the context of the web, is UTF-8. Bytes 0 ... 127 represent simply the corresponding US-ASCII character, while bytes 128 ... 255 are used for multi-byte encoding of characters placed higher in the UCS space. Especially on MS-Windows the 16-bit Unicode standard, represented by pairs of bytes is also popular.

Prolog I/O streams have a property called encoding which specifies the used encoding that influence get_code/2 and put_code/2 as well as all the other text I/O predicates.

The default encoding for files is derived from the Prolog flag encoding, which is initialised from the environment. If the environment variable LANG ends in "UTF-8", this encoding is assumed. Otherwise the default is text and the translation is left to the wide-character functions of the C-library. 9 The encoding can be specified explicitly in load_files/2 for loading Prolog source with an alternative encoding, open/4 when opening files or using set_stream/2 on any open stream. For Prolog source files we also provide the encoding/1 directive that can be used

---

9The Prolog native UTF-8 mode is considerably faster than the generic mbtowc() one.
2.17. WIDE CHARACTER SUPPORT

SWI-Prolog currently defines and supports the following encodings:

**octet**
Default encoding for binary streams. This causes the stream to be read and written fully untranslated.

**ascii**
7-bit encoding in 8-bit bytes. Equivalent to `iso_latin_1`, but generates errors and warnings on encountering values above 127.

**iso_latin_1**
8-bit encoding supporting many western languages. This causes the stream to be read and written fully untranslated.

**text**
C-library default locale encoding for text files. Files are read and written using the C-library functions `mbtowc()` and `wcrtomb()`. This may be the same as one of the other locales, notably it may be the same as `iso_latin_1` for western languages and `utf8` in a UTF-8 context.

**utf8**
Multi-byte encoding of full UCS, compatible with `ascii`. See above.

**unicode_be**
Unicode **Big Endian**. Reads input in pairs of bytes, most significant byte first. Can only represent 16-bit characters.

**unicode_le**
Unicode **Little Endian**. Reads input in pairs of bytes, least significant byte first. Can only represent 16-bit characters.

Note that not all encodings can represent all characters. This implies that writing text to a stream may cause errors because the stream cannot represent these characters. The behaviour of a stream on these errors can be controlled using `set_stream/2`. Initially the terminal stream write the characters using Prolog escape sequences while other streams generate an I/O exception.

**BOM: Byte Order Mark**

From section 2.17.1, you may have got the impression text-files are complicated. This section deals with a related topic, making live often easier for the user, but providing another worry to the programmer. **BOM** or **Byte Order Marker** is a technique for identifying Unicode text-files as well as the encoding they use. Such files start with the Unicode character 0xFEFF, a non-breaking, zero-width space character. This is a pretty unique sequence that is not likely to be the start of a non-Unicode file and uniquely distinguishes the various Unicode file formats. As it is a zero-width blank, it even doesn’t produce any output. This solves all problems, or . . .

Some formats start of as US-ASCII and may contain some encoding mark to switch to UTF-8, such as the `encoding="UTF-8"` in an XML header. Such formats often explicitly forbid the use
of a UTF-8 BOM. In other cases there is additional information telling the encoding making the use of a BOM redundant or even illegal.

The BOM is handled by SWI-Prolog open/4 predicate. By default, text-files are probed for the BOM when opened for reading. If a BOM is found, the encoding is set accordingly and the property bom(true) is available through stream_property/2. When opening a file for writing, writing a BOM can be requested using the option bom(true) with open/4.

2.18 System limits

2.18.1 Limits on memory areas

SWI-Prolog has a number of memory areas which are only enlarged to a certain limit. The default sizes for these areas should suffice for most applications, but big applications may require larger ones. They are modified by command-line options. The table below shows these areas. The first column gives the option name to modify the size of the area. The option character is immediately followed by a number and optionally by a k or m. With k or no unit indicator, the value is interpreted in Kbytes (1024 bytes), with m, the value is interpreted in Mbytes (1024 × 1024 bytes).

The local-, global- and trail-stack are limited to 128 Mbytes on 32 bit processors, or more generally to 2bits-per-long−5 bytes.

The PrologScript facility described in section 2.10.2 provides a mechanism for specifying options with the load-file. On Windows the default stack-sizes are controlled using the Windows registry on the key HKEY_CURRENT_USER\Software\SWI\Prolog using the names localSize, globalSize and trailSize. The value is a DWORD expressing the default stack size in Kbytes. A GUI for modifying these values is provided using the XPCE package. To use this, start the XPCE manual tools using manpce/0, after which you find Preferences in the File menu.

The heap

With the heap, we refer to the memory area used by malloc() and friends. SWI-Prolog uses the area to store atoms, functors, predicates and their clauses, records and other dynamic data. As of SWI-Prolog 2.8.5, no limits are imposed on the addresses returned by malloc() and friends.

On some machines, the runtime stacks described above are allocated using ‘sparse allocation’. Virtual space up to the limit is claimed at startup and committed and released while the area grows and shrinks. On Win32 platform this is realised using VirtualAlloc() and friends. On Unix systems this is realised using mmap().

2.18.2 Other Limits

Clauses The only limit on clauses is their arity (the number of arguments to the head), which is limited to 1024. Raising this limit is easy and relatively cheap, removing it is harder.

Atoms and Strings SWI-Prolog has no limits on the sizes of atoms and strings. read/1 and its derivatives however normally limit the number of newlines in an atom or string to 5 to improve error detection and recovery. This can be switched off with style_check/1.

The number of atoms is limited to 16777216 (16M) on 32-bit machines. On 64-bit machines this is virtually unlimited. See also section 9.4.2.
### Option Limitation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Default</th>
<th>Area name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-L</td>
<td>16M</td>
<td><strong>local stack</strong></td>
<td>The local stack is used to store the execution environments of procedure invocations. The space for an environment is reclaimed when it fails, exits without leaving choice points, the alternatives are cut off with the !/0 predicate or no choice points have been created since the invocation and the last subclause is started (last call optimisation).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-G</td>
<td>32M</td>
<td><strong>global stack</strong></td>
<td>The global stack is used to store terms created during Prolog’s execution. Terms on this stack will be reclaimed by backtracking to a point before the term was created or by garbage collection (provided the term is no longer referenced).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-T</td>
<td>32M</td>
<td><strong>trail stack</strong></td>
<td>The trail stack is used to store assignments during execution. Entries on this stack remain alive until backtracking before the point of creation or the garbage collector determines they are no longer needed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-A</td>
<td>1M</td>
<td><strong>argument stack</strong></td>
<td>The argument stack is used to store one of the intermediate code interpreter’s registers. The amount of space needed on this stack is determined entirely by the depth in which terms are nested in the clauses that constitute the program. Overflow is most likely when using long strings in a clause. In addition, this stack is used by some built-in predicates to handle cyclic terms. Its default size limit is proportional to the global stack limit such that it will never overflow.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.2: Memory areas
Memory areas  On 32-bit hardware, SWI-Prolog data is packed in a 32-bit word, which contains both
type and value information. The size of the various memory areas is limited to 128 Mb for each
of the areas, except for the program heap, which is not limited. On 64-bit hardware there are no
meaningful limits.

Nesting of terms  Many build-in predicates process nested terms using recursive C functions. Too
depth nested terms generally cause a fatal crash. All these functions avoid recursion on the
right-most argument and therefore terms are not limited on the nesting level of the last argument.
This notably covers long lists. Most functions use a stack for correct handling of rational trees
(cyclic terms). This stack is segmented, where different segments are allocated using malloc().
Overflow causes a non-graceful exit.

Integers  On most systems SWI-Prolog is compiled with support for unbounded integers by means of
the GNU GMP library. In practice this means that integers are bound by the global stack size.
Too large integers cause a resource_error. On systems that lack GMP, integers are 64-bit
on 32 as well as 64-bit machines.

Integers up to the value of the max_tagged_integer Prolog flag are represented more effi-
ciently on the stack. For clauses and records the difference is much smaller.

Floating point numbers  Floating point numbers are represented as C-native double precision floats,
64 bit IEEE on most machines.

2.18.3  Reserved Names

The boot compiler (see −b option) does not support the module system. As large parts of the sys-
tem are written in Prolog itself we need some way to avoid name clashes with the user’s predicates,
database keys, etc. Like Edinburgh C-Prolog [Pereira, 1986] all predicates, database keys, etc. that
should be hidden from the user start with a dollar ($) sign (see style_check/1).

2.19  SWI-Prolog and 64-bit machines

SWI-Prolog support for 64-bit10 machines started with version 2.8 on DEC Alpha CPUs running
Linux. Initially 64-bit hardware was developed to deal with the addressing demands of large
databases, running primarily on expensive server hardware. Recently (2007) we see CPUs that support
64-bit addressing become commonplace, even in low-budget desktop hardware. Most todays 64-bit
platforms are capable of running both 32-bit and 64-bit applications. This asks for some clarifications
on the advantages and drawbacks of 64-bit addressing for (SWI-)Prolog.

2.19.1  Supported platforms

On Unix systems, 64-bit addressing is configured using configure. Traditionally, both long and
void* are 64-bits on these machines. Version 5.6.26 introduces support for 64-bit MS-Windows
(Windows XP and Vista 64-bit editions) on amd64 (x64) hardware. Win64 uses long integers of
only 32-bits. Version 5.6.26 introduces support for such platforms.

---

10With 64-bit machines we refer to CPUs where memory-addresses (pointers) are 64-bits wide.
2.19. SWI-PROLOG AND 64-BIT MACHINES

2.19.2 Comparing 32- and 64-bits Prolog

Most of Prolog’s memory-usage consists of pointers. This indicates the primary drawback: Prolog memory usage almost doubles when using the 64 bit addressing model. Using more memory means copying more data between CPU and main memory, slowing down the system.

What than are the advantages? First of all, SWI-Prolog’s addressing of the Prolog stacks does not cover the whole address space due to the use of type tag bits and garbage collection flags. On 32-bit hardware the stacks are limited to 128MB each. This tends to be too low for demanding applications on modern hardware. On 64-bit hardware the limit is $2^{32}$ times higher, exceeding the addressing capabilities of todays CPUs and operating systems. This implies Prolog can be started with stacks sizes that use the full capabilities of your hardware.

Multi-threaded applications profit much more. SWI-Prolog threads claim the full stacksize limit in virtual address space and each thread comes with its own set of stacks. This approach quickly exhaust virtual memory on 32-bit systems but poses no problems when using 64-bit addresses.

The implications theoretical performance loss due to increased memory bandwidth implied by exchanging wider pointers depend on the design of the hardware. We only have data for the popular IA32 vs. AMD64 architectures. Here it appears that the loss is compensated for by a an instruction set that has been optimized for modern programming. In particular, the AMD64 has more registers and the relative addressing capabilities have been improved. Where we see a 10% performance degradation when placing the SWI-Prolog kernel in a Unix shared object, we cannot find a measurable difference on AMD64. Current SWI-Prolog (5.6.26) runs at practically the same speed on IA32 and AMD64.

2.19.3 Choosing between 32- and 64-bits Prolog

For those cases where we can choose between 32- and 64-bits, either because the hardware and OS support both or because we can still choose the hardware and OS, we give guidelines for this decision.

First of all, if SWI-Prolog needs to be linked against 32- or 64-bit native libraries, there is no choice as it is not possible to link 32- and 64-bit code into a single executable. Only if all required libraries are available in both sizes and there is no clear reason to use either the different characteristics of Prolog become important.

Prolog applications that require more than the 128MB stack limit provided in 32-bit addressing mode must use the 64-bit edition. Note however that the limits must be doubled to accommodate the same Prolog application.

If the system is tight on physical memory, 32-bit Prolog has the clear advantage to use only slightly more than half of the memory of 64-bit Prolog. This argument applies as long as the application fits in the virtual address space of the machine. The virtual address space of 32-bit hardware is 4GB, but in many cases the operating system provides less to user applications. Virtual memory usage of SWI-Prolog is roughly the program size (heap) plus the sum of the stack-limits. If there are multiple threads, each thread has its own stacks and the stack-limits must be summed over the running threads.

The only standard SWI-Prolog library adding significantly to this calculation is the RDF database provided by the semweb package. It uses approximately 80 bytes per triple on 32-bit hardware and 150 bytes on 64-bit hardware. Details depend on how many different resources and literals appear in the dataset as well as desired additional literal indexes.

Summarizing, if applications are small enough to fit comfortably in virtual and physical memory simply take the model used by most of the applications on the OS. If applications require more than 128MB per stack, use the 64-bit edition. If applications approach the size of physical memory, fit
in the 128MB stack limit and fit in virtual memory, the 32-bit version has clear advantages. For demanding applications on 64-bit hardware with more than about 6GB physical memory the 64-bit model is the model of choice.
Initialising and Managing a Prolog Project

Prolog text-books give you an overview of the Prolog language. The manual tells you what predicates are provided in the system and what they do. This chapter wants to explain how to run a project. There is no ultimate ‘right’ way to do this. Over the years we developed some practice in this area and SWI-Prolog’s commands are there to support this practice. This chapter describes the conventions and supporting commands.

The first two sections (section 3.1 and section 3.2 only require plain Prolog. The remainder discusses the use of the built-in graphical tools that require the XPCE graphical library installed on your system.

3.1 The project source-files

Organisation of source-files depends largely on the size of your project. If you are doing exercises for a Prolog course you’ll normally use one file for each exercise. If you have a small project you’ll work with one directory holding a couple of files and some files to link it all together. Even bigger projects will be organised in sub-projects each using their own directory.

3.1.1 File Names and Locations

File Name Extensions

The first consideration is what extension to use for the source-files. Tradition calls for .pl, but conflicts with Perl force the use of another extension on systems where extensions have global meaning, such as MS-Windows. On such systems .pro is the common alternative.¹

All versions of SWI-Prolog load files with the extension .pl as well as with the registered alternative extension without explicitly specifying the extension. For portability reasons we propose the following convention:

If there is no conflict because you do not use a conflicting application or the system does not force a unique relation between extension and application, use .pl.

With a conflict choose .pro and use this extension for the files you want to load through your file-manager. Use .pl for all other files for maximal portability.

Project Directories

Large projects are generally composed of sub-projects, each using their own directory or directory-structure. If nobody else will ever touch your files and you use only one computer there is little to

¹On MS-Windows, the alternative extension is stored in the registry-key
HKEY_CURRENT_USER/Software/SWI/Prolog/fileExtension or HKEY_LOCAL_MACHINE/Software/SWI/Prolog/fileExtens
worry about, but this is rarely the case with a large project.

To improve portability, SWI-Prolog uses the POSIX notation for filenames, which uses the forward slash (/) to separate directories. Just before hitting the file-system it uses `prolog_to_os_filename/2` to convert the filename to the conventions used by the hosting operating system. It is strongly advised to write paths using the `/`, especially on systems using the `\` for this purpose (MS-Windows). Using `\` violates the portability rules and requires you to double the `\` due to the Prolog quoted-atom escape rules.

Portable code should use `prolog_to_os_filename/2` to convert computed paths into system-paths when constructing commands for `shell/1` and friends.

**Sub-projects using search-paths**

Thanks to Quintus, Prolog adapted an extensible mechanism for searching files using `file_search_path/2`. This mechanism allows for comfortable and readable specifications.

Suppose you have extensive library packages on graph-algorithms, set-operations and GUI-primitives. These sub-projects are likely candidates for re-use in future projects. A good choice is to create a directory with sub-directories for each of these sub-projects.

Next, there are three options. One is to add the sub-projects to the directory-hierarchy of the current project. Another is to use a completely dislocated directory and finally the sub-project can be added to the SWI-Prolog hierarchy. Using local installation, a typical `file_search_path/2` is:

```prolog
:- prolog_load_context(directory, Dir),
   asserta(user:file_search_path(myapp, Dir)).

user:file_search_path(graph, myapp(graph)).
user:file_search_path(ui, myapp(ui)).
```

For using sub-projects in the SWI-Prolog hierarchy one should use the path-alias `swi` as basis. For a system-wide installation use an absolute-path.

Extensive sub-projects with a small well-defined API should define a load-file using `use_module/1` calls to import the various library-components and export the API.

### 3.1.2 Project Special Files

There are a number of tasks you typically carry out on your project, such as loading it, creating a saved-state, debugging it, etc. Good practice on large projects is to define small files that hold the commands to execute such a task, name this file after the task and give it a file-extension that makes starting easy (see section 3.1.1). The task `load` is generally central to these tasks. Here is a tentative list.

- **load.pl**
  Use this file to set up the environment (Prolog flags and file search paths) and load the sources. Quite commonly this file also provides convenient predicates to parse command-line options and start the application.

- **run.pl**
  Use this file to start the application. Normally it loads `load.pl` in silent-mode, and calls one of the starting predicates from `load.pl`. 
3.2. USING MODULES

- `save.pl`
  Use this file to create a saved-state of the application by loading `load.pl` and call `qsave` to generate a saved-state with the proper options.

- `debug.pl`
  Loads the program for debugging. In addition to loading `load.pl` this file defines rules for `portray/1` to modify printing rules for complex terms and customisation rules for the debugger and editing environment. It may start some of these tools.

3.1.3 International source files

As discussed in section 2.17, SWI-Prolog supports international character handling. Its internal encoding is UNICODE. I/O streams convert to/from this internal format. This sections discusses the options for source-files not in US-ASCII.

SWI-Prolog can read files in any of the encodings described in section 2.17. Two encodings are of particular interest. The `text` encoding deals with the current `locale`, the default used by this computer for representing text files. The encodings `utf8`, `unicode_le` and `unicode_be` are `UNICODE` encodings: they can represent—in the same file—characters of virtually any known language. In addition, they do so unambiguously.

If one wants to represent non US-ASCII text as Prolog terms in a source-file there are several options:

- **Use escape sequences**
  This approach describes NON-ASCII as sequences of the form `\octal\`. The numerical argument is interpreted as a UNICODE character.\(^2\) The resulting Prolog file is strict 7-bit US-ASCII, but if there are many NON-ASCII characters it becomes very unreadable.

- **Use local conventions**
  Alternatively the file may be specified using local conventions, such as the EUC encoding for Japanese text. The disadvantage is portability. If the file is moved to another machine this machine must be using the same `locale` or the file is unreadable. There is no elegant if files from multiple locales must be united in one application using this technique. In other words, it is fine for local projects in countries with uniform locale conventions.

- **Using UTF-8 files**
  The best way to specify source files with many NON-ASCII characters is definitely the use of UTF-8 encoding. Prolog can be notified two ways of this encoding, using a UTF-8 `BOM` (see section 2.17.1) or using the directive `:- encoding(utf8)`. Many today's text editors, including PceEmacs, are capable of editing UTF-8 files. Projects that started using local conventions can be re-coded using the Unix `iconv` tool or often using a commands offered by the editor.

3.2 Using modules

Modules have been debated fiercely in the Prolog world. Despite all counter-arguments we feel they are extremely useful because

\(^2\)To my knowledge, the ISO escape sequences is limited to 3 octal digits, which means most characters cannot be represented.
They hide local predicates
This is the reason they have been invented in the first place. Hiding provides two features. They allow for short predicate names without worrying about conflicts. Given the flat name-space introduced by modules, they still require meaningful module names as well as meaningful names for exported predicates.

They document the interface
Possibly more important then avoiding name-conflicts is their role in documenting which part of the file is for public usage and which is private. When editing a module you may assume you can reorganise anything but the name and semantics of the exported predicates without worrying.

They help the editor
The PceEmacs built-in editor does on-the-fly cross-referencing of the current module, colouring predicates based on their origin and usage. Using modules, the editor can quickly find out what is provided by the imported modules by reading just the first term. This allows it to indicate real-time which predicates are not used or not defined.

Using modules is generally easy. Only if you write meta-predicates (predicates reasoning about other predicates) that are exported from a module good understanding of resolution of terms to predicates inside a module is required. Here is a typical example from readutil.

```
:- module(read_util,
    [ read_line_to_codes/2, % +Fd, -Codes
      read_line_to_codes/3, % +Fd, -Codes, ?Tail
      read_stream_to_codes/2, % +Fd, -Codes
      read_stream_to_codes/3, % +Fd, -Codes, ?Tail
      read_file_to_codes/3, % +File, -Codes, +Options
      read_file_to_terms/3 % +File, -Terms, +Options
    ]).
```

3.3 The test-edit-reload cycle
SWI-Prolog does not enforce the use of a particular editor for writing down Prolog source code. Editors are complicated programs that must be mastered in detail for real productive programming and if you are familiar with a specific editor you should not be forced to change. You may specify your favourite editor using the Prolog flag `editor`, the environment variable `EDITOR` or by defining rules for prolog:edit:edit_source/1 (see section 4.4).

The use of a built-in editor, which is selected by setting the Prolog flag `editor` to `pce_emacs`, has advantages. The XPCE `editor` object around which the built-in PceEmacs is built can be opened as a Prolog stream allowing analysis of your source by the real Prolog system.

3.3.1 Locating things to edit
The central predicate for editing something is `edit/1`, an extensible front-end that searches for objects (files, predicates, modules as well as XPCE classes and methods) in the Prolog database. If
multiple matches are found it provides a choice. Together with the built-in completion on atoms bound to the `TAB` key this provides a quick way to edit objects:

```
?- edit(country).
Please select item to edit:

  1 chat:country/10  '/staff/jan/lib/prolog/chat/countr.pl':16
  2 chat:country/1    '/staff/jan/lib/prolog/chat/world0.pl':72

Your choice?
```

### 3.3.2 Editing and incremental compilation

One of the nice features of Prolog is that the code can be modified while the program is running. Using pure Prolog you can trace a program, find it is misbehaving, enter a `break environment`, modify the source code, reload it and finally do `retry` on the misbehaving predicate and try again. This sequence is not uncommon for long-running programs. For faster programs one normally aborts after understanding the misbehaviour, edit the source, reload it and try again.

One of the nice features of SWI-Prolog is the availability of `make/0`, a simple predicate that checks all loaded source files to see which ones you have modified. It then reloads these files, considering the module from which the file was loaded originally. This greatly simplifies the trace-edit-verify development cycle. After the tracer reveals there is something wrong with `prove/3`, you do:

```
?- edit(prove).
```

Now edit the source, possibly switching to other files and making multiple changes. After finishing invoke `make/0`, either through the editor UI (`Compile/Make` (Control-C Control-M)) or on the top-level and watch the files being reloaded.\(^3\)

```
?- make.
% show compiled into photo_gallery 0.03 sec, 3,360 bytes
```

### 3.4 Using the PceEmacs built-in editor

#### 3.4.1 Activating PceEmacs

Initially `edit/1` uses the editor specified in the `EDITOR` environment variable. There are two ways to force it to use the built-in editor. One is to set the Prolog flag `editor` to `pce_emacs` and the other is by starting the editor explicitly using the `emacs/[0,1]` predicates.

\(^3\)Watching these files is a good habit. If expected files are not reloaded you may have forgotten to save them from the editor or you may have been editing the wrong file (wrong directory).
3.4.2 Bluffing through PceEmacs

PceEmacs closely mimics Richard Stallman’s GNU-Emacs commands, adding features from modern window-based editors to make it more acceptable for beginners.\(^4\)

At the basis, PceEmacs maps keyboard sequences to methods defined on the extended editor object. Some frequently used commands are, with their key-binding, presented in the menu-bar above each editor window. A complete overview of the bindings for the current mode is provided through Help/Show key bindings (Control-h Control-b).

Edit modes

Modes are the heart of (Pce)Emacs. Modes define dedicated editing support for a particular kind of (source-)text. For our purpose we want Prolog mode. There are various ways to make PceEmacs use Prolog mode for a file.

- **Using the proper extension**
  If the file ends in .pl or the selected alternative (e.g. .pro) extension, Prolog mode is selected.

- **Using #!/path/to/pl**
  If the file is a Prolog Script file, starting with the line #!/path/to/pl options -s, Prolog mode is selected regardless of the extension.

- **Using -*- Prolog -*-**
  If the above sequence appears in the first line of the file (inside a Prolog comment) Prolog mode is selected.

- **Explicit selection**
  Finally, using File/Mode/Prolog (y)ou can switch to Prolog mode explicitly.

Frequently used editor commands

Below we list a few important commands and how to activate them.

- **Cut/Copy/Paste**
  These commands follow Unix/X11 traditions. You’re best suited with a three-button mouse. After selecting using the left-mouse (double-click uses word-mode and triple line-mode), the selected text is automatically copied to the clipboard (X11 primary selection on Unix). Cut is achieved using the DEL key or by typing something else at the location. Paste is achieved using the middle-mouse (or wheel) button. If you don’t have a middle mouse-button, pressing the left- and right-button at the same time is interpreted as a middle-button click. If nothing helps there is the Edit/Paste menu-entry. Text is pasted at the caret-location.

- **Undo**
  Undo is bound to the GNU-Emacs Control-_ as well as the MS-Windows Control-Z sequence.

- **Abort**
  Multi-key sequences can be aborted at any stage using Control-G.

\(^4\)Decent merging with MS-Windows control-key conventions is difficult as many conflict with GNU-Emacs. Especially the cut/copy/paste commands conflict with important GNU-Emacs commands.
• **Find**
Find (Search) is started using Control-S (forward) or Control-R (backward). PceEmacs implements *incremental search*. This is difficult to use for novices, but very powerful once you get the clue. After one of the above start-keys the system indicates search mode in the status line. As you are typing the search-string, the system searches for it, extending the search with every character you type. It illustrates the current match using a green background.

If the target cannot be found, PceEmacs warns you and no longer extends the search-string. During search some characters have special meaning. Typing anything but these characters commits the search, re-starting normal edit mode. Special commands are:

- **Control-S**
  Search for next forwards.

- **Control-R**
  Search for next backwards.

- **Control-W**
  Extend search to next word-boundary.

- **Control-G**
  Cancel search, go back to where it started.

- **ESC**
  Commit search, leaving caret at found location.

- **Backspace**
  Remove a character from the search string.

• **Dynamic Abbreviation**
Also called *dabbrev* is an important feature of Emacs clones to support programming. After typing the first few letters of an identifier you may hit Alt-/, causing PceEmacs to search backwards for identifiers that start the same and using it to complete the text you typed. A second Alt-/ searches further backwards. If there are no hits before the caret it starts searching forwards. With some practice, this system allows for very fast entering code with nice and readable identifiers (or other difficult long words).

• **Open (a file)**
Is called File/Find file (Control-x Control-f). By default the file is loaded into the current window. If you want to keep this window, Hit Alt-s or click the little icon at the bottom-left to make the window sticky.

• **Split view**
Sometimes you want to look at two places of the same file. To do this, use Control-x 2 to create a new window pointing to the same file. Do not worry, you can edit as well as move around in both. Control-x 1 kills all other windows running on the same file.

These were the most commonly used commands. In section section 3.4.3 we discuss specific support for dealing with Prolog source code.

---

3GNU-Emacs keeps extending the string, but why? Adding more text will not make it match.
3.4.3 Prolog Mode

In the previous section (section 3.4.2) we explained the basics of PceEmacs. Here we continue with Prolog specific functionality. Possibly the most interesting is Syntax highlighting. Unlike most editors where this is based on simple patterns, PceEmacs syntax highlighting is achieved by Prolog itself actually reading and interpreting the source as you type it. There are three moments at which PceEmacs checks (part of) the syntax.

- **After typing a .**
  After typing a . that is not preceded by a symbol character the system assumes you completed a clause, tries to find the start of this clause and verifies the syntax. If this process succeeds it colours the elements of the clause according to the rules given below. Colouring is done using information from the last full check on this file. If it fails, the syntax error is displayed in the status line and the clause is not coloured.

- **After the command Control-c Control-s**
  Acronym for Check Syntax it performs the same checks as above for the clause surrounding the caret. On a syntax error however, the caret is moved to the expected location of the error.\(^6\)

- **After pausing for two seconds**
  After a short pause (2 seconds), PceEmacs opens the edit-buffer and reads it as a whole, creating an index of defined, called, dynamic, imported and exported predicates. After completing this, it re-reads the file and colours all clauses and calls with valid syntax.

- **After typing Control-l Control-l**
  The Control-l commands re-centers the window (scrolls the window to make the caret the center of the window). Hitting this command twice starts the same process as above.

The colour schema itself is defined in emacs/prolog_colour. The colouring can be extended and modified using multifile predicates. Please check this source-file for details. In general, underlined objects have a popup (right-mouse button) associated for common commands such as viewing the documentation or source. Bold text is used to indicate the definition of objects (typically predicates when using plain Prolog). Other colours follow intuitive conventions. See table 3.4.3.

**Layout support** Layout is not ‘just nice’, it is essential for writing readable code. There is much debate on the proper layout of Prolog. PceEmacs, being a rather small project supports only one particular style for layout.\(^7\) Below are examples of typical constructs.

```
head(arg1, arg2).

head(arg1, arg2) :- !.

head(Arg1, arg2) :- !,
    call1(Arg1).

head(Arg1, arg2) :-
```

\(^6\)In most cases the location where the parser cannot proceed is further down the file than the actual error-location.

\(^7\)Defined in Prolog in the file emacs/prolog_mode, you may wish to extend this. Please contribute your extensions!
### 3.4. Using the PceEmacs Built-In Editor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clauses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Blue bold</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Red bold</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Black Bold</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Calls in the clause-body</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Blue</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Red</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Purple</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Other entities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dark green</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dark blue</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brown</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1: Colour conventions

```prolog
{ if(Arg1)
  -> then
  ; else
}.

head(Arg1) :-
  ( a
  ; b
  ).

head :-
  a(many,
    long,
    arguments(with,
      many,
      more),
    and([ a,
         long,
         list,
         with,
         a,
         | tail
    ])).
```

PceEmacs uses the same conventions as GNU-Emacs. The **TAB** key indents the current line according to the syntax rules. **Alt-q** indents all lines of the current clause. It provides support for head, calls (indented 1 tab), if-then-else, disjunction and argument-lists broken across multiple lines as illustrated above.
Finding your way around

The command Alt-. extracts name and arity from the caret location and jumps (after conformation or edit) to the definition of the predicate. It does so based on the source-location database of loaded predicates also used by edit/1. This makes locating predicates reliable if all sources are loaded and up-to-date (see make/0).

In addition, references to files in use_module/[1,2], consult/1, etc. are red if the file cannot be found and underlined blue if the file can be loaded. A popup allows for opening the referenced file.

3.5 The Graphical Debugger

SWI-Prolog offers two debuggers. One is the traditional text-console based 4-port Prolog tracer and the other is a window-based source-level debugger. The window-based debugger requires XPCE installed. It operates based on the prolog_trace_interception/4 hook and other low-level functionality described in chapter B.

Window-based tracing provides much better overview due to the eminent relation to your source-code, a clear list of named variables and their bindings as well as a graphical overview of the call and choice-point stack. There are some drawbacks though. Using a textual trace on the console one can scroll back and examine the past, while the graphical debugger just presents a (much better) overview of the current state.

3.5.1 Invoking the window-based debugger

Whether the text-based or window-based debugger is used is controlled using the predicates guitracer/0 and noguitracer/0. Entering debug mode is controlled using the normal predicates for this: trace/0 and spy/1. In addition, PceEmacs prolog mode provides the command Prolog/Break at (Control-c b) to insert a break-point at a specific location in the source-code.

The graphical tracer is particularly useful for debugging threads. The tracer must be loaded from the main thread before it can be used from a background thread.

**guitracer**

This predicate installs the above-mentioned hooks that redirect tracing to the window-based environment. No window appears. The debugger window appears as actual tracing is started through trace/0, by hitting a spy-point defined by spy/1 or a break-point defined using PceEmacs command Prolog/Break at (Control-c b).

**noguitracer**

Disable the hooks installed by guitracer/0, reverting to normal text-console based tracing.

**gtrace**

Utility defined as guitracer,trace.

**gdebug**

Utility defined as guitracer,debug.

**gspy(+Predicate)**

Utility defined as guitracer,spy(Predicate).
3.6 The Prolog Navigator

Another tool is the Prolog Navigator. This tool can be started from PceEmacs using the command Browse/Prolog navigator, from the GUI debugger or using the programmatic IDE interface described in section 3.8.

3.7 Cross referencer

A cross-referencers is a tool examining the caller-callee relation between predicates and using this information to explicate dependency relations between source files, find calls to non-existing predicates and predicates for which no callers can be found. Cross-referencing is useful during program development, reorganisation, cleanup, porting and other program maintenance tasks. The dynamic nature of Prolog makes the task non-trivial. Goals can be created dynamically call/1 after construction of a goal term. Abstract interpretation can find some of such calls, but the ultimately they can come from external communication, making it completely impossible to predict the callee. In other words, the cross-referencer has only partial understanding of the program and its results are necessarily incomplete. Still, it provides valuable information to the developer.

SWI-Prolog’s cross-referencer is split into two parts. The standard Prolog library prolog_xref is an extensible library for information gathering described in section A.19 and the XPCE library pce_xref provides a graphical frontend for the cross-referencer described here. We demonstrate the tool on CHAT80, a natural language question and answer system by Fernando C.N. Pereira and David H.D. Warren.

gxref

Run cross-referencer on all currently loaded files and present a graphical overview of the result. As the predicate operates on the currently loaded application it must be run after loading the application.

The left window (see figure 3.1) provides browsers for loaded files and predicates. To avoid long file paths the file hierarchy has three main branches. The first is the current directory holding the sources. The second is marked alias and below it are the file-search-path aliases (see file_search_path/2 and absolute_file_name/3). Here you find files loaded from the system as well as modules of the program loaded from other locations using file search path. All loaded files that fall outside these categories are below the last branch called /.. File where the system found suspicious dependencies are marked with an exclamation mark. This also holds for directories holding such files. Clicking on a file opens a File info window in the right pane.

The File info window shows a file, its main properties, its undefined and not-called predicates and its import- and export relations to other files in the project. Both predicates and files can be opened by clicking on them. The number of callers in a file for a certain predicate is indicated with a blue underlined number. A left-click will open a list and allows to edit the calling predicate.

The Dependencies (see figure 3.2) window displays a graphical overview of dependencies between files. Using the background menu a complete graph of the project can be created. It is also possible to drag files onto the graph window and use the menu on the nodes to incrementally expand the graph. The underlined blue text indicates the number of predicates used in the destination file. Left-clicking opens a menu to open the definition or select one of the callers.
CHAPTER 3. INITIALISING AND MANAGING A PROLOG PROJECT

Figure 3.1: File info for CHAT80

Figure 3.2: Dependencies between source files of CHAT80
Module and non-module files The cross-referencer threads module and non-module project files differently. Module files have explicit import and export relations and the tool shows the usage and consistency of the relations. Using the menu-command Header the tool creates a consistent import list for the module that can be included in the file. The tool computes the dependency relations between the non-module files. If the user wishes to convert the project into a module-based one the Header command generates an appropriate module header and import list. Note that the cross-referencer may have missed dependencies and does not deal with meta-predicates defined in one module and called in another. Such problems must be resolved manually.

Settings The following settings can be controlled from the settings menu:

Warn autoload
By default disabled. If enabled, modules that require predicates to be autoloaded are flagged with a warning and the file info window of a module shows the required autoload predicates.

Warn not called
If enabled (default), the file-overview shows an alert icon for files that have predicates that are not called.

3.8 Accessing the IDE from your program

Over the years a collection of IDE components have been developed, each with their own interface. In addition, some of these components require each other and loading IDE components must be on demand to avoid the IDE being part of a saved-state (see qsave_program/2). For this reason, access to the IDE will be concentrated on a single interface called prolog_ide/1:

prolog_ide(+Action)
This predicate ensures the IDE enabling XPCE component is loaded, creates the XPCE class prolog_ide and sends Action to its one and only instance \index{@prolog_ide}\objectname{prolog_ide}. Action is one of the following:

open_navigator(+Directory)
Open the Prolog Navigator (see section 3.6) in the given Directory.

open_debug_status
Open a window to edit spy- and trace-points.

open_query_window
Opens a little window to run Prolog queries from a GUI component.

thread_monitor
Open a graphical window indicating existing threads and their status.

debug_monitor
Open a graphical front-end for the debug library that provides an overview of the topics and catches messages.

xref
Open a graphical front-end for the cross-referencer that provides an overview of predicates and their callers.
3.9 Summary of the IDE

The SWI-Prolog development environment consists of a number of interrelated but not (yet) integrated tools. Here is a list of the most important features and tips.

- **Atom completion**
  The console\(^8\) completes a partial atom on the TAB key and shows alternatives on the command Alt-?.

- **Use edit/1 to finding locations**
  The command edit/1 takes the name of a file, module, predicate or other entity registered through extensions and starts the users preferred editor at the right location.

- **Select editor**
  External editors are selected using the EDITOR environment variable, by setting the Prolog flag editor or by defining the hook prolog_edit:edit_source/1.

- **Update Prolog after editing**
  Using make/0, all files you have edited are re-loaded.

- **PceEmacs**
  Offers syntax-highlighting and checking based on real-time parsing of the editor’s buffer, layout-support and navigation support.

- **Using the graphical debugger**
  The predicates guitracer/0 and noguitracer/0 switch between traditional text-based and window-based debugging. The tracer is activated using the trace/0, spy/1 or menu-items from PceEmacs or the PrologNavigator.

- **The Prolog Navigator**
  Shows the file-structure and structure inside the file. It allows for loading files, editing, setting spy-points, etc.

---

\(^8\)On Windows this is realised by swipl-win.exe, on Unix through the GNU readline library, which is included automatically when found by configure.
4.1 Notation of Predicate Descriptions

We have tried to keep the predicate descriptions clear and concise. First the predicate name is printed in bold face, followed by the arguments in italics. Arguments are preceded by a mode indicator. There is no complete agreement on mode indicators in the Prolog community. We use the following definitions:

- **+** Argument must be fully instantiated to a term that satisfies the required argument type. Think of the argument as *input*.
- **-** Argument must be unbound. Think of the argument as *output*.
- **?** Argument must be bound to a *partial term* of the indicated type. Note that a variable is a partial term for any type. Think of the argument as either *input* or *output* or both input and output. E.g. In `stream_property(S, reposition(Bool))`, the `reposition` part of the term is input and the uninstantiated `Bool` is output.
- **:** Argument is a meta-argument. Implies +. See section 5 for more information on module-handing.
- **@** Argument is not further instantiated. Typically used for type-tests.
- **!** Argument contains a mutable structure that may be modified using `setarg/3` or `nb_setarg/3`.

Referring to a predicate in running text is done using a *predicate indicator*. The canonical and most generic form of a predicate indicator is a term `<module>:<name>/<arity>`. If the module is irrelevant (built-in predicate) or can be inferred from the context it is often omitted. Compliant to the ISO standard draft on DCG (see section 4.11), SWI-Prolog also allows for `<module>::<name>/<arity>` to refer to a grammar rule. For all non-negative arity, `<name>/l<arity>` is the same as `<name>/larity+2l`, regardless on whether or not the referenced predicate is defined or can be used as a grammar rule. The `//`-notation can be used in all places that traditionally allow for a predicate indicator, e.g. the module declaration, `spy/1`, and `dynamic/1`.

4.2 Character representation

In traditional (Edinburgh-) Prolog, characters are represented using *character-codes*. Character codes are integer indices into a specific character set. Traditionally the character set was 7-bits US-ASCII.

---

1These definitions are taken from PiDoc. The current manual has only one mode declaration per predicate and therefore predicates with mode (+,-) and (-,+) are described as (?,?,?). The @-mode is often replaced by +.
8-bit character sets have been allowed for a long time, providing support for national character sets, of which iso-latin-1 (ISO 8859-1) is applicable to many western languages.

ISO Prolog introduces three types, two of which are used for characters and one for accessing binary streams (see open/4). These types are:

- **code**
  A character-code is an integer representing a single character. As files may use multi-byte encoding for supporting different character sets (utf-8 encoding for example), reading a code from a text-file is in general not the same as reading a byte.

- **char**
  Alternatively, characters may be represented as one-character-atoms. This is a natural representation, hiding encoding problems from the programmer as well as providing much easier debugging.

- **byte**
  Bytes are used for accessing binary-streams.

In SWI-Prolog, character-codes are always the Unicode equivalent of the encoding. I.e., if get_code/1 reads from a stream encoded as KOI8-R (used for the Cyrillic alphabet), it returns the corresponding Unicode code-points. Similar, assembling or deassembling atoms using atom_codes/2 interprets the codes as Unicode points. See section 2.17.1 for details.

To ease the pain of the two character representations (code and char), SWI-Prolog’s built-in predicates dealing with character-data work as flexible as possible: they accept data in any of these formats as long as the interpretation is unambiguous. In addition, for output arguments that are instantiated, the character is extracted before unification. This implies that the following two calls are identical, both testing whether the next input characters is an a.

```
peek_code(Stream, a).
peek_code(Stream, 97).
```

The two character representations are handled by a large number of built-in predicates, all of which are ISO-compatible. For converting between code and character there is char_code/2. For breaking atoms and numbers into characters are are atom_chars/2, atom_codes/2, number_codes/2 and number_chars/2. For character I/O on streams there is get_char/[1,2], get_code/[1,2], get_byte/[1,2], peek_char/[1,2], peek_code/[1,2], peek_byte/[1,2], put_code/[1,2], put_char/[1,2] and put_byte/[1,2]. The Prolog flag double_quotes controls how text between double-quotes is interpreted.

### 4.3 Loading Prolog source files

This section deals with loading Prolog source-files. A Prolog source file is a plain text file containing a Prolog program or part thereof. Prolog source files come in three flavours:

**A traditional** Prolog source file contains Prolog clauses and directives, but no module-declaration. They are normally loaded using consult/1 or ensure_loaded/1.
4.3. LOADING PROLOG SOURCE FILES

A **module** Prolog source file starts with a module declaration. The subsequent Prolog code is loaded into the specified module and only the *public* predicates are made available to the context loading the module. Module files are normally loaded using `use_module/1,2`. See chapter 5 for details.

An **include** Prolog source file is loaded using the `include/1` directive and normally contains only directives.

Prolog source-files are located using `absolute_file_name/3` with the following options:

```prolog
locate_prolog_file(Spec, Path) :-
    absolute_file_name(Spec, [file_type(prolog),
                               access(read),
                               Path]).
```

The `file_type(prolog)` option is used to determine the extension of the file using `prolog_file_type/2`. The default extension is `.pl`. `Spec` allows for the *path-alias* construct defined by `absolute_file_name/3`. The most commonly used path-alias is `library(LibraryFile)`. The example below loads the library file `ordsets.pl` (containing predicates for manipulating ordered sets).

```prolog
:- use_module(library(ordsets)).
```

SWI-Prolog recognises grammar rules (DCG) as defined in [Clocksin & Melish, 1987]. The user may define additional compilation of the source file by defining the dynamic predicates `term_expansion/2` and `goal_expansion/2`. Transformations by `term_expansion/2` overrule the systems grammar rule transformations. It is not allowed to use `assert/1, retract/1` or any other database predicate in `term_expansion/2` other than for local computational purposes.\(^2\)

Directives may be placed anywhere in a source file, invoking any predicate. They are executed when encountered. If the directive fails, a warning is printed. Directives are specified by `:-/1` or `?-/1`. There is no difference between the two.

SWI-Prolog does not have a separate `reconsult/1` predicate. Reconsulting is implied automatically by the fact that a file is consulted which is already loaded.

**load_files(:Files, +Options)**

The predicate `load_files/2` is the parent of all the other loading predicates except for `include/1`. It currently supports a subset of the options of Quintus `load_files/2`. `Files` is either a single source-file, or a list of source-files. The specification for a source-file is handed to `absolute_file_name/2`. See this predicate for the supported expansions. `Options` is a list of options using the format

```
OptionName(OptionValue)
```

\(^2\)It does work for normal loading, but not for `qcompile/1`.

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
The following options are currently supported:

**autoload**(*Bool*)

If *true* (default *false*), indicate this load is a *demand* load. This implies that, depending on the setting of the Prolog flag `verbose_autoload` the load-action is printed at level informational or silent. See also `print_message/2` and `current_prolog_flag/2`.

**derived_from**(*File*)

Indicate that the loaded file is derived from *File*. Used by `make/0` to time-check and load the original file rather than the derived file.

**encoding**(*Encoding*)

Specify the way characters are encoded in the file. Default is taken from the Prolog flag `encoding`. See section 2.17.1 for details.

**expand**(*Bool*)

If *true*, run the filenames through `expand_file_name/2` and load the returned files. Default is *false*, except for `consult/1` which is intended for interactive use. Flexible location of files is defined by `file_search_path/2`.

**format**(+*Format*)

Used to specify the file format if data is loaded from a stream using the `stream(Stream)` option. Default is `source`, loading Prolog source text. If `qlf`, load QLF data (see `qcompile/1`).

**if**(*Condition*)

Load the file only if the specified condition is satisfied. The value *true* loads the file unconditionally, *changed* loads the file if it was not loaded before, or has been modified since it was loaded the last time, *not_loaded* loads the file if it was not loaded before.

**imports**(*Import*)

Specify what to import from the loaded module. The default for `use_module/1` is `all`. `Import` is passed from the second argument of `use_module/2`. Traditionally it is a list of predicate indicators to import. As part of the SWI-Prolog/YAP integration, we also support `Pred as Name` to import a predicate under another name. Finally, `Import` can be a term `except(Exceptions)`, where `Exceptions` is a list of predicate indicators that specify predicates that are *not* imported or `Pred as Name` terms to denote renamed predicates. See also `reexport/2` and `use_module/2`.\(^3\)

If `Import` equals `all`, all operators are imported as well. Otherwise, operators are *not* imported. Operators can be imported selectively by adding terms `op(Pri,Assoc,Name)` to the `Imports` list. If such a term is encountered, all exported operators that unify with this term are imported. Typically, this construct will be used with all arguments unbound to import all operators or with only `Name` bound to import a particular operator.

**must_be_module**(*Bool*)

If *true*, raise an error if the file is not a module file. Used by `use_module/[1,2]`.

**qcompile**(*Atom*)

How to deal with quick-load-file compilation by `qcompile/1`. Values are

\(^3\)BUG: *Name*/Arity as *NewName* is currently implemented using a *link clause*. This harms efficiency and does not allow for querying the relation through `predicate_property/2`.

---

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
4.3. LOADING PROLOG SOURCE FILES

never
    Default. Do not use qcompile, unless called explicitely

auto
    Use qcompile for all writeable files. See comment below.

large
    Use qcompile if the file is ‘large’. Currently, files larger than 100 Kbytes are consid-
    ered large.

part
    If this load_file/2 appears in a directive of a file that is compiled into Quick
    Load Format using qcompile/1, the contents of the argument files are included in
    the .qlf file instead of the loading directive.

If this option is not present, it used the value of the prolog flag qcompile as default.

redefine_module(+Action)
    Defines what to do if a file is loaded that provides a module that is already loaded from
    another file. Action is one of false (default), which prints an error and refuses to
    load the file, or true, which uses unload_file/1 on the old file and then proceeds
    loading the new file. Finally, there is ask that starts interaction with the user. Ask is only
    provided if user_input is associated with a terminal.

reexport(Bool)
    If true re-export the imported predicate. Used by reexport/1 and reexport/2.

silent(Bool)
    If true, load the file without printing a message. The specified value is the default for
    all files loaded as a result of loading the specified files. This option writes the Prolog flag
    verbose_load with the negation of Bool.

stream(Input)
    This SWI-Prolog extension compiles the data from the stream Input. If this option is
    used, Files must be a single atom which is used to identify the source-location of the
    loaded clauses as well as remove all clauses if the data is re-consulted.
    This option is added to allow compiling from non-file locations such as databases, the
    web, the user (see consult/1) or other servers. It can be combined with format(qlf)
    to load QLF data from a stream.

The load_files/2 predicate can be hooked to load other data or data from other objects than
files. See prolog_load_file/2 for a description and http_load for an example.

consult(File)
    Read File as a Prolog source file. File may be a list of files, in which case all members are
    consulted in turn. File may start with the Unix shell special sequences ~, ⟨user⟩ and $⟨var⟩.
    File may also be library(Name), in which case the libraries are searched for a file with
    the specified name. See also library_directory/1 and file_search_path/2.
    consult/1 may be abbreviated by just typing a number of file names in a list. Examples:

    ?- consult(load).  % consult load or load.pl
    ?- [library(quintus)].  % load Quintus compatibility library
    ?- [user].
The predicate `consult/1` is equivalent to `load_files(Files, [])`, except for handling the special file `user`, which reads clauses from the terminal. See also the `stream(Input)` option of `load_files/2`.

`ensure_loaded(:File)`
If the file is not already loaded, this is equivalent to `consult/1`. Otherwise, if the file defines a module, import all public predicates. Finally, if the file is already loaded, is not a module file and the context module is not the global user module, `ensure_loaded/1` will call `consult/1`.

With the semantics, we hope to get as closely possible to the clear semantics without the presence of a module system. Applications using modules should consider using `use_module/[1,2]`.

Equivalent to `load_files(Files, [if(not_loaded)])`. 4

`include(+File)`
Pretend the terms in `File` are in the source-file in which `:- include(File)` appears. The include construct is only honoured if it appears as a directive in a source-file. Normally `File` contains a sequence of directives.

`require(+ListOfNameAndArity)`
Declare that this file/module requires the specified predicates to be defined “with their commonly accepted definition”. This predicate originates from the Prolog portability layer for XPCE. It is intended to provide a portable mechanism for specifying that this module requires the specified predicates.

The implementation normally first verifies whether the predicate is already defined. If not, it will search the libraries and load the required library.

SWI-Prolog, having autoloading, does not load the library. Instead it creates a procedure header for the predicate if it does not exist. This will flag the predicate as ‘undefined’. See also `check/0` and `autoload/0`.

`encoding(+Encoding)`
This directive can appear anywhere in a source file to define how characters are encoded in the remainder of the file. It can be used in files that are encoded with a superset of US-ASCII, currently UTF-8 and ISO Latin-1. See also section 2.17.1.

`make` Consult all source files that have been changed since they were consulted. It checks all loaded source files: files loaded into a compiled state using `pl -c ...` and files loaded using `consult` or one of its derivatives. The predicate `make/0` is called after `edit/1`, automatically reloading all modified files. If the user uses an external editor (in a separate window), `make/0` is normally used to update the program after editing. In addition, `make/0` updates the autoload indices (see section 2.13) and runs `list undefined/0` from the check library to report on undefined predicates.

---

4On older versions the condition used to be if(changed). Poor time management on some machines or due to copying often caused problems. The `make/0` predicate deals with updating the running system after changing the source code.
library_directory(?Atom)
Dynamic predicate used to specify library directories. Default ./lib,˜/lib/prolog and the system’s library (in this order) are defined. The user may add library directories using assert/1, asserta/1 or remove system defaults using retract/1.

file_search_path(+Alias, ?Path)
Dynamic predicate used to specify ‘path-aliases’. This feature is best described using an example. Given the definition

```prolog
file_search_path(demo, '/usr/lib/prolog/demo').
```

the file specification demo(myfile) will be expanded to /usr/lib/prolog/demo/myfile. The second argument of file_search_path/2 may be another alias.

Below is the initial definition of the file search path. This path implies swi(<Path>) refers to a file in the SWI-Prolog home directory. The alias foreign(<Path>) is intended for storing shared libraries (.so or .DLL files). See also load_foreign_library/[1,2].

```prolog
user:file_search_path(library, X) :-
    library_directory(X).
user:file_search_path(swi, Home) :-
    current_prolog_flag(home, Home).
user:file_search_path(foreign, swi(ArchLib)) :-
    current_prolog_flag(arch, Arch),
    atom_concat('lib/', Arch, ArchLib).
user:file_search_path(foreign, swi(lib)).
```

The file_search_path/2 expansion is used by all loading predicates as well as by absolute_file_name/[2,3].

The Prolog flag verbose_file_search can be set to true to help debugging Prolog’s search for files.

expand_file_search_path(+Spec, -Path)
Unifies Path with all possible expansions of the file name specification Spec. See also absolute_file_name/3.

prolog_file_type(?Extension, ?Type)
This dynamic multifile predicate defined in module user determines the extensions considered by file_search_path/2. Extension is the filename extension without the leading dot, Type denotes the type as used by the file_type(Type) option of file_search_path/2. Here is the initial definition of prolog_file_type/2:

```prolog
user:prolog_file_type(pl, prolog).
user:prolog_file_type(Ext, prolog) :-
    current_prolog_flag(associate, Ext),
    Ext \= pl.
user:prolog_file_type(qlf, qlf).
```
user:prolog_file_type(Ext, executable) :-
    current_prolog_flag(shared_object_extension, Ext).

Users can add extensions used for Prolog source files to avoid conflicts (for example with perl) as well as to be compatible with another Prolog implementation. We suggest using .pro for avoiding conflicts with perl. Overriding the system definitions can stop the system from finding libraries.

source_file(?File)
   True if File is a loaded Prolog source file. File is the absolute and canonical path to the source-file.

source_file(?Pred, ?File)
   Is true if the predicate specified by Pred was loaded from file File, where File is an absolute path name (see absolute_file_name/2). Can be used with any instantiation pattern, but the database only maintains the source file for each predicate. See also clause_property/2.

unload_file(+File)
   Remove all clauses loaded from File. If File loaded a module, clear the module’s export-list and disassociates it from the file. File is a canonical file-name. See source_file/1, module_property/2 and absolute_file_name/3.

   This predicate shall be used with care. The multi-threaded nature of SWI-Prolog makes removing static code unsafe. Attempts to do this should be reserved to development or situations where the application can guarantee that none of the clauses associated to File are active.

prolog_load_context(?Key, ?Value)
   Obtain context information during compilation. This predicate can be used from directives appearing in a source file to get information about the file being loaded. See also source_location/2 and if/1. The following keys are defined:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>module</td>
<td>Module into which file is loaded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>source</td>
<td>File loaded. Returns the original Prolog file when loading a .qlf file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compatible with SICStus Prolog.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>file</td>
<td>Currently equivalent to source. In future versions it may report a different</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>values for files being loaded using include/1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stream</td>
<td>Stream identifier (see current_input/1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>directory</td>
<td>Directory in which source lives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dialect</td>
<td>Compatibility mode. See expects_dialect/1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_position</td>
<td>Position of last term read. Term of the form '$stream_position'(0,⟨Line⟩,0,0,0). See also stream_position_data/3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>script</td>
<td>Boolean that indicates whether the file is loaded as a script file (see -s).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The directory is commonly used add rules to file_search_path/2, setting up a search-path for finding files with absolute_file_name/3. E.g.,
4.3. LOADING PROLOG SOURCE FILES

```prolog
:- dynamic user:file_search_path/2.
:- multifile user:file_search_path/2.

:- prolog_load_context(directory, Dir),
   asserta(user:file_search_path(my_program_home, Dir)).

... absolute_file_name(my_program_home('README.TXT'), ReadMe,
                       [ access(read) ]),
...
```

**source_location**(-File, -Line)

If the last term has been read from a physical file (i.e., not from the file user or a string), unify File with an absolute path to the file and Line with the line-number in the file. New code should use prolog_load_context/2.

**at_halt**(:Goal)

Register Goal to be run from PL_cleanup(), which is called when the system halts. The hooks are run in the reverse order they were registered (FIFO). Success or failure executing a hook is ignored. If the hook raises an exception this is printed using print_message/2. An attempt to call halt/[0,1] from a hook is ignored.

**:- initialization**(:Goal)

[ISO]

Call Goal after loading the source-file in which this directive appears has been completed. In addition, Goal is executed if a saved-state created using qsave_program/1 is restored.

The ISO standard only allows for using :- Term if Term is a directive. This means that arbitrary goals can only be called from a directive by means of the initialization/1 directive. SWI-Prolog does not enforce this rule.

The initialization/1 directive must be used to do program initialization in saved-states (see qsave_program/1). A saved state contains the predicates, Prolog flags and operators present at the moment the state was created. Other resources (records, foreign resources, etc.) must be recreated using initialization/1 directives or from the entry-goal of the saved-state.

Upto SWI-Prolog 5.7.11, Goal was executed immediately rather than after loading the program-text in which the directive appears as dictated by the ISO standard. In many cases the exact moment of execution is irrelevant, but there are exceptions. For example, load_foreign_library/1 must be executed immediately to make the loaded foreign predicates available for exporting. SWI-Prolog now provides the directive use_foreign_library/1 to ensure immediate loading as well as loading after restoring a saved state. If the system encounters a directive :- initialization(load_foreign_library(...)), it will load the foreign library immediately and issue a warning to update your code. This behaviour can be extended by providing clauses for the multifile hook predicate prolog:initialize_now(Term, Advice), where Advice is an atom that gives advice how to resolve the compatibility issue.
initialization(:Goal, +When)

Similar to initialization/1, but allows for specifying when Goal is executed while loading the program-text:

now

Execute Goal immediately.

after_load

Execute Goal after loading program-text. This is the same as initialization/1.

restore

Do not execute Goal while loading the program, but only when restoring a state.

compiling

True if the system is compiling source files with the -c option or qcompile/1 into an intermediate code file. Can be used to perform conditional code optimisations in term_expansion/2 (see also the -O option) or to omit execution of directives during compilation.

4.3.1 Conditional compilation and program transformation

ISO Prolog defines no way for program transformations such as macro expansion or conditional compilation. Expansion through term_expansion/2 and expand_term/2 can be seen as part of the de-facto standard. This mechanism can do arbitrary translation between valid Prolog terms read from the source file to Prolog terms handed to the compiler. As term_expansion/2 can return a list, the transformation does not need to be term-to-term.

Various Prolog dialects provide the analogous goal_expansion/2 and expand_goal/2, that allow for translation of individual body terms, freeing the user of the task to disassemble each clause.

term_expansion(+Term1, -Term2)

Dynamic and multifile predicate, normally not defined. When defined by the user all terms read during consulting are given to this predicate. If the predicate succeeds Prolog will assert Term2 in the database rather then the read term (Term1). Term2 may be a term of the form ‘?-Goal’ or ‘:- Goal’. Goal is then treated as a directive. If Term2 is a list all terms of the list are stored in the database or called (for directives). If Term2 is of the form below, the system will assert Clause and record the indicated source-location with it.

'$('source_location' (File), (Line)) : (Clause)

When compiling a module (see chapter 5 and the directive module/2), expand_term/2 will first try term_expansion/2 in the module being compiled to allow for term-expansion rules that are local to a module. If there is no local definition, or the local definition fails to translate the term, expand_term/2 will try term_expansion/2 in module user. For compatibility with SICStus and Quintus Prolog, this feature should not be used. See also expand_term/2, goal_expansion/2 and expand_goal/2.

expand_term(+Term1, -Term2)

This predicate is normally called by the compiler on terms read from the input to perform preprocessing. It consists of three steps, where each step processes the output of the previous step.
4.3. LOADING PROLOG SOURCE FILES

1. Test conditional compilation directives and translate all input to [ ] if we are in a ‘false-branch’ of the conditional compilation. See section 4.3.1.

2. Call term_expansion/2. This predicate is first tried in the module that is being compiled and then in the module user.

3. Call DGC expansion (dcg_translate_rule/2)

4. Call expand_goal/2 on each body-term that appears in the output of the previous steps.

goal_expansion(+Goal1, -Goal2)

Like term_expansion/2, goal_expansion/2 provides for macro-expansion of Prolog source-code. Between expand_term/2 and the actual compilation, the body of clauses analysed and the goals are handed to expand_goal/2, which uses the goal_expansion/2 hook to do user-defined expansion.

The predicate goal_expansion/2 is first called in the module that is being compiled, and then on the user module. If Goal is of the form Module:Goal where Module is instantiated, goal_expansion/2 is called on Goal using rules from module Module followed by user.

Only goals appearing in the body of clauses when reading a source-file are expanded using this mechanism, and only if they appear literally in the clause, or as an argument to a defined meta-predicate that is annotated using ‘0’ (see meta_predicate/1). Other cases need a real predicate definition.

expand_goal(+Goal1, -Goal2)

This predicate is normally called by the compiler to perform preprocessing using goal_expansion/2. The predicate computes a fixed-point by applying transformations until there are no more changes. If optimisation is enabled (see -O and optimise), expand_goal/2 simplifies the result by removing unneeded calls to true/0 and fail/0 as well as unreachable branches.

compile_aux_clauses(+Clauses)

Compile clauses on behalf of goal_expansion/2. This predicate compiled the argument clauses into static predicates, associating the predicates with the current file but avoid changing the notion of current predicate and therefore discontiguous warnings.

cdg_translate_rule(+In, -Out)

This predicate performs the translation of a term Head-->Body into a normal Prolog clause. Normally this functionality should be accessed using expand_term/2.

preprocessor(-Old, +New)

Read the input file via an external process that acts as preprocessor. A preprocessor is specified as an atom. The first occurrence of the string ‘%f’ is replaced by the name of the file to be loaded. The standard output of resulting command is loaded. To use the Unix C preprocessor one should define:

```prolog
?- preprocessor(Old, '/lib/cpp -C -P %f'), consult(...).
```

Old = none
Using `cpp` for Prolog preprocessing is not ideal as the tokenization rules for comment and quoted strings differ between C and Prolog. Another problem is availability and compatibility with regard to option processing of `cpp`.

**Conditional compilation**

Conditional compilation builds on the same principle as `term_expansion/2`, `goal_expansion/2` and the expansion of grammar rules to compile sections of the source-code conditionally. One of the reasons for introducing conditional compilation is to simplify writing portable code. See section C for more information. Here is a simple example:

```prolog
:- if(\+source_exports(library(lists), suffix/2)).

suffix(Suffix, List) :-
    append(_, Suffix, List).

:- endif.
```

Note that these directives can only appear as separate terms in the input. Typical usage scenarios include:

- Load different libraries on different dialects
- Define a predicate if it is missing as a system predicate
- Realise totally different implementations for a particular part of the code due to different capabilities.
- Realise different configuration options for your software.

`:if(Goal)`

Compile subsequent code only if `Goal` succeeds. For enhanced portability, `Goal` is processed by `expand_goal/2` before execution. If an error occurs, the error is printed and processing proceeds as if `Goal` has failed.

`:elif(Goal)`

Equivalent to `:- else. :-if(Goal) ... :- endif. In a sequence as below, the section below the first matching elif is processed, If no test succeeds the else branch is processed.

```prolog
:- if(test1).
section_1.
:- elif(test2).
section_2.
:- elif(test3).
section_3.
:- else.
section_else.
:- endif.
```
4.3. LOADING PROLOG SOURCE FILES

4.3.1 Loading files, active code and threads

Traditionally, Prolog environments allow for reloading files holding currently active code. In particular, the following sequence is valid use of the development environment:

- Trace a goal
- Find unexpected behaviour of a predicate
- Enter a break using the b command
- Fix the sources and reload them using make/0
- Exit the break, retry using the r command

Goals running during the reload keep running on the old definition, while new goals use the reloaded definition, which is why the retry must be used after the reload. This implies that clauses of predicates that are active during the reload cannot be reclaimed. Normally a small amount of dead clauses should not be an issue during development. Such clauses can be reclaimed with garbage_collect_clauses/0.

garbage_collect_clauses

Cleanup all dirty predicates, where dirty predicates are defined to be predicates that have both old and new definitions due to reloading a source file while the predicate was active. Of course, predicates that are active using garbage_collect_clauses/0 cannot be reclaimed and remain dirty. Predicate are -like atoms- shared resources and therefore all threads are suspended during the execution of this predicate.

Threads and reloading running code

As of version 5.5.30, there is basic thread-safety for reloading source files while other threads are executing code defined in these source files. Reloading a file freezes all threads after marking the active predicates originating from the file being reloaded. The threads are resumed after the file has been loaded. In addition, after completing loading the outermost file, the system runs garbage_collect_clauses/0.

What does that mean? Unfortunately it does not mean we can ‘hot-swap’ modules. Consider the case where thread A is executing the recursive predicate P. We ‘fix’ P and reload. The already running goals for P continue to run the old definition, but new recursive calls will use the new definition! Many similar cases can be constructed with dependent predicates.

It provides some basic security for reloading files in multi-threaded applications during development. In the above scenarios the system does not crash uncontrolled, but behaves like any broken program: it may return the wrong bindings, wrong truth value or raise an exception.

Future versions may have an ‘update now’ facility. Such a facility can be implemented on top of the logical update view. It would allow threads to do a controlled update between processing independent jobs.
4.3.3 Quick load files

SWI-Prolog supports compilation of individual or multiple Prolog source files into ‘Quick Load Files’. A ‘Quick Load Files’ (.qlf file) stores the contents of the file in a precompiled format.

These files load considerably faster than source files and are normally more compact. They are machine independent and may thus be loaded on any implementation of SWI-Prolog. Note however that clauses are stored as virtual machine instructions. Changes to the compiler will generally make old compiled files unusable.

Quick Load Files are created using qcompile/1. They are loaded using consult/1 or one of the other file-loading predicates described in section 4.3. If consult is given the explicit .pl file, it will load the Prolog source. When given the .qlf file, it will load the file. When no extension is specified, it will load the .qlf file when present and the .pl file otherwise.

qcompile(:File)

Takes a file specification as consult/1, etc. and, in addition to the normal compilation, creates a Quick Load File from File. The file-extension of this file is .qlf. The base name of the Quick Load File is the same as the input file.

If the file contains ‘:- consult(+File)’, ‘:- [+File]’ or :- load_files(+File, [qcompile(true), ...]) statements, the referred files are compiled into the same .qlf file. Other directives will be stored in the .qlf file and executed in the same fashion as when loading the .pl file.

For term_expansion/2, the same rules as described in section 2.10 apply.

Conditional execution or optimisation may test the predicate compiling/0.

Source references (source_file/2) in the Quick Load File refer to the Prolog source file from which the compiled code originates.

qcompile(:File, +Options)

As qcompile/1, but processes additional options as defined by load_files/2.5

4.4 Listing and Editor Interface

SWI-Prolog offers an extensible interface which allows the user to edit objects of the program: predicates, modules, files, etc. The editor interface is implemented by edit/1 and consists of three parts: locating, selecting and starting the editor.

Any of these parts may be extended or redefined by adding clauses to various multi-file (see multifile/1) predicates defined in the module prolog_edit.

The built-in edit specifications for edit/1 (see prolog_edit:locate/3) are described below.

5BUG: Option processing is currently incomplete.
4.4. LISTING AND EDITOR INTERFACE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fully specified objects</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>⟨Module⟩:⟨Name⟩/⟨Arity⟩</td>
<td>Refers a predicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>module(⟨Module⟩)</td>
<td>Refers to a module</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>file(⟨Path⟩)</td>
<td>Refers to a file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>source_file(⟨Path⟩)</td>
<td>Refers to a loaded source-file</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ambiguous specifications</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>⟨Name⟩/⟨Arity⟩</td>
<td>Refers this predicate in any module</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>⟨Name⟩</td>
<td>Refers to (1) named predicate in any module with any arity, (2) a (source) file or (3) a module.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**edit(+Specification)**

First exploits prolog_edit:locate/3 to translate Specification into a list of Locations. If there is more than one ‘hit’, the user is asked to select from the locations found. Finally, prolog_edit:edit_source/1 is used to invoke the user’s preferred editor. Typically, edit/1 can be handed the name of a predicate, module, basename of a file, XPCE class, XPCE method, etc.

**edit**

Edit the ‘default’ file using edit/1. The default file is the file loaded with the command-line option -s or, in windows, the file loaded by double-clicking from the Windows shell.

**prolog_edit:locate(+Spec, -FullSpec, -Location)**

Where Spec is the specification provided through edit/1. This multifile predicate is used to enumerate locations at with an object satisfying the given Spec can be found. FullSpec is unified with the complete specification for the object. This distinction is used to allow for ambiguous specifications. For example, if Spec is an atom, which appears as the base-name of a loaded file and as the name of a predicate, FullSpec will be bound to file(Path) or Name/Arity.

Location is a list of attributes of the location. Normally, this list will contain the term file(File) and—if available—the term line(Line).

**prolog_edit:locate(+Spec, -Location)**

Same as prolog_edit:locate/3, but only deals with fully-specified objects.

**prolog_edit:edit_source(+Location)**

Start editor on Location. See prolog_edit:locate/3 for the format of a location term. This multi-file predicate is normally not defined. If it succeeds, edit/1 assumes the editor is started.

If it fails, edit/1 uses its internal defaults, which are defined by the Prolog flag editor and/or the environment variable EDITOR. The following rules apply. If the Prolog flag editor is of the format $⟨name⟩, the editor is determined by the environment variable ⟨name⟩. Else, if this flag is pce_emacs or built_in and XPCE is loaded or can be loaded, the built-in Emacs clone is used. Else, if the environment EDITOR is set, this editor is used. Finally, vi is used as default on Unix systems and notepad on Windows.

See the default user preferences file dotfiles/dotplrc for examples.

**prolog_edit:edit_command(+Editor, -Command)**

Determines how Editor is to be invoked using shell/1. Editor is the determined editor (see edit_source/1), without the full path specification, and without possible (exe) extension.
Command is an atom describing the command. The pattern %f is replaced by the full file-name of the location, and %d by the line number. If the editor can deal with starting at a specified line, two clauses should be provided, one holding only the %f pattern, and one holding both patterns.

The default contains definitions for vi, emacs, emacsclient, vim and notepad (latter without line-number version).

Please contribute your specifications to jan@swi.psy.uva.nl.

prolog_edit:load

Normally not-defined multifile predicate. This predicate may be defined to provide loading hooks for user-extensions to the edit module. For example, XPCE provides the code below to load swi_edit, containing definitions to locate classes and methods as well as to bind this package to the PceEmacs built-in editor.

\[
\text{:- multifile prolog_edit:load/0.}
\]

\[
\text{prolog_edit:load : -}
\]

\[
\text{ensure_loaded(library(swi_edit)).}
\]

listing(+Pred)

List specified predicates (when an atom is given all predicates with this name will be listed). The listing is produced on the basis of the internal representation, thus losing user’s layout and variable name information. See also portray_clause/1.

listing

List all predicates of the database using listing/1.

portray_clause(+Clause)

Pretty print a clause. A clause should be specified as a term ‘\langle Head\rangle :- \langle Body\rangle’. Facts are represented as ‘\langle Head\rangle :- true’ or simply \langle Head\rangle. Variables in the clause are written as A, B, .... Singleton variables are written as _. See also portray_clause/2.

portray_clause(+Stream, +Clause)

Pretty print a clause to Stream. See portray_clause/1 for details.

4.5 Verify Type of a Term

var(+Term) \[ISO\]

True if Term currently is a free variable.

nonvar(+Term) \[ISO\]

True if Term currently is not a free variable.

integer(+Term) \[ISO\]

True if Term is bound to an integer.

float(+Term) \[ISO\]

True if Term is bound to a floating point number.
4.5. VERIFY TYPE OF A TERM

rational(+Term)

True if Term is bound to a rational number. Rational numbers include integers.

rational(+Term, -Numerator, -Denominator)

True if Term is a rational number with given Numerator and Denominator. The Numerator and Denominator are in canonical form, which means Denominator is a positive integer and there are no common divisors between Numerator and Denominator.

number(+Term)

[ISO]

True if Term is bound to an integer or floating point number.  

atom(+Term)

[ISO]

True if Term is bound to an atom.

blob(@Term, ?Type)

True if Term is a blob of type Type. See section 9.4.7.

string(+Term)

True if Term is bound to a string. Note that string here refers to the built-in atomic type string as described in section 4.22. Text in double quotes such as "hello" creates a list of character codes. We illustrate the issues in the example queries below.

```prolog
?- write("hello").
?- string("hello").
No
?- is_list("hello").
Yes
```

atomic(+Term)

[ISO]

True if Term is bound to an atom, string, integer or floating point number. Note that string refers to the built-in type. See string/1. Strings in the classical Prolog sense are lists and therefore compound.

compound(+Term)

[ISO]

True if Term is bound to a compound term. See also functor/3 and =../2.

callable(+Term)

True if Term is bound to an atom or a compound term, so it can be handed without type-error to call/1, functor/3 and =../2.

ground(+Term)

True if Term holds no free variables.

cyclic_term(+Term)

True if Term contains cycles, i.e. is an infinite term. See also acyclic_term/1 and section 2.16.  

6 As rational numbers are not atomic in the current implementation and we do not want to break the rule that number/1 implies atomic/1, number/1 fails on rational numbers. This will change if rational numbers become atomic.

7 The predicates cyclic_term/1 and acyclic_term/1 are compatible with SICStus Prolog. Some Prolog systems supporting cyclic terms use is_cyclic/1.
acyclic_term(+Term)
  True if Term does not contain cycles, i.e. can be processed recursively in finite time. See also cyclic_term/1 and section 2.16.

4.6 Comparison and Unification of Terms

Although unification is mostly done implicitly while matching the head of a predicate, it is also provided by the predicate =/2.

\+Term1 = +Term2
  Unify Term1 with Term2. True if the unification succeeds. For behaviour on cyclic terms see the Prolog flag occurs_check. It acts as if defined by the following fact.

\=(Term, Term).

\+Term1 \= +Term2
  Equivalent to \+Term1 = Term2. See also dif/2.

4.6.1 Standard Order of Terms

Comparison and unification of arbitrary terms. Terms are ordered in the so called “standard order”. This order is defined as follows:

1. Variables < Numbers < Atoms < Strings < Compound Terms

2. Variables are sorted by address. Attaching attributes (see section 6.1) does not affect the ordering.

3. Atoms are compared alphabetically.

4. Strings are compared alphabetically.

5. Numbers are compared by value. Mixed integer/float are compared as floats. If the comparison is equal, the float is considered the smaller value. If the Prolog flag iso is defined, all floating point numbers precede all integers.

6. Compound terms are first checked on their arity, then on their functor-name (alphabetically) and finally recursively on their arguments, leftmost argument first.

\+Term1 == +Term2
  True if Term1 is equivalent to Term2. A variable is only identical to a sharing variable.

\+Term1 \== +Term2
  Equivalent to \+Term1 == Term2.

\+Term1 @< +Term2
  True if Term1 is before Term2 in the standard order of terms.

8 Strings might be considered atoms in future versions. See also section 4.22
4.6. COMPARISON AND UNIFICATION OF TERMS

+Term1 @=< +Term2  
   [ISO]  
   True if both terms are equal (=/=2) or Term1 is before Term2 in the standard order of terms.

+Term1 @> +Term2  
   [ISO]  
   True if Term1 is after Term2 in the standard order of terms.

+Term1 @>= +Term2  
   [ISO]  
   True if both terms are equal (=/=2) or Term1 is after Term2 in the standard order of terms.

compare(?Order, +Term1, +Term2)  
   Determine or test the Order between two terms in the standard order of terms. Order is one of <, > or =, with the obvious meaning.

4.6.2 Special unification and comparison predicates

This section describes special purpose variations on Prolog unification. The predicate unify_with_occurs_check/2 provides sound unification and is part of the ISO standard. The predicate subsumes_term/2 defines ‘one-sided-unification’ and is part of the ISO proposal established in Edinburgh (2010). Finally, unifiable/3 is a ‘what-if’ version of unification that is often used as a building block in constraint reasoners.

unify_with_occurs_check(+Term1, +Term2)  
   [ISO]  
   As =/=2, but using sound-unification. That is, a variable only unifies to a term if this term does not contain the variable itself. To illustrate this, consider the two goals below:

   1  ?-  A = f(A).
   A = f(f(f(f(f(f(f(f(f(f( ... ))))))))))
   2  ?-  unify_with_occurs_check(A, f(A)).
      No

I.e. the first creates a cyclic-term, which is printed as an infinitely nested f/1 term (see the max_depth option of write_term/2). The second executes logically sound unification and thus fails. Note that the behaviour of unification through =/=2 as well as implicit unification in the head can be changed using the Prolog flag occurs_check.

+Term1 =@= +Term2  
   True if Term1 is a variant of (or structurally equivalent to) Term2. Testing for a variant is weaker than equivalence (=/=2), but stronger than unification (=/=2). Two terms A and B are variants iff there exists a renaming of the variables in A that makes A equivalent (==) to B and visa-versa.⁹ Examples:

⁹Row 7 and 8 of this table may come as a surprise, but row 8 is satisfied by (left-to-right) A → C, B → A and (right-to-left) C → A, A → B. If the same variable appears in different locations in the left and right term, the variant-relation can be broken by consistent binding of both terms. E.g., after binding the first argument in row 8 to a value both terms are no longer variant.
A term is always a variant of a copy of itself. Term copying takes place in e.g., `copy_term/2`, `findall/3` or proving a clause added with `asserta/1`. In the pure Prolog world (i.e., without attributed variables), `=＠=/2` behaves as if defined below. With attributed variables, variant of the attributes is tested rather than trying to satisfy the constraints.

The SWI-Prolog implementation is cycle-safe and can deal with variables that are shared between the left and right argument. Its performance is comparable to `==/2`, both on success and (early) failure. Unlike `==`, the variant implementation does not benefit from sharing subterms.

This predicate is known by the name `variant/2` in some other Prolog systems. Be aware of possible differences in semantics if the arguments contain attributed variables or share variables.

---

1. `a =＠= A` false
2. `A =＠= B` true
3. `x(A, A) =＠= x(B, C)` false
4. `x(A, A) =＠= x(B, B)` true
5. `x(A, A) =＠= x(A, B)` false
6. `x(A, B) =＠= x(C, D)` true
7. `x(A, B) =＠= x(B, A)` true
8. `x(A, B) =＠= x(C, A)` true

---

```
A =＠= B :-
    copy_term(A, Ac),
    copy_term(B, Bc),
    numbervars(Ac, 0, N),
    numbervars(Bc, 0, N),
    Ac == Bc.
```

---

BUG: The combination of sharing and cycles may produce false positives.

The current implementation is based on ideas from Kuniaki Mukai.

In many systems variant is implemented using two calls to `subsumes_term/2`.

This predicate is often named `subsumes_chk/2` in older Prolog dialects. The current name was established in the ISO WG17 meeting in Edinburgh (2010). The `chk` postfix was considered to refer to determinism as in e.g., `memberchk/2`.

---

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
to make $X$ and $Y$ equivalent. This predicate can handle cyclic terms. Attributed variables are handled as normal variables. Associated hooks are not executed.

\( ?=\langle @\text{Term1}, @\text{Term2} \rangle \)

Succeeds, if the syntactic equality of \text{Term1} and \text{Term2} can be decided safely, i.e. if the result of \text{Term1} == \text{Term2} will not change due to further instantiation of either term. It behaves as if defined by \( ?=(X, Y) :- \neg \text{unifiable}(X, Y, [\_|\_]) \).

### 4.7 Control Predicates

The predicates of this section implement control structures. Normally the constructs in this section, except for \text{repeat/0}, are translated by the compiler. Please note that complex goals passed as arguments to meta-predicates such as \text{findall/3} below cause the goal to be compiled to a temporary location before execution. It is faster to define a sub-predicate (i.e. \text{one_character_atom/1} in the example below) and make a call to this simple predicate.

```
one_character_atoms(As) :-
    findall(A, (current_atom(A), atom_length(A, 1)), As).
```

\text{fail} \hspace{1cm} [ISO]

Always fail. The predicate \text{fail/0} is translated into a single virtual machine instruction.

\text{false}

Same as fail, but the name has a more declarative connotation.

\text{true} \hspace{1cm} [ISO]

Always succeed. The predicate \text{true/0} is translated into a single virtual machine instruction.

\text{repeat} \hspace{1cm} [ISO]

Always succeed, provide an infinite number of choice points.

\text{!} \hspace{1cm} [ISO]

Cut. Discard choice points of parent frame and frames created after the parent frame. As of SWI-Prolog 3.3, the semantics of the cut are compliant with the ISO standard. This implies that the cut is transparent to \( ;/2 \), \( ->/2 \) and \( *->/2 \). Cuts appearing in the \text{condition} part of \( ->/2 \) and \( *->/2 \) as well as in \( \backslash+/1 \) are local to the condition.\(^\text{15}\)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{t1} & :- (a, !, \text{fail} ; b). \quad \text{% cuts a/0 and t1/0} \\
\text{t2} & :- (a -> b, ! ; c). \quad \text{% cuts b/0 and t2/0} \\
\text{t3} & :- \text{call}((a, !, \text{fail} ; b)). \quad \text{% cuts a/0} \\
\text{t4} & :- \backslash+(a, !, \text{fail} ; b)). \quad \text{% cuts a/0}
\end{align*}
\]

\( :\text{Goal1}, :\text{Goal2} \hspace{1cm} [ISO] \)

Conjunction. True if both ‘Goal1’ and ‘Goal2’ can be proved. It is defined as (this definition does not lead to a loop as the second comma is handled by the compiler):

\(^\text{14}\)This predicate was introduced for the implementation of \text{dif/2} and \text{when/2} after discussion with Tom Schrijvers and Bart Demoen. None of us is really happy with the name and therefore suggestions for a new name are welcome.

\(^\text{15}\)Up to version 4.0.6, the sequence X=!X acted as a true cut. This feature has been deleted for ISO compliance.
Goal1, Goal2 :- Goal1, Goal2.

:Goal1 ; :Goal2

The ‘or’ predicate is defined as:

Goal1 ; _Goal2 :- Goal1.
_Goal1 ; Goal2 :- Goal2.

:Goal1 \ :Goal2

Equivalent to ; /2. Retained for compatibility only. New code should use ; /2.

:Condition \-> :Action

If-then and If-Then-Else. The \-> /2 construct commits to the choices made at its left-hand side, destroying choice-points created inside the clause (by ; /2), or by goals called by this clause. Unlike ! /0, the choice-point of the predicate as a whole (due to multiple clauses) is not destroyed. The combination ; /2 and \-> /2 acts as if defines by:

If \-> Then; _Else :- If, !, Then.
If \-> _Then; Else :- !, Else.
If \-> Then :- If, !, Then.

Please note that (If \-> Then) acts as (If \-> Then ; fail), making the construct fail if the condition fails. This unusual semantics is part of the ISO and all de-facto Prolog standards.

:Condition *\-> :Action ; :Else

This construct implements the so-called ‘soft-cut’. The control is defined as follows: If Condition succeeds at least once, the semantics is the same as (Condition, Action). If Condition does not succeed, the semantics is that of (\+ Condition, Else). In other words, If Condition succeeds at least once, simply behave as the conjunction of Condition and Action, otherwise execute Else.

The construct A *\-> B, i.e. without an Else branch, is translated as the normal conjunction A, B.\[16\]

\+ :Goal

True if ‘Goal’ cannot be proven (mnemonic: + refers to provable and the backslash (\) is normally used to indicate negation in Prolog).

4.8 Meta-Call Predicates

Meta-call predicates are used to call terms constructed at run time. The basic meta-call mechanism offered by SWI-Prolog is to use variables as a subclause (which should of course be bound to a valid goal at runtime). A meta-call is slower than a normal call as it involves actually searching the database at runtime for the predicate, while for normal calls this search is done at compile time.

\[16\] BUG: The decompiler implemented by clause/2 returns this construct as a normal conjunction too.
4.8. META-CALL PREDICATES

`call(:Goal)`  
Invoke `Goal` as a goal. Note that clauses may have variables as subclauses, which is identical to `call/1`.

`call(:Goal, +ExtraArg1, ...)`  
Append `ExtraArg1, ExtraArg2, ...` to the argument list of `Goal` and call the result. For example, `call(plus(1), 2, X)` will call `plus(1, 2, X)`, binding `X` to 3.

The call/[2..] construct is handled by the compiler, which implies that redefinition as a predicate has no effect. The predicates `call/[2-6]` are defined as real predicates, so they can be handled by interpreted code.

`apply(:Goal, +List)`  
Append the members of `List` to the arguments of `Goal` and call the resulting term. For example: `apply(plus(1), [2, X])` will call `plus(1, 2, X)`. `apply/2` is incorporated in the virtual machine of SWI-Prolog. This implies that the overhead can be compared to the overhead of `call/1`. New code should use `call/[2..]` if the length of `List` is fixed, which is more widely supported and faster because there is no need to build and examine the argument list.

`not(:Goal)`  
True if `Goal` cannot be proven. Retained for compatibility only. New code should use `\+/1`.

`once(:Goal)`  
Defined as:

```prolog
once(Goal) :-
    Goal, !.
```

`once/1` can in many cases be replaced with `->`/2. The only difference is how the cut behaves (see `!/0`). The following two clauses are identical:

1) a :- once((b, c)), d.
2) a :- b, c -> d.

`ignore(:Goal)`  
Calls `Goal` as `once/1`, but succeeds, regardless of whether `Goal` succeeded or not. Defined as:

```prolog
ignore(Goal) :-
    Goal, !.
ignore(_).
```

`call_with_depth_limit(:Goal, +Limit, -Result)`  
If `Goal` can be proven without recursion deeper than `Limit` levels, `call_with_depth_limit/3` succeeds, binding `Result` to the deepest recursion level used during the proof. Otherwise, `Result` is unified with `depth_limit_exceeded` if the limit was exceeded during the proof, or the entire predicate fails if `Goal` fails without exceeding `Limit`. 
The depth-limit is guarded by the internal machinery. This may differ from the depth computed based on a theoretical model. For example, `true/0` is translated into an inlined virtual machine instruction. Also, `repeat/0` is not implemented as below, but as a non-deterministic foreign predicate.

```prolog
repeat.
repeat :- repeat.
```

As a result, `call_with_depth_limit/3` may still loop infinitely on programs that should theoretically finish in finite time. This problem can be cured by using Prolog equivalents to such built-in predicates.

This predicate may be used for theorem-provers to realise techniques like *iterative deepening*. It was implemented after discussion with Steve Moyle smoyle@ermine.ox.ac.uk.

**setup_call_cleanup**:(:Setup, :Goal, :Cleanup)

Calls `(once(Setup), Goal)`. If `Setup succeeds`, `Cleanup` will be called exactly once after `Goal` is finished: either on failure, deterministic success, commit, or an exception. The execution of `Setup` is protected from asynchronous interrupts like `call_with_time_limit/2` (package `clib`) or `thread_signal/2`. In most uses, `Setup` will perform temporary side-effects required by `Goal` that are finally undone by `Cleanup`.

Success or failure of `Cleanup` is ignored and choice-points it created are destroyed (as `once/1`). If `Cleanup` throws an exception, this is executed as normal.\(^\text{17}\)

Typically, this predicate is used to cleanup permanent data storage required to execute `Goal`, close file-descriptors, etc. The example below provides a non-deterministic search for a term in a file, closing the stream as needed.

```prolog
term_in_file(Term, File) :-
    setup_call_cleanup(open(File, read, In),
                       term_in_stream(Term, In),
                       close(In)).

term_in_stream(Term, In) :-
    repeat,
    read(In, T),
    ( T == end_of_file -> !, fail
      ; T = Term
    ).
```

Note that it is impossible to implement this predicate in Prolog. The closest approximation would be to read all terms into a list, close the file and call `member/2`. Without `setup_call_cleanup/3` there is no way to gain control if the choice-point left by `repeat` is removed by a cut or an exception.

\(^{17}\)**BUG**: During the execution of `Cleanup`, garbage collection and stack-shifts are disabled.
setup_call_cleanup/3 can also be used to test determinism of a goal, providing a portable alternative to deterministic/1:

?- setup_call_cleanup(true, (X=1;X=2), Det=yes).
X = 1 ;
X = 2,
Det = yes ;

This predicate is under consideration for inclusion into the ISO standard. For compatibility with other Prolog implementations see call_cleanup/2.

setup_call_catcher_cleanup(:Setup, :Goal, +Catcher, :Cleanup)
Similar to setup_call_cleanup(Setup, Goal, Cleanup) with additional information on the reason of calling Cleanup. Prior to calling Cleanup, Catcher unifies with the termination code (see below). If this unification fails, Cleanup is not called.

exit
Goal succeeded without leaving any choice-points.

fail
Goal failed.
!
Goal succeeded with choice-points and these are now discarded by the execution of a cut (or other pruning of the search tree such as if-then-else).

exception(Exception)
Goal raised the given Exception.

external_exception(Exception)
Goal succeeded with choice-points and these are now discarded due to an exception. For example:

?- setup_call_catcher_cleanup(true, (X=1;X=2),
   Catcher, writeln(Catcher)),
   throw(ball).
external_exception(ball)
ERROR: Unhandled exception: Unknown message: ball

call_cleanup(:Goal, :Cleanup)
Same as setup_call_cleanup(true, Goal, Cleanup). This is provided for compatibility with a number of other Prolog implementations only. Do not use call_cleanup/2, if you perform side-effects prior to calling, that will be undone by Cleanup. Instead, use setup_call_cleanup/3 with an appropriate first argument to perform those side-effects.

call_cleanup(:Goal, +Catcher, :Cleanup)
Same as setup_call_catcher_cleanup(true, Goal, Catcher, Cleanup). The same warning as for call_cleanup/2 applies.
4.9  ISO compliant Exception handling

SWI-Prolog defines the predicates `catch/3` and `throw/1` for ISO compliant raising and catching of exceptions. In the current implementation (4.0.6), most of the built-in predicates generate exceptions, but some obscure predicates merely print a message, start the debugger and fail, which was the normal behaviour before the introduction of exceptions.

\[ \text{catch}(\text{Goal}, +\text{Catcher}, :\text{Recover}) \]  

Behaves as `call/1` if no exception is raised when executing `Goal`. If an exception is raised using `throw/1` while `Goal` executes, and the `Goal` is the innermost goal for which `Catcher` unifies with the argument of `throw/1`, all choice-points generated by `Goal` are cut, the system backtracks to the start of `catch/3` while preserving the thrown exception term and `Recover` is called as in `call/1`.

The overhead of calling a goal through `catch/3` is very comparable to `call/1`. Recovery from an exception is much slower, especially if the exception-term is large due to the copying thereof.

\[ \text{throw}(+\text{Exception}) \]  

Raise an exception. The system looks for the innermost `catch/3` ancestor for which `Exception` unifies with the `Catcher` argument of the `catch/3` call. See `catch/3` for details.

ISO demands `throw/1` to make a copy of `Exception`, walk up the stack to a `catch/3` call, backtrack and try to unify the copy of `Exception` with `Catcher`. SWI-Prolog delays making a copy of `Exception` and backtracking until it actually found a matching `catch/3` goal. The advantage is that we can start the debugger at the first possible location while preserving the entire exception context if there is no matching `catch/3` goal. This approach can lead to different behaviour if `Goal` and `Catcher` of `catch/3` call share variables. We assume this to be highly unlikely and could not think of a scenario where this is useful.\(^\text{18}\)

If an exception is raised in a callback from C (see chapter 9) and not caught in the same call-back, \texttt{PL\_next\_solution()} fails and the exception context can be retrieved using \texttt{PL\_exception()}.  

4.9.1 Debugging and exceptions

Before the introduction of exceptions in SWI-Prolog a runtime error was handled by printing an error message, after which the predicate failed. If the Prolog flag `debug_on_error` was in effect (default), the tracer was switched on. The combination of the error message and trace information is generally sufficient to locate the error.

With exception handling, things are different. A programmer may wish to trap an exception using `catch/3` to avoid it reaching the user. If the exception is not handled by user-code, the interactive top-level will trap it to prevent termination.

If we do not take special precautions, the context information associated with an unexpected exception (i.e., a programming error) is lost. Therefore, if an exception is raised, which is not caught using `catch/3` and the top-level is running, the error will be printed, and the system will enter trace mode.

\(^\text{18}\)I’d like to acknowledge Bart Demoen for his clarifications on these matters.
If the system is in an non-interactive callback from foreign code and there is no catch/3 active in the current context, it cannot determine whether or not the exception will be caught by the external routine calling Prolog. It will then base its behaviour on the Prolog flag debug_on_error:

- **current_prolog_flag(debug_on_error, false)**
  The exception does not trap the debugger and is returned to the foreign routine calling Prolog, where it can be accessed using PL_exception(). This is the default.

- **current_prolog_flag(debug_on_error, true)**
  If the exception is not caught by Prolog in the current context, it will trap the tracer to help analysing the context of the error.

While looking for the context in which an exception takes place, it is advised to switch on debug mode using the predicate debug/0. The hook prolog_exception_hook/4 can be used to add more debugging facilities to exceptions. An example is the library http/http_error, generating a full stack trace on errors in the HTTP server library.

### 4.9.2 The exception term

Built-in predicates generates exceptions using a term error(Formal, Context). The first argument is the ‘formal’ description of the error, specifying the class and generic defined context information. When applicable, the ISO error-term definition is used. The second part describes some additional context to help the programmer while debugging. In its most generic form this is a term of the form context(Name/Arity, Message), where Name/Arity describes the built-in predicate that raised the error, and Message provides an additional description of the error. Any part of this structure may be a variable if no information was present.

### 4.9.3 Printing messages

The predicate print_message/2 may be used to print a message term in a human readable format. The other predicates from this section allow the user to refine and extend the message system. The most common usage of print_message/2 is to print error messages from exceptions. The code below prints errors encountered during the execution of Goal, without further propagating the exception and without starting the debugger.

```prolog
...,
    catch(Goal, E,
        ( print_message(error, E),
           fail
        ),
        ...
    )
...,
```

Another common use is to defined message_hook/3 for printing messages that are normally silent, suppressing messages, redirecting messages or make something happen in addition to printing the message.

**print_message(+Kind, +Term)**

The predicate print_message/2 is used to print messages, notably from exceptions in a
human-readable format. Kind is one of informational, banner, warning, error, help or silent. A human-readable message is printed to the stream user.error.

If the Prolog flag verbose is silent, messages with Kind informational, or banner are treated as silent. See -q.

This predicate first translates the Term into a list of ‘message lines’ (see print_message_lines/3 for details). Next it will call the hook message_hook/3 to allow the user intercepting the message. If message_hook/3 fails it will print the message unless Kind is silent.

The print_message/2 predicate and its rules are in the file ⟨plhome⟩/boot/messages.pl, which may be inspected for more information on the error messages and related error terms. If you need to report errors from your own predicates, we advise you to stick to the existing error terms if you can; but should you need to invent new ones, you can define corresponding error messages by asserting clauses for prolog:message. You will need to declare the predicate as multifile.

See also message_to_string/2.

print_message_lines(+Stream, +Prefix, +Lines)
Print a message (see print_message/2) that has been translated to a list of message elements. The elements of this list are:

⟨Format⟩-⟨Args⟩
Where Format is an atom and Args is a list of format argument. Handed to format/3.

flush
If this appears as the last element, Stream is flushed (see flush_output/1) and no final newline is generated.

at_same_line
If this appears as first element, no prefix is printed for the first line and the line-position is not forced to 0 (see format/1, ~N).

⟨Format⟩
Handed to format/3 as format(Stream, Format, []).

nl
A new line is started and if the message is not complete the Prefix is printed too.

See also print_message/2 and message_hook/3.

message_hook(+Term, +Kind, +Lines)
Hook predicate that may be defined in the module user to intercept messages from print_message/2. Term and Kind are the same as passed to print_message/2. Lines is a list of format statements as described with print_message_lines/3. See also message_to_string/2.

This predicate should be defined dynamic and multifile to allow other modules defining clauses for it too.

message_to_string(+Term, -String)
Translates a message-term into a string object (see section 4.22). Primarily intended to write messages to Windows in XPCE (see section 1.5) or other GUI environments.
4.9. **ISO COMPLIANT EXCEPTION HANDLING**

**Printing from libraries**

Libraries should *not* use `format/3` or other output predicates directly. Libraries that print informational output directory to the console are hard to use from code that depend on your textual output, such as a GI script. The predicates in section 4.9.3 define the API for dealing with messages. The idea behind this is that a library that wants to provide information about its status, progress, events or problems calls `print_message/2`. The first argument is the *level*. The supported levels are described with `print_message/2`. Libraries typically use informational and warning, while libraries should use exceptions for errors (see `throw/1`, `type_error/2`, etc.).

The second argument is an arbitrary Prolog term that carries information of the message, but *not* the precise text. The text is defined by the grammar rule `prolog:message//1`. This distinction is made to allow for translations and to allow hooks processing the information in a different way (e.g., translate progress messages into a progress-bar).

For example, suppose we have a library that must download data from the internet (e.g., based on `http_open/3`). The library wants to print the progress after each downloaded file. The code below is a good skeleton:

```prolog
download_urls(List) :-
    length(List, Total),
    forall(nth1(I, List, URL),
        (download_url(URL),
         print_message(informational,
                        download_url(URL, I, Total)))).
```

The programmer can now specify the default textual output using the rule below. Note that this rule may be in the same file or anywhere else. Notably, the application may come with several rule-sets for different languages. This, and the user-hook example below are the reason to represent the message as a compound term rather than a string. This is similar to using message-numbers in non-symbolic languages. The documentation of `print_message/lines/3` describes the elements that may appear in the output list.

```prolog
:- multifile
    prolog:message//1.

prolog:message(download_url(URL, I, Total)) -->
    { Perc is round(I*100/Total) },
    [ 'Downloaded ˜w; ˜D from ˜D (˜d%)’-[URL, I, Total, Perc] ].
```

A *user* of the library may define rules for `message_hook/3`. The rule below acts on the message-content. Other applications can act on the message-level and, for example, popup a message-box for warnings and errors.

```prolog
:- multifile user:message_hook/3.

message_hook(download_url(URL, I, Total), _Kind, _Lines) :-
    <send this information to a GUI component>
```

In addition, using the commandline option `-q`, the user can disable all *informational* messages.
4.10 Handling signals

As of version 3.1.0, SWI-Prolog is capable to handle software interrupts (signals) in Prolog as well as in foreign (C) code (see section 9.4.13).

Signals are used to handle internal errors (execution of a non-existing CPU instruction, arithmetic domain errors, illegal memory access, resource overflow, etc.), as well as for dealing asynchronous inter-process communication.

Signals are defined by the POSIX standard and part of all Unix machines. The MS-Windows Win32 provides a subset of the signal handling routines, lacking the vital functionality to raise a signal in another thread for achieving asynchronous inter-process (or inter-thread) communication (Unix kill() function).

\[ \text{on_signal}(+\text{Signal}, -\text{Old}, :\text{New}) \]

Determines the reaction on Signal. Old is unified with the old behaviour, while the behaviour is switched to New. As with similar environment-control predicates, the current value is retrieved using \text{on_signal}(\text{Signal}, \text{Current}, \text{Current}).

The action description is an atom denoting the name of the predicate that will be called if Signal arrives. \text{on_signal}/3 is a meta-predicate, which implies that \( \langle \text{Module} \rangle : \langle \text{Name} \rangle \) refers the \( \langle \text{Name} \rangle /1 \) in the module \( \langle \text{Module} \rangle \). The handler is called with a single argument: the name of the signal as an atom. The Prolog names for signals is explained below.

Two predicate-names have special meaning. \text{throw} implies Prolog will map the signal onto a Prolog exception as described in section 4.9. \text{default} resets the handler to the settings active before SWI-Prolog manipulated the handler.

Signals bound to a foreign function through \text{PL_signal}() are reported using the term \$\text{foreign_function}(\text{Address}).

After receiving a signal mapped to \text{throw}, the exception raised has the structure

\[ \text{error} (\text{signal} (\langle \text{SigName} \rangle, \langle \text{SigNum} \rangle), \langle \text{Context} \rangle) \]

The signal names are defined by the POSIX standard as symbols of the form \text{SIG(SIGNAME)}. The Prolog name for a signal is the lowercase version of \( \langle \text{SIGNAME} \rangle \). The predicate \text{current_signal}/3 may be used to map between names and signals.

Initially, some signals are mapped to \text{throw}, while all other signals are \text{default}. The following signals throw an exception: \text{fpe}, \text{alrm}, \text{xcpu}, \text{xfsz} and \text{vtalrm}.

\[ \text{current_signal}(?\text{Name}, ?\text{Id}, ?\text{Handler}) \]

Enumerate the currently defined signal handling. \text{Name} is the signal name, \text{Id} is the numerical identifier and \text{Handler} is the currently defined handler (see \text{on_signal}/3).

4.10.1 Notes on signal handling

Before deciding to deal with signals in your application, please consider the following:

- **Portability**
  
  On MS-Windows, the signal interface is severely limited. Different Unix brands support different sets of signals, and the relation between signal name and number may vary. Currently, the system only supports signals numbered 1 to 32\(^\text{19}\). Installing a signal outside the limited set of

\[^{19}\text{TBD: the system should support the Unix realtime signals} \]
supported signals in MS-Windows crashes the application.

- **Safety**
  Immediately delivered signals (see below) are unsafe. This implies that foreign functions called from a handler cannot safely use the SWI-Prolog API and cannot use C longjmp(). Handlers defined as throw are unsafe. Handlers defined to call a predicate are safe. Note that the predicate can call throw/1, but the delivery is delayed until Prolog is in a safe state.

The C-interface described in section 9.4.13 provides the option \texttt{PL_SIGSYNC} to select either safe synchronous or unsafe asynchronous delivery.

- **Time of delivery**
  Using \texttt{throw} or a foreign handler, signals are delivered immediately (as defined by the OS). When using a Prolog predicate, delivery is delayed to a safe moment. Blocking system calls or foreign loops may cause long delays. Foreign code can improve on that by calling \texttt{PL_handle_signals()}. Signals are blocked when the garbage collector is active.

### 4.11 DCG Grammar rules

Grammar rules form a comfortable interface to difference-lists. They are designed both to support writing parsers that build a parse-tree from a list as for generating a flat list from a term. Unfortunately, Definite Clause Grammar (DCG) handling is not part of the Prolog standard. Most Prolog engines implement DCG, but the details differ slightly.

Grammar rules look like ordinary clauses using \texttt{-/2} for separating the head and body rather than \texttt{:/-2}. Expanding grammar rules is done by \texttt{expand/2}, which adds two additional argument to each term for representing the difference list. We will illustrate the behaviour by defining a rule-set for parsing an integer.

```prolog
integer(I) -->
    digit(D0),
    digits(D),
    { number_chars(I, [D0|D]) }
  .

digits([D|T]) -->
    digit(D), !,
    digits(T).

digits([]) -->
  [].

digit(D) -->
    [D],
    { code_type(D, digit) }
  .
```

The body of a grammar rule can contain three types of terms. A compound term interpreted as a reference to a grammar-rule. Code between \{ ... \} is interpreted as a reference to ordinary Prolog...
code and finally, a list is interpreted as a sequence of literals. The Prolog control-constructs (+/1, ->/2, ; //2, , /2 and !/0) can be used in grammar rules.

Grammar rule-sets are called using the built-in predicates phrase/2 and phrase/3:

\[\text{phrase}(+\text{RuleSet}, +\text{InputList})\]
Equivalent to phrase(RuleSet, InputList, []).

\[\text{phrase}(+\text{RuleSet}, +\text{InputList}, -\text{Rest})\]
Activate the rule-set with given name. ‘InputList’ is the list of tokens to parse, ‘Rest’ is unified with the remaining tokens if the sentence is parsed correctly. The example below calls the rule-set ‘integer’ defined above.

```
?- phrase(integer(X), "42 times", Rest).
X = 42
Rest = [32, 116, 105, 109, 101, 115]
```

4.12 Database

SWI-Prolog offers three different database mechanisms. The first one is the common assert/retract mechanism for manipulating the clause database. As facts and clauses asserted using assert/1 or one of its derivatives become part of the program these predicates compile the term given to them. retract/1 and retractall/1 have to unify a term and therefore have to decompile the program. For these reasons the assert/retract mechanism is expensive. On the other hand, once compiled, queries to the database are faster than querying the recorded database discussed below. See also dynamic/1.

The second way of storing arbitrary terms in the database is using the ‘recorded database’. In this database terms are associated with a key. A key can be an atom, small integer or term. In the last case only the functor and arity determine the key. Each key has a chain of terms associated with it. New terms can be added either at the head or at the tail of this chain.

Following the Edinburgh tradition, SWI-Prolog provides database keys to clauses and records in the recorded database. As of 5.9.10, these keys are represented by non-textual atoms (‘blobs’, see section 9.4.7), which makes accessing the database through references safe.

The third mechanism is a special purpose one. It associates an integer or atom with a key, which is an atom, integer or term. Each key can only have one atom or integer associated with it.

\[\text{abolish}(:\text{PredicateIndicator})\]
[ISO]
Removes all clauses of a predicate with functor Functor and arity Arity from the database. All predicate attributes (dynamic, multifile, index, etc.) are reset to their defaults. Abolishing an imported predicate only removes the import link; the predicate will keep its old definition in its definition module.

According to the ISO standard, abolish/1 can only be applied to dynamic procedures. This is odd, as for dealing with dynamic procedures there is already retract/1 and retractall/1. The abolish/1 predicate has been introduced in DEC-10 Prolog precisely for dealing with static procedures. In SWI-Prolog, abolish/1 works on static procedures, unless the prolog flag iso is set to true.
It is advised to use `retractall/1` for erasing all clauses of a dynamic predicate.

**abolish(+Name, +Arity)**  
Same as `abolish(Name/Arity)`. The predicate `abolish/2` conforms to the Edinburgh standard, while `abolish/1` is ISO compliant.

**redefine_system_predicate(+Head)**  
This directive may be used both in module `user` and in normal modules to redefine any system predicate. If the system definition is redefined in module `user`, the new definition is the default definition for all sub-modules. Otherwise the redefinition is local to the module. The system definition remains in the module `system`.  
Redefining system predicate facilitates the definition of compatibility packages. Use in other context is discouraged.

**retract(+Term)**  
When `Term` is an atom or a term it is unified with the first unifying fact or clause in the database. The fact or clause is removed from the database.

**retractall(+Head)**  
All facts or clauses in the database for which the head unifies with `Head` are removed. If `Head` refers to a predicate that is not defined, it is implicitly created as a dynamic predicate. See also `dynamic/1`.

**asserta(+Term)**  
Assert a fact or clause in the database. `Term` is asserted as the first fact or clause of the corresponding predicate. Equivalent to `assert/1`, but `Term` is asserted as first clause or fact of the predicate.

**assertz(+Term)**  
Equivalent to `asserta/1`, but `Term` is asserted as the last clause or fact of the predicate.

**assert(+Term)**  
Equivalent to `assertz/1`. Deprecated: new code should use `assertz/1`.

**asserta(+Term, -Reference)**  
Asserts a clause as `asserta/1` and unifies `Reference` with a handle to this clause. The handle can be used to access this specific clause using `clause/3` and `erase/1`.

**assertz(+Term, -Reference)**  
Equivalent to `asserta/1`, asserting the new clause as the last clause of the predicate.

**assert(+Term, -Reference)**  
Equivalent to `assertz/2`.

**recorda(+Key, +Term, -Reference)**  
Assert `Term` in the recorded database under key `Key`. `Key` is a small integer (range `min_tagged_integer` ... `max_tagged_integer`, atom or compound term. If the key is a compound term, only the name and arity define the key. `Reference` is unified with an opaque handle to the record (see `erase/1`).

---

20The ISO standard only allows using `dynamic/1` as a directive.
recorda(+Key, +Term)
   Equivalent to recorda(Key, Value, _).

recordz(+Key, +Term, -Reference)
   Equivalent to recorda/3, but puts the Term at the tail of the terms recorded under Key.

recordz(+Key, +Term)
   Equivalent to recordz(Key, Value, _).

recorded(?Key, ?Value, ?Reference)
   True if Value is recorded under Key and has the given database Reference. If Reference is given, this predicate is semi-deterministic. Otherwise, it must be considered non-deterministic. If neither Reference nor Key is given, the triples are generated as in the code snippet below.\(^{21}\)

   \[
   \text{current_key(Key),}
   \quad \text{recorded(Key, Value, Reference)}
   \]

recorded(+Key, -Value)
   Equivalent to recorded(Key, Value, _).

erase(+Reference)
   Erase a record or clause from the database. Reference is an db-reference returned by recorda/3 or recorded/3, clause/3, assert/2, asserta/2 or assertz/2. Fail silently if the referenced object no longer exists.

instance(+Reference, -Term)
   Unify Term with the referenced clause or database record. Unit clauses are represented as Head :- Body.

flag(+Key, -Old, +New)
   Key is an atom, integer or term. As with the recorded database, if Key is a term, only the name and arity are used to locate the flag. Unify Old with the old value associated with Key. If the key is used for the first time Old is unified with the integer 0. Then store the value of New, which should be an integer, float, atom or arithmetic expression, under Key. flag/3 is a fast mechanism for storing simple facts in the database. The flag database is shared between threads and updates are atomic, making it suitable for generating unique integer counters.\(^{22}\)

4.12.1 Update view

Traditionally, Prolog systems used the immediate update view: new clauses became visible to predicates backtracking over dynamic predicates immediately and retracted clauses became invisible immediately.

Starting with SWI-Prolog 3.3.0 we adhere the logical update view, where backtrackable predicates that enter the definition of a predicate will not see any changes (either caused by assert/1 or

\(^{21}\)Note that, without a given Key, some implementations return triples in the order defined by recorda/2 and recordz/2.

\(^{22}\)The flag/3 predicate is not portable. Non-backtrackable global variables (nb_setval/2) and non-backtrackable assignment (nb_setarg/3) are more widely recognised special-purpose alternatives for non-backtrackable and/or global state.
retract/1) to the predicate. This view is the ISO standard, the most commonly used and the most ‘safe’.\textsuperscript{23} Logical updates are realised by keeping reference-counts on predicates and \textit{generation} information on clauses. Each change to the database causes an increment of the generation of the database. Each goal is tagged with the generation in which it was started. Each clause is flagged with the generation it was created as well as the generation it was erased. Only clauses with ‘created’ \ldots ‘erased’ interval that encloses the generation of the current goal are considered visible.

\subsection{4.12.2 Indexing databases}

By default, SWI-Prolog, as most other implementations, indexes predicates on their first argument. SWI-Prolog allows indexing on other and multiple arguments using the declaration \texttt{index/1}. Dedicated index schemas can be built using \texttt{term_hash/2} or \texttt{term_hash/4}.

\begin{verbatim}

term_hash(+Term, -HashKey)  \[det\]
\texttt{term_hash(+Term, -HashKey)} \[det\]
\end{verbatim}

If \texttt{Term} is a ground term (see \texttt{ground/1}), \texttt{HashKey} is unified with a positive integer value that may be used as a hash-key to the value. If \texttt{Term} is not ground, the predicate leaves \texttt{HashKey} an unbound variable. Hash keys are in the range 0 \ldots 16, 777, 215, the maximal integer that can be stored efficiently on both 32 and 64 bit platforms.

This predicate may be used to build hash-tables as well as to exploit argument-indexing to find complex terms more quickly.

The hash-key does not rely on temporary information like addresses of atoms and may be assumed constant over different invocations and versions of SWI-Prolog.\textsuperscript{24} Hashes differ between big and little endian machines. The \texttt{term_hash/2} predicate is cycle-safe.\textsuperscript{25}

\begin{verbatim}

term_hash(+Term, +Depth, +Range, -HashKey)  \[det\]
\end{verbatim}

As \texttt{term_hash/2}, but only considers \texttt{Term} to the specified \texttt{Depth}. The toplevel term has depth 1, its arguments have depth 2, etc. I.e. \texttt{Depth} = 0 hashes nothing; \texttt{Depth} = 1 hashes atomic values or the functor and arity of a compound term, not its arguments; \texttt{Depth} = 2 also indexes the immediate arguments, etc.

\texttt{HashKey} is in the range \(0 \ldots Range - 1\). \texttt{Range} must be in the range \([1 \ldots 2147483647]\)

\begin{verbatim}

variant_sha1(+Term, -SHA1)  \[det\]
\end{verbatim}

Compute an SHA1-hash from \texttt{Term}. The hash is represented as a 40-byte hexadecimal atom. Unlike \texttt{term_hash/2} and friends, this predicate produces a hash-key for non-ground terms. The hash is invariant over variable-renaming (see \texttt{=\@=/2}) and constants over different invocations of Prolog.\textsuperscript{26}

This predicate raises an exception when trying to compute the hash on a cyclic term or attributed term. Attributed terms are not handled because \texttt{subsumes_chk/2} is not considered well defined for attributed terms. Cyclic terms are not supported because this would require establishing a canonical cycle. I.e., given \texttt{A=[a—A]} and \texttt{B=[a,a—B]}, \texttt{A} and \texttt{B} should produce the same hash. This is not (yet) implemented.

\textsuperscript{23}For example, using the immediate update view, no call to a dynamic predicate is deterministic.

\textsuperscript{24}Last change: version 5.10.4

\textsuperscript{25}BUG: All arguments that (indirectly) lead to the a cycle have the same hash-key.

\textsuperscript{26}BUG: The hash depends on word-order (big/little-endian) and the wordsize (32/64 bits).
This hash was developed for lookup of solutions to a goal stored in a table. By using a cryptographic hash, heuristic algorithms can often ignore the possibility of hash-collisions and thus avoid storing the goal-term itself as well as testing using $\neq@=/2$.

### 4.13 Declaring predicates properties

This section describes directives which manipulate attributes of predicate definitions. The functors `dynamic/1`, `multifile/1` and `discontiguous/1` are operators of priority 1150 (see `op/3`), which implies the list of predicates they involve can just be a comma separated list:

```prolog
:- dynamic
    foo/0,
    baz/2.
```

On SWI-Prolog all these directives are just predicates. This implies they can also be called by a program. Do not rely on this feature if you want to maintain portability to other Prolog implementations.

**dynamic** :`PredicateIndicator, . . .`  
[ISO]  
Informs the interpreter that the definition of the predicate(s) may change during execution (using `assert/1` and/or `retract/1`). In the multi-threaded version, the clauses of dynamic predicates are shared between the threads. The directive `thread_local/1` provides an alternative where each threads has its own clause-list for the predicate. Dynamic predicates can be turned into static ones using `compile_predicates/1`.

**compile_predicates(:ListOfNameArity)**  
Compile a list of specified dynamic predicates (see `dynamic/1` and `assert/1`) into normal static predicates. This call tells the Prolog environment the definition will not change anymore and further calls to `assert/1` or `retract/1` on the named predicates raise a permission error. This predicate is designed to deal with parts of the program that is generated at runtime but does not change during the remainder of the program execution.\(^{27}\)

**multifile** :`PredicateIndicator, . . .`  
[ISO]  
Informs the system that the specified predicate(s) may be defined over more than one file. This stops `consult/1` from redefining a predicate when a new definition is found.

**discontiguous** :`PredicateIndicator, . . .`  
[ISO]  
Informs the system that the clauses of the specified predicate(s) might not be together in the source file. See also `style_check/1`.

**public** :`PredicateIndicator, . . .`  
Instructs the cross-referencer that the predicate can be called. It has no semantics.\(^{28}\)

---

\(^{27}\) The specification of this predicate is from Richard O’Keefe. The implementation is allowed to optimise the predicate. This is not yet implemented. In multi-threaded Prolog however, static code runs faster as it does not require synchronisation. This is particularly true on SMP hardware.

\(^{28}\) This declaration is compatible to SICStus. In YAP, `public/1` instructs the compiler to keep the source. As the source is always available in SWI-Prolog, our current interpretation also enhanced the compatibility to YAP.
4.14. EXAMINING THE PROGRAM

index(+Head)

Index the clauses of the predicate with the same name and arity as Head on the specified arguments. Head is a term of which all arguments are either ‘1’ (denoting ‘index this argument’) or ‘0’ (denoting ‘do not index this argument’). Indexing has no implications for the semantics of a predicate, only on its performance. If indexing is enabled on a predicate a special purpose algorithm is used to select candidate clauses based on the actual arguments of the goal. This algorithm checks whether indexed arguments might unify in the clause head. Only atoms, integers and compound terms are considered. Compound terms are indexed on the combination of their name and arity. Indexing is very useful for predicates with many clauses representing facts.

Due to the representation technique used at most 4 arguments can be indexed. All indexed arguments should be in the first 32 arguments of the predicate. If more than 4 arguments are specified for indexing only the first 4 will be accepted. Arguments above 32 are ignored for indexing.

Indexing as specified by this predicate uses a quick but linear scan. Without explicit specification the system uses an algorithm depending on the structure of the first argument and number of clauses. In particular, for predicates that can be indexed on the first argument and have many clauses, the system will use an automatically resizing hash-table to provide access time independent from the number of clauses. If—for example—one wants to represent sub-types using a fact list ‘sub_type(Sub, Super)’ that should be used both to determine sub- and super types one should declare sub_type/2 as follows:

```
:- index(sub_type(1, 1)).

sub_type(horse, animal).
...
```

Note that this type of indexing makes selecting clauses much faster but remains linear with respect to the number of clauses, while hashing as described with hash/1 provides constant access time. See also hash/1 and term_hash/2.

hash(+Head)

Index the given predicate by hashing on the first argument. This is done by default on any predicate with more than 5 clauses having a first argument that can be indexed and at most two that can not be indexed. On dynamic predicates the hash-table is resized as the number of clauses grows, providing roughly constant-time access regardless of the number of clauses predicates that can be indexed on the first argument. See also index/1, term_hash/2 and predicate_property/2.

4.14 Examining the program

current_atom(-Atom)

Successively unifies Atom with all atoms known to the system. Note that current_atom/1

---

SWI-Prolog indexing is no longer state-of-the-art. Better schemas for multi-argument as well as indexing inside compound terms are known. We hope to integrate this in future versions.
always succeeds if Atom is instantiated to an atom.

**current_blob(?Blob, ?Type)**
Examine the type or enumerate blobs of the given Type. Typed blobs are supported through the foreign language interface for storing arbitrary BLOBS (Binary Large Object) or handles to external entities. See section 9.4.7 for details.

**current_functor(?Name, ?Arity)**
Successively unifies Name with the name and Arity with the arity of functors known to the system.

**current_flag(-FlagKey)**
Successively unifies FlagKey with all keys used for flags (see flag/3).

**current_key(-Key)**
Successively unifies Key with all keys used for records (see recorda/3, etc.).

**current_predicate(:PredicateIndicator)**
True if PredicateIndicator is a currently defined predicate. A predicate is considered defined if it exists in the specified module, is imported into the module or is defined in one of the modules from which the predicate will be imported if it is called (see section 5.9). Note that current_predicate/1 does not succeed for predicates that can be autoloaded. See also current_predicate/2 and predicate_property/2.

If PredicateIndicator is not fully specified, the predicate only generates values that are defined in or already imported into the target module. Generating all callable predicates therefore requires enumerating modules using current_module/1. Generating predicates callable in a given module requires enumerating the import modules using import_module/2 and the auto-loadable predicates using the predicate_property/2 autoload.

**current_predicate(?Name, :Head)**
Classical pre-ISO implementation of current_predicate/1, where the predicate is represented by the head-term. The advantage is that this can be used for checking existence of a predicate before calling it without the need for functor/3:

```prolog
call_if_exists(G) :-
current_predicate(_, G),
call(G).
```

Because of this intended usage, current_predicate/2 also succeeds if the predicate can be autoloaded. Unfortunately, checking the autoloader makes this predicate relatively slow; in particular because a failed lookup of the autoloader will cause the autoloader to verify that its index is up-to-date.

**predicate_property(:Head, ?Property)**
True if Head refers to a predicate that has property Property. With sufficiently instantiated Head, predicate_property/2 tries to resolve the predicate the same way as calling it would do: if the predicate is not defined it scans the auto-import modules and finally tries the autoloader. Unlike calling, failure to find the target predicate causes predicate_property/2 to fail silently. If Head is not sufficiently bound, only currently locally defined and already
imported predicates are enumerated. See `current_predicate/1` for enumerating all predicates. A common issue concerns generating all built-in predicates. This can be achieved using the code below.

```prolog
generate_builtin(Name/Arity) :-
    predicate_property(system:Head, built_in),
    functor(Head, Name, Arity),
    \+ sub_atom(Name, 0, _, _, $). % discard reserved names
```

Property is one of:

- **autoload(File)**
  Is true if the predicate can be autoloaded from the file `File`. Like `undefined`, this property is not generated.

- **built_in**
  Is true if the predicate is locked as a built-in predicate. This implies it cannot be redefined in its definition module and it can normally not be seen in the tracer.

- **dynamic**
  Is true if `assert/1` and `retract/1` may be used to modify the predicate. This property is set using `dynamic/1`.

- **exported**
  Is true if the predicate is in the public list of the context module.

- **imported_from(Module)**
  Is true if the predicate is imported into the context module from module `Module`.

- **file(FileName)**
  Unify `FileName` with the name of the source file in which the predicate is defined. See also `source_file/2`.

- **foreign**
  Is true if the predicate is defined in the C language.

- **indexed(Head)**
  Predicate is indexed (see `index/1`) according to `Head`. `Head` is a term whose name and arity are identical to the predicate. The arguments are unified with ‘1’ for indexed arguments, ‘0’ otherwise.

- **interpreted**
  Is true if the predicate is defined in Prolog. We return true on this because, although the code is actually compiled, it is completely transparent, just like interpreted code.

- **iso**
  Is true if the predicate is covered by the ISO standard (ISO/IEC 13211-1).

- **line_count(LineNumber)**
  Unify `LineNumber` with the line number of the first clause of the predicate. Fails if the predicate is not associated with a file. See also `source_file/2`.

- **multifile**
  Is true there may be multiple (or no) file providing clauses for the predicate. This property is set using `multifile/1`. 
**meta_predicate(Head)**

If the predicate is declared as a meta-predicate using `meta_predicate/1`, unify `Head` with the head-pattern. The head-pattern is a compound term with the same name and arity as the predicate where each argument of the term is a meta predicate specifier. See `meta_predicate/1` for details.

**nodebug**

Details of the predicate are not shown by the debugger. This is the default for built-in predicates. User predicates can be compiled this way using the Prolog flag `generate_debug_info`.

**notrace**

Do not show ports of this predicate in the debugger.

**number_of_clauses(ClauseCount)**

Unify `ClauseCount` to the number of clauses associated with the predicate. Fails for foreign predicates.

**public**

Predicate is declared public using `public/1`. Note that without further definition, public predicates are considered undefined and this property is not reported.

**thread_local**

If true (only possible on the multi-threaded version) each thread has its own clauses for the predicate. This property is set using `thread_local/1`.

**transparent**

Is true if the predicate is declared transparent using the `module_transparent/1` or `meta_predicate/1` declaration. In the latter case the property `meta` is also provided. See chapter 5 for details.

**undefined**

Is true if a procedure definition block for the predicate exists, but there are no clauses for it and it is not declared dynamic or multifile. This is true if the predicate occurs in the body of a loaded predicate, an attempt to call it has been made via one of the meta-call predicates or the predicate had a definition in the past. See the library package `check` for example usage.

**volatile**

If true, the clauses are not saved into a saved-state by `qsave_program/[1,2]`. This property is set using `volatile/1`.

**dwim_predicate(+Term, -Dwim)**

‘Do What I Mean’ (‘dwim’) support predicate. `Term` is a term, which name and arity are used as a predicate specification. `Dwim` is instantiated with the most general term built from `Name` and the arity of a defined predicate that matches the predicate specified by `Term` in the ‘Do What I Mean’ sense. See `dwim_match/2` for ‘Do What I Mean’ string matching. Internal system predicates are not generated, unless `style_check(+dollar)` is active. Backtracking provides all alternative matches.

**clause(Head, ?Body)**

True if `Head` can be unified with a clause head and `Body` with the corresponding clause body. Gives alternative clauses on backtracking. For facts `Body` is unified with the atom `true`.
4.15. INPUT AND OUTPUT

clause(Head, ?Body, ?Reference)
Equivalent to clause/2, but unifies Reference with a unique reference to the clause (see also assert/2, erase/1). If Reference is instantiated to a reference the clause’s head and body will be unified with Head and Body.

nth_clause(?Pred, ?Index, ?Reference)
Provides access to the clauses of a predicate using their index number. Counting starts at 1. If Reference is specified it unifies Pred with the most general term with the same name/arity as the predicate and Index with the index-number of the clause. Otherwise the name and arity of Pred are used to determine the predicate. If Index is provided Reference will be unified with the clause reference. If Index is unbound, backtracking will yield both the indices and the references of all clauses of the predicate. The following example finds the 2nd clause of member/2:

?- nth_clause(member(_,_), 2, Ref), clause(Head, Body, Ref).
Ref = 160088
Head = system : member(G575, [G578|G579])
Body = member(G575, G579)

clause_property(+ClauseRef, -Property)
Queries properties of a clause. ClauseRef is a reference to a clause as produced by clause/3, nth_clause/3 or prolog_frame_attribute/3. Property is one of the following:

file(FileName)
Unify FileName with the name of the source file in which the clause is defined. Fails if the clause is not associated to a file.

line_count(LineNumber)
Unify LineNumber with the line number of the clause. Fails if the clause is not associated to a file.

fact
True if the clause has no body.

erased
True if the clause has been erased, but not yet reclaimed because it is referenced.

4.15 Input and output

SWI-Prolog provides two different packages for input and output. The native I/O system is based on the ISO standard predicates open/3, close/1 and friends. Being more widely portable and equipped with a clearer and more robust specification, new code is encouraged to use these predicates for manipulation of I/O streams.

Section 4.15.2 describes tell/1, see/1 and friends, providing I/O in the spirit of the traditional Edinburgh standard. These predicates are layered on top of the ISO predicates. Both packages are fully integrated; the user may switch freely between them.

30 Actually based on Quintus Prolog, providing this interface before the ISO standard existed.

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
4.15.1 ISO Input and Output Streams

The predicates described in this section provide ISO compliant I/O, where streams are explicitly created using the predicate `open/3`. The resulting stream identifier is then passed as a parameter to the reading and writing predicates to specify the source or destination of the data.

This schema is not vulnerable to filename and stream ambiguities as well as changes to the working directory. On the other hand, using the notion of current-I/O simplifies reusability of code without the need to pass arguments around. E.g., see `with_output_to/2`.

SWI-Prolog streams are, compatible to the ISO standard, either input or output streams. To accommodate portability to other systems, a pair of streams can be packed into a `stream-pair`. See `stream_pair/3` for details.

SWI-Prolog stream-handles are unique symbols that have no syntactical representation. They are written as `\bnfmeta{stream}(hex-number)`, which is not valid input for `read/1`. They are realised using a `blob` of type `stream` (see `blob/2` and section 9.4.7).

```prolog
open(+SrcDest, +Mode, -Stream, +Options) [ISO]
ISO compliant predicate to open a stream. `SrcDest` is either an atom, specifying a file, or a term `pipe(Command)`, like `see/1` and `tell/1`. `Mode` is one of `read`, `write`, `append` or `update`. `Mode append` opens the file for writing, positioning the file-pointer at the end. `Mode update` opens the file for writing, positioning the file-pointer at the beginning of the file without truncating the file. `Stream` is either a variable, in which case it is bound to an integer identifying the stream, or an atom, in which case this atom will be the stream identifier.31 The `Options` list can contain the following options:

**type(Atom)**
Using type `text` (default), Prolog will write a text-file in an operating-system compatible way. Using type `binary` the bytes will be read or written without any translation. See also the option `encoding`.

**alias(Atom)**
Gives the stream a name. Below is an example. Be careful with this option as stream-names are global. See also `set_stream/2`.

```prolog
?- open(data, read, Fd, [alias(input)]).
...
  read(input, Term),
...
```  

**encoding(Encoding)**
Define the encoding used for reading and writing text to this stream. The default encoding for type `text` is derived from the Prolog flag `encoding`. For binary streams the default encoding is `octet`. For details on encoding issues, see section 2.17.1.

**bom(Bool)**
Check for a BOM (Byte Order Marker) or write one. If omitted, the default is `true` for mode `read` and `false` for mode `write`. See also `stream_property/2` and especially section 2.17.1 for a discussion on this feature.

---

31 New code should use the `alias(Alias)` option for compatibility with the ISO standard
4.15. INPUT AND OUTPUT

**eof_action** (*Action*)
Defines what happens if the end of the input stream is reached. Action *eof_code* makes `get0/1` and friends return -1 and `read/1` and friends return the atom `end_of_file`. Repetitive reading keeps yielding the same result. Action *error* is like *eof_code*, but repetitive reading will raise an error. With action *reset*, Prolog will examine the file again and return more data if the file has grown.

**buffer** (*Buffering*)
Defines output buffering. The atom *full* (default) defines full buffering, line buffering by line, and *false* implies the stream is fully unbuffered. Smaller buffering is useful if another process or the user is waiting for the output as it is being produced. See also `flush_output/[0,1]`. This option is not an ISO option.

**close_on_abort** (*Bool*)
If *true* (default), the stream is closed on an abort (see `abort/0`). If *false*, the stream is not closed. If it is an output stream, it will be flushed however. Useful for logfiles and if the stream is associated to a process (using the `pipe/1` construct).

**lock** (*LockingMode*)
Try to obtain a lock on the open file. Default is *none*, which does not lock the file. The value *read* or *shared* means other processes may read the file, but not write it. The value *write* or *exclusive* means no other process may read or write the file.

Locks are acquired through the POSIX function `fcntl()` using the command `F_SETLK`, which makes a blocked call wait for the lock to be released. Please note that `fcntl()` locks are *advisory* and therefore only other applications using the same advisory locks honour your lock. As there are many issues around locking in Unix, especially related to NFS (network file system), please study the `fcntl()` manual page before trusting your locks!

The *lock* option is a SWI-Prolog extension.

**wait** (*Bool*)
This option can be combined with the *lock* option. If *false* (default *true*), the open call returns immediately with an exception if the file is locked. The exception has the format `permission_error(lock, source_sink, SrcDest)`.

The option *reposition* is not supported in SWI-Prolog. All streams connected to a file may be repositioned.

**open** (+*SrcDest*, +*Mode*, ?*Stream*)
Equivalent to `open/4` with an empty option-list.

**open_null_stream** (?*Stream*)
Open an output stream that produces no output. All counting functions are enabled on such a stream. It can be used to discard output (like Unix `/dev/null`) or exploit the counting properties. The initial encoding of *Stream* is *utf8*, enabling arbitrary Unicode output. The encoding can be changed to determine byte-counts of the output in a particular encoding or validate output is possible in a particular encoding. For example, the code below determines the number of characters emitted when writing *Term*.

```prolog
write_length(Term, Len) :-
    open_null_stream(Out),
```

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
write(Out, Term),
character_count(Out, Len0),
close(Out),
Len = Len0.

**close(+Stream)**

Close the specified stream. If *Stream* is not open, an existence error is raised. However, closing a stream multiple times may crash Prolog. This is particularly true for multi-threaded applications.

If the closed stream is the current input or output stream, the terminal is made the current input or output.

**close(+Stream, +Options)**

Provides close(Stream, [force(true)]) as the only option. Called this way, any resource error (such as write-errors while flushing the output buffer) are ignored.

**stream_property(?Stream, ?StreamProperty)**

ISO compatible predicate for querying status of open I/O streams. *StreamProperty* is one of:

- **alias(Atom)**
  If *Atom* is bound, test of the stream has the specified alias. Otherwise unify *Atom* with the first alias of the stream.\(^{32}\)

- **buffer(Buffering)**
  SWI-Prolog extension to query the buffering mode of this stream. *Buffering* is one of full, line or false. See also open/4.

- **buffer_size(Integer)**
  SWI-Prolog extension to query the size of the I/O buffer associated to a stream in bytes. Fails of the stream is not buffered.

- **bom(Bool)**
  If present and true, a BOM (Byte Order Mark) was detected while opening the file for reading or a BOM was written while opening the stream. See section 2.17.1 for details.

- **close_on_abort(Bool)**
  Determine whether or not the stream is closed by abort/0. By default streams are closed.

- **close_on_exec(Bool)**
  Determine whether or not the stream is closed when executing a new process (exec() in Unix, CreateProcess() in Windows). Default is to close streams. This maps to fcntl() F_SETFD using the flag FD_CLOEXEC on Unix and (negated) HANDLE_FLAG_INHERIT on Windows.

- **encoding(Encoding)**
  Query the encoding used for text. See section 2.17.1 for an overview of wide character and encoding issues in SWI-Prolog.

\(^{32}\)BUG: Backtracking does not give other aliases.
4.15. INPUT AND OUTPUT

end_of_stream(E)
If Stream is an input stream, unify E with one of the atoms not, at or past. See also at_end_of_stream/[0,1].

eof_action(A)
Unify A with one of eof_code, reset or error. See open/4 for details.

file_name(Atom)
If Stream is associated to a file, unify Atom to the name of this file.

file_no(Integer)
If the stream is associated with a POSIX file-descriptor, unify Integer with the descriptor number. SWI-Prolog extension used primarily for integration with foreign code. See also Sfileno() from SWI-Stream.h.

input
True if Stream has mode read.

mode(IOMode)
Unify IOMode to the mode given to open/4 for opening the stream. Values are: read, write, append and the SWI-Prolog extension update.

newline(NewlineMode)
One of posix or dos. If dos, text-streams will emit \r
\n for \n and discard \r from input streams. Default depends on the operating system.

nlink(-Count)
Number of hard links to the file. This expresses the number of ‘names’ the file has. Not supported on all operating systems and the value might be bogus. See the documentation of fstat() for your OS and the value st_nlink.

output
True if Stream has mode write, append or update.

position(Term)
Unify Term with the current stream-position. A stream-position is an opaque term whose fields can be extracted using stream_position_data/3. See also set_stream_position/2.

reposition(Bool)
Unify Bool with true if the position of the stream can be set (see seek/4). It is assumed the position can be set if the stream has a seek-function and is not based on a POSIX file-descriptor that is not associated to a regular file.

representation_errors(Mode)
Determines behaviour of character output if the stream cannot represent a character. For example, an ISO Latin-1 stream cannot represent Cyrillic characters. The behaviour is one of error (throw and I/O error exception), prolog (write \\ldots\\ escape code or xml (write \&#\ldots; XML character entity). The initial mode is prolog for the user streams and error for all other streams. See also section 2.17.1 and set_stream/2.

timeout(-Time)
Time is the timeout currently associated with the stream. See set_stream/2 with the same option. If no timeout is specified, Time is unified to the atom infinite.

type(T)
Unify Bool with text or binary.
tty(Bool)
This property is reported with Bool equals true if the stream is associated with a terminal. See also set_stream/2.

current_stream(?Object, ?Mode, ?Stream)
The predicate current_stream/3 is used to access the status of a stream as well as to generate all open streams. Object is the name of the file opened if the stream refers to an open file, an integer file-descriptor if the stream encapsulates an operating-system stream or the atom [] if the stream refers to some other object. Mode is one of read or write.

is_stream(+Term)
True if Term is a stream name or valid stream handle. This predicate realises a safe test for the existence of a stream alias or handle.

stream_pair(?StreamPair, ?Read, ?Write)
This predicate can be used in mode (-,+,+) to create a stream-pair from an input stream and an output stream. Stream-pairs can be used by all I/O operations on streams, where the operation selects the appropriate member of the pair. The predicate close/1 closes both streams of the pair. Mode (+,-,-) can be used to get access to the underlying streams.

set_stream_position(+Stream, +Pos)
Set the current position of Stream to Pos. Pos is a term as returned by stream_property/2 using the position(Pos) property. See also seek/4.

stream_position_data(?Field, +Position, -Data)
Extracts information from the opaque stream position term as returned by stream_property/2 requesting the position(Position) property. Field is one of line_count, line_position, char_count or byte_count. See also line_count/2, line_position/2, character_count/2 and byte_count/2.33

seek(+Stream, +Offset, +Method, -NewLocation)
Reposition the current point of the given Stream. Method is one of bof, current or eof, indicating positioning relative to the start, current point or end of the underlying object. NewLocation is unified with the new offset, relative to the start of the stream.

Positions are counted in ‘units’. A unit is 1 byte, except for text-files using 2-byte Unicode encoding (2 bytes) or wchar encoding (sizeof(wchar_t)). The latter guarantees comfortable interaction with wide-character text-objects. Otherwise, the use of seek/4 on non-binary files (see open/4) is of limited use, especially when using multi-byte text-encodings (e.g. UTF-8) or multi-byte newline files (e.g. DOS/Windows). On text-files, SWI-Prolog offers reliable backup to an old position using stream_property/2 and set_stream_position/2. Skipping N character codes is achieved calling get_code/2 N times or using copy_stream_data/3, directing the output to a null-stream (see open_null_stream/1). If the seek modifies the current location, the line number and character position in the line are set to 0.

If the stream cannot be repositioned, a permission_error is raised. If applying the offset would result in a file-position less then zero, a domain_error is raised. Behaviour when

33Introduced in version 5.6.4 after extending the position term with a byte-count. Compatible with SICStus Prolog.
seeking to positions beyond the size of the underlying object depend on the object and possibly the operating system. The predicate `seek/4` is compatible with Quintus Prolog, though the error conditions and signalling is ISO compliant. See also `stream_property/2` and `set_stream_position/2`.

**set_stream(+Stream, +Attribute)**  
Modify an attribute of an existing stream. **Attribute** specifies the stream property to set. See also `stream_property/2` and `open/4`.

**alias(AliasName)**  
Set the alias of an already created stream. If **AliasName** is the name of one of the standard streams is used, this stream is rebound. Thus, `set_stream(S, current_input)` is the same as `set_input/1` and by setting the alias of a stream to `user_input`, etc. all user terminal input is read from this stream. See also `interactor/0`.

**buffer(Buffering)**  
Set the buffering mode of an already created stream. **Buffering** is one of `full`, `line` or `false`.

**buffer_size(+Size)**  
Set the size of the I/O buffer of the underlying stream to **Size** bytes.

**close_on_abort(Bool)**  
Determine whether or not the stream is closed by `abort/0`. By default streams are closed.

**close_on_exec(Bool)**  
Set the `close_on_exec` property. See `stream_property/2`.

**encoding(Atom)**  
Defines the mapping between bytes and character codes used for the stream. See section 2.17.1 for supported encodings.

**eof_action(Action)**  
Set end-of-file handling to one of `eof_code`, `reset` or `error`.

**newline(NewlineMode)**  
Set input or output translation for newlines. See corresponding `stream_property/2` for details. In addition to the detected modes, an input stream can be set in mode `detect`. It will be set to `dos` if a \r character was removed.

**timeout(Seconds)**  
This option can be used to make streams generate an exception if it takes longer than **Seconds** before any new data arrives at the stream. The value `infinite` (default) makes the stream block indefinitely. Like `wait_for_input/3`, this call only applies to streams that support the `select()` system call. For further information about timeout handling, see `wait_for_input/3`. The exception is of the form

```
error(timeout_error(read, Stream), _)
```

**type(Type)**  
Set the type of the stream to one of `text` or `binary`. See also `open/4` and the `encoding` property of streams.
record_position(Bool)
Do/do not record the line-count and line-position (see line_count/2 and line_position/2).

representation_errors(Mode)
Change the behaviour when writing characters to the stream that cannot be represented by the encoding. See also stream_property/2 and section 2.17.1.

file_name(FileName)
Set the file name associated to this stream. This call can be used to set the file for error-locations if Stream corresponds to FileName and is not obtained by opening the file directly but, for example, through a network service.

tty(Bool)
Modify whether Prolog thinks there is a terminal (i.e. human interaction) connected to this stream. On Unix systems the initial value comes from isatty(). On Windows, the initial user streams are supposed to be associated to a terminal. See also stream_property/2.

set_prolog_IO(+In, +Out, +Error)
Prepare the given streams for interactive behaviour normally associated to the terminal. In becomes the user_input and current_input of the calling thread. Out becomes user_output and current_output. If Error equals Out an unbuffered stream is associated to the same destination and linked to user_error. Otherwise Error is used for user_error. Output buffering for Out is set to line and buffering on Error is disabled. See also prolog/0 and set_stream/2. The clib package provides the library prolog_server creating a TCP/IP server for creating an interactive session to Prolog.

4.15.2 Edinburgh-style I/O

The package for implicit input and output destination is (almost) compatible with Edinburgh DEC-10 and C-Prolog. The reading and writing predicates refer to resp. the current input- and output stream. Initially these streams are connected to the terminal. The current output stream is changed using tell/1 or append/1. The current input stream is changed using see/1. The streams current value can be obtained using telling/1 for output- and seeing/1 for input streams.

Source and destination are either a file, user, or a term 'pipe(Command)'. The reserved stream name user refers to the terminal. In the predicate descriptions below we will call the source/destination argument ‘SrcDest’. Below are some examples of source/destination specifications.

?- see(data).   % Start reading from file ‘data’.
?- tell(user).  % Start writing to the terminal.
?- tell(pipe(lpr)).  % Start writing to the printer.

Another example of using the pipe/1 construct is shown below. Note that the pipe/1 construct is not part of Prolog’s standard I/O repertoire.

34 The ISO I/O layer uses user_input, user_output and user_error.
35 As of version 5.3.15, the pipe construct is supported in the MS-Windows version, both for swipl.exe and swipl-win.exe. The implementation uses code from the LUA programming language (http://www.lua.org).
Compatibility notes

Unlike Edinburgh Prolog systems, `telling/1` and `seeing/1` do not return the filename of the current input/output, but the stream-identifier, to ensure the design pattern below works under all circumstances.\(^36\)

\[
\ldots, \\
telling(Old), \text{tell}(x), \\
\ldots, \\
told, \text{tell}(Old), \\
\ldots,
\]

The predicates `tell/1` and `see/1` first check for `user`, the `pipe(command)` and a stream-handle. Otherwise, if the argument is an atom it is first compared to open streams associated to a file with exactly the same name. If such a stream, created using `tell/1` or `see/1` exists, output (input) is switch to the open stream. Otherwise a file with the specified name is opened.

The behaviour is compatible with Edinburgh Prolog. This is not without problems. Changing directory, non-file streams, multiple names referring to the same file easily lead to unexpected behaviour. New code, especially when managing multiple I/O channels should consider using the ISO I/O predicates defined in section 4.15.1.

`see(+SrcDest)`

Open `SrcDest` for reading and make it the current input (see `set_input/1`). If `SrcDest` is a stream-handle, just makes this stream the current input. See the introduction of section 4.15.2 for details.

`tell(+SrcDest)`

Open `SrcDest` for writing and make it the current output (see `set_output/1`). If `SrcDest` is a stream-handle, just makes this stream the current output. See the introduction of section 4.15.2 for details.

`append(+File)`

Similar to `tell/1`, but positions the file pointer at the end of `File` rather than truncating an existing file. The pipe construct is not accepted by this predicate.

\(^{36}\)Filenames can be ambiguous and SWI-Prolog streams can refer to much more than just files.
seeing(?SrcDest)
    Same as current_input/1, except that user is returned if the current input is the stream user_input to improve compatibility with traditional Edinburgh I/O. See the introduction of section 4.15.2 for details.

telling(?SrcDest)
    Same as current_output/1, except that user is returned if the current output is the stream user_output to improve compatibility with traditional Edinburgh I/O. See the introduction of section 4.15.2 for details.

seen
    Close the current input stream. The new input stream becomes user_input.

told
    Close the current output stream. The new output stream becomes user_output.

4.15.3 Switching Between Edinburgh and ISO I/O

The predicates below can be used for switching between the implicit- and the explicit stream based I/O predicates.

set_input(+Stream)  [ISO]
    Set the current input stream to become Stream. Thus, open(file, read, Stream), set_input(Stream) is equivalent to see(file).

set_output(+Stream)  [ISO]
    Set the current output stream to become Stream. See also with_output_to/2.

current_input(-Stream)  [ISO]
    Get the current input stream. Useful to get access to the status predicates associated with streams.

current_output(-Stream)  [ISO]
    Get the current output stream.

4.15.4 Write onto atoms, code-lists, etc.

with_output_to(+Output, :Goal)
    Run Goal as once/1, while characters written to the current output is sent to Output. The predicate is SWI-Prolog specific, inspired by various posts to the mailinglist. It provides a flexible replacement for predicates such as sformat/3, swritef/3, term_to_atom/2, atom_number/2 converting numbers to atoms, etc. The predicate format/3 accepts the same terms as output argument.

    Applications should generally avoid creating atoms by breaking and concatenating other atoms as the creation of large numbers of intermediate atoms generally leads to poor performance, even more so in multi-threaded applications. This predicate supports creating difference-lists from character data efficiently. The example below defines the DCG rule term//1 to insert a term in the output:
4.16. STATUS OF STREAMS

A Stream handle or alias
Temporary switch current output to the given stream. Redirection using with_output_to/2 guarantees the original output is restored, also if Goal fails or raises an exception. See also call_cleanup/2.

atom(-Atom)
Create an atom from the emitted characters. Please note the remark above.

string(-String)
Create a string-object as defined in section 4.22.

codes(-Codes)
Create a list of character codes from the emitted characters, similar to atom_codes/2.

codes(-Codes, -Tail)
Create a list of character codes as a difference-list.

chars(-Chars)
Create a list of one-character-atoms codes from the emitted characters, similar to atom_chars/2.

chars(-Chars, -Tail)
Create a list of one-character-atoms as a difference-list.

4.16 Status of streams

wait_for_input(+ListOfStreams, -ReadyList, +Timeout)
Wait for input on one of the streams in ListOfStreams and return a list of streams on which input is available in ReadyList. wait_for_input/3 waits for at most Timeout seconds. Timeout may be specified as a floating point number to specify fractions of a second. If Timeout equals infinite, wait_for_input/3 waits indefinitely.37

This predicate can be used to implement timeout while reading and to handle input from multiple sources. The following example will wait for input from the user and an explicitly opened second terminal. On return, Inputs may hold user or P4 or both.

?- open(’/dev/tty4’, read, P4),
   wait_for_input([user, P4], Inputs, 0).

37For compatibility reasons, a Timeout value of 0 (integer) also waits indefinitely. To call select() without giving up the CPU pass the float 0.0. If compatibility with versions older than 5.1.3 is desired pass the float value 1.0e-7.
This predicate relies on the select() call on most operating systems. On Unix this call is implemented for any stream referring to a file-handle, which implies all OS-based streams: sockets, terminals, pipes, etc. On non-Unix systems select() is generally only implemented for socket-based streams. See also socket from the clib package.

Note that wait_for_input/3 returns streams that have data waiting. This does not mean you can, for example, call read/2 on the stream without blocking as the stream might hold an incomplete term. The predicate `set_stream/2` using the option `timeout(Seconds)` can be used to make the stream generate an exception if no new data arrives for within the timeout. Suppose two processes communicate by exchanging Prolog terms. The following code makes the server immune for clients that write an incomplete term:

```prolog
..., tcp_accept(Server, Socket, _Peer),
tcp_open(Socket, In, Out),
set_stream(In, timeout(10)),
catch(read(In, Term), _, (close(Out), close(In), fail)),
..., byte_count(+Stream, -Count)
Byte-position in Stream. For binary streams this is the same as character_count/2. For text files the number may be different due to multi-byte encodings or additional record separators (such as Control-M in Windows).

color_count(+Stream, -Count)
Unify Count with the current character index. For input streams this is the number of characters read since the open, for output streams this is the number of characters written. Counting starts at 0.

line_count(+Stream, -Count)
Unify Count with the number of lines read or written. Counting starts at 1.

line_position(+Stream, -Count)
Unify Count with the position on the current line. Note that this assumes the position is 0 after the open. Tabs are assumed to be defined on each 8-th character and backspaces are assumed to reduce the count by one, provided it is positive.

4.17 Primitive character I/O

See section 4.2 for an overview of supported character representations.

nl(+Stream) [ISO]
Write a newline to Stream.
4.17. PRIMITIVE CHARACTER I/O

put(+Char)
Write Char to the current output stream. Char is either an integer-expression evaluating to a character code or an atom of one character. Deprecated. New code should use put_char/1 or put_code/1.

put(+Stream, +Char)
Write Char to Stream. See put/1 for details.

put_byte(+Byte) [ISO]
Write a single byte to the output. Byte must be an integer between 0 and 255.

put_byte(+Stream, +Byte) [ISO]
Write a single byte to a stream. Byte must be an integer between 0 and 255.

put_char(+Char) [ISO]
Write a character to the current output, obeying the encoding defined for the current output stream. Note that this may raise an exception if the encoding of Stream cannot represent Char.

put_char(+Stream, +Char) [ISO]
Write a character to Stream, obeying the encoding defined for Stream. Note that this may raise an exception if the encoding of Stream cannot represent Char.

put_code(+Code) [ISO]
Similar to put_char/1, but using a character code. Code is a non-negative integer. Note that this may raise an exception if the encoding of Stream cannot represent Code.

put_code(+Stream, +Code) [ISO]
Same as put_code/1 but directing Code to Stream.

tab(+Amount)
Writes Amount spaces on the current output stream. Amount should be an expression that evaluates to a positive integer (see section 4.25).

tab(+Stream, +Amount)
Writes Amount spaces to Stream.

flush_output [ISO]
Flush pending output on current output stream. flush_output/0 is automatically generated by read/1 and derivatives if the current input stream is user and the cursor is not at the left margin.

flush_output(+Stream) [ISO]
Flush output on the specified stream. The stream must be open for writing.

ttyflush
Flush pending output on stream user. See also flush_output/[0,1].

get_byte(-Byte) [ISO]
Read the current input stream and unify the next byte with Byte (an integer between 0 and 255. Byte is unified with -1 on end of file.
get\_byte(+\texttt{Stream}, -\texttt{Byte}) \quad \textit{[ISO]}
Read the next byte from \texttt{Stream}, returning an integer between 0 and 255.

get\_code(-\texttt{Code}) \quad \textit{[ISO]}
Read the current input stream and unify \texttt{Code} with the character code of the next character. \texttt{Code} is unified with -1 on end of file. See also \texttt{get\_char/1}.

get\_code(+\texttt{Stream}, -\texttt{Code}) \quad \textit{[ISO]}
Read the next character-code from \texttt{Stream}.

get\_char(-\texttt{Char}) \quad \textit{[ISO]}
Read the current input stream and unify \texttt{Char} with the next character as a one-character-atom. See also \texttt{atom\_chars/2}. On end-of-file, \texttt{Char} is unified to the atom \texttt{end\_of\_file}.

get\_char(+\texttt{Stream}, -\texttt{Char}) \quad \textit{[ISO]}
Unify \texttt{Char} with the next character from \texttt{Stream} as a one-character-atom. See also \texttt{get\_char/2}, \texttt{get\_byte/2} and \texttt{get\_code/2}.

get0(-\texttt{Char})
Edinburgh version of the ISO \texttt{get\_code/1} predicate. Note that Edinburgh prolog didn’t support wide characters and therefore technically speaking \texttt{get0/1} should have been mapped to \texttt{get\_byte/1}. The intention of \texttt{get0/1} however is to read character codes.

get0(+\texttt{Stream}, -\texttt{Char})
Edinburgh version of the ISO \texttt{get\_code/2} predicate. See also \texttt{get0/1}.

get(-\texttt{Char})
Read the current input stream and unify the next non-blank character with \texttt{Char}. \texttt{Char} is unified with -1 on end of file.

get(+\texttt{Stream}, -\texttt{Char})
Read the next non-blank character from \texttt{Stream}.

peek\_byte(-\texttt{Byte}) \quad \textit{[ISO]}
peek\_byte(+\texttt{Stream}, -\texttt{Byte}) \quad \textit{[ISO]}
peek\_code(-\texttt{Code}) \quad \textit{[ISO]}
peek\_code(+\texttt{Stream}, -\texttt{Code}) \quad \textit{[ISO]}
peek\_char(-\texttt{Char}) \quad \textit{[ISO]}
peek\_char(+\texttt{Stream}, -\texttt{Char}) \quad \textit{[ISO]}
Read the next byte/code/char from the input without removing it. These predicates do not modify the stream’s position or end-of-file status. These predicates require a buffered stream (see \texttt{set\_stream/2}) and raise a permission\_error if the stream is unbuffered or the buffer is too small to hold the longest multibyte sequence that might need to be buffered.

skip(+\texttt{Code})
Read the input until \texttt{Char} or the end of the file is encountered. A subsequent call to \texttt{get\_code/1} will read the first character after \texttt{Code}.

skip(+\texttt{Stream}, +\texttt{Code})
Skip input (as \texttt{skip/1}) on \texttt{Stream}.
get\_single\_char(-Code)
Get a single character from input stream ‘user’ (regardless of the current input stream). Unlike get\_code/1 this predicate does not wait for a return. The character is not echoed to the user’s terminal. This predicate is meant for keyboard menu selection etc. If SWI-Prolog was started with the \texttt{-tty} option this predicate reads an entire line of input and returns the first non-blank character on this line, or the character code of the newline (10) if the entire line consisted of blank characters.

at\_end\_of\_stream
\textit{[ISO]}
Succeeds after the last character of the current input stream has been read. Also succeeds if there is no valid current input stream.

at\_end\_of\_stream(+Stream)
\textit{[ISO]}
Succeeds after the last character of the named stream is read, or \textit{Stream} is not a valid input stream. The end-of-stream test is only available on buffered input stream (unbuffered input streams are rarely used, see \texttt{open/4}).

set\_end\_of\_stream(+Stream)
Sets the size of the file opened as \textit{Stream} to the current file-position. This is typically used in combination with the open-mode \texttt{update}.

copy\_stream\_data(+StreamIn, +StreamOut, +Len)
Copy \textit{Len} codes from stream \textit{StreamIn} to \textit{StreamOut}. Note that the copy is done using the semantics of get\_code/2 and put\_code/2, taking care of possibly recoding that needs take place between two text files. See section 2.17.1.

copy\_stream\_data(+StreamIn, +StreamOut)
Copy data all (remaining) data from stream \textit{StreamIn} to \textit{StreamOut}.

read\_pending\_input(+StreamIn, -Codes, ?Tail)
Read input pending in the input buffer of \textit{StreamIn} and return it in the difference list \textit{Codes-Tail}. I.e. the available characters codes are used to create the list \textit{Codes} ending in the tail \textit{Tail}. This predicate is intended for efficient unbuffered copying and filtering of input coming from network connections or devices.

The following code fragment realises efficient non-blocking copy of data from an input- to an output stream. The at\_end\_of\_stream/1 call checks for end-of-stream and fills the input buffer. Note that the use of a get\_code/2 and put\_code/2 based loop requires a flush\_output/1 call after \texttt{each} put\_code/2. The copy\_stream\_data/2 does not allow for inspection of the copied data and suffers from the same buffering issues.

\begin{verbatim}
copy(In, Out) :-
    repeat,
      ( at_end_of_stream(In)
        -> !
        ; read_pending_input(In, Chars, []),
        format(Out, '˜s', [Chars]),
        flush_output(Out),
        fail
      ).
\end{verbatim}

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
4.18 Term reading and writing

This section describes the basic term reading and writing predicates. The predicates `format/[1,2]` and `writef/2` provide formatted output. Writing to Prolog datastructures such as atoms or code-lists is supported by `with_output_to/2` and `format/3`.

Reading is sensitive to the Prolog flag `character_escapes`, which controls the interpretation of the \ character in quoted atoms and strings.

```prolog
write_term(+Term, +Options)  [ISO]
```

The predicate `write_term/2` is the generic form of all Prolog term-write predicates. Valid options are:

- `attributes(Atom)`
  Define how attributed variables (see section 6.1) are written. The default is determined by the Prolog flag `write_attributes`. Defined values are `ignore` (ignore the attribute), `dots` (write the attributes as {...}), `write` (simply hand the attributes recursively to `write_term/2`) and `portray` (hand the attributes to `attr_portray_hook/2`).

- `backquoted_string(Bool)`
  If true, write a string object (see section 4.22) as ‘...’. The default depends on the Prolog flag `backquoted_string`.

- `blobs(Atom)`
  Define how non-text blobs are handled. By default, this is left to the write-handler specified with the blob-type. Using `portray`, `portray/1` is called for each blob encountered. See section 9.4.7.

- `character_escapes(Bool)`
  If true, and `quoted(true)` is active, special characters in quoted atoms and strings are emitted as ISO escape-sequences. Default is taken from the reference module (see below).

- `ignore_ops(Bool)`
  If true, the generic term-representation (<functor>(<args> ...)) will be used for all terms. Otherwise (default), operators, list-notation and {}/1 will be written using their special syntax.

- `max_depth(Integer)`
  If the term is nested deeper than Integer, print the remainder as ellipses (...). A 0 (zero) value (default) imposes no depth limit. This option also delimits the number of printed for a list. Example:

  ```prolog
  ?- write_term(a(s(s(s(0)))), [a,b,c,d,e,f]), [max_depth(3)]).
  a(s(s(...)), [a, b|...])
  
  Yes
  ```

  Used by the top-level and debugger to limit screen output. See also the Prolog flags `toplevel_print_options` and `debugger_print_options`.

- `module(Module)`
  Define the reference module (default `user`). This defines the default value for the `character_escapes` option as well as the operator definitions to use. See also `op/3`. 

---

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
4.18. TERM READING AND WRITING

numbervars(Bool)
If true, terms of the format $VAR(N)$, where $⟨N⟩$ is a positive integer, will be written as a variable name. If $N$ is an atom it is written without quotes. This extension allows for writing variables with user-provided names. The default is false. See also numbervars/3.

partial(Bool)
If true (default false), do not reset the logic that inserts extra spaces that separate tokens where needed. This is intended to solve the problems with the code below. Calling write_value(.) writes ..., which cannot be read. By adding partial(true) to the option, it correctly emits . . . Similar problems appear when emitting operators using multiple calls to write_term/3.

```
write_value(Value) :-
    write_term(Value, [quoted(true)]),
    write('.'), nl.
```

portray(Bool)
If true, the hook portray/1 is called before printing a term that is not a variable. If portray/1 succeeds, the term is considered printed. See also print/1. The default is false. This option is an extension to the ISO write_term options.

priority(Integer)
An integer between 0 and 1200 representing the ‘context priority’. Default is 1200. Can be used to write partial terms appearing as the argument to an operator. For example:

```
format(˜w = ', [VarName]),
write_term(Value, [quoted(true), priority(699)])
```

quoted(Bool)
If true, atoms and functors that needs quotes will be quoted. The default is false.

spacing(+Spacing)
Determines whether and where extra white-space is added to enhance readability. The default is standard, adding only space where needed for proper tokenization by read_term/3. Currently, the only other value is next_argument, adding a space after a comma used to separate arguments in a term or list.

write_term(+Stream, +Term, +Options)
[ISO]
As write_term/2, but output is sent to Stream rather than the current output.

write_canonical(+Term)
[ISO]
Write Term on the current output stream using standard parenthesised prefix notation (i.e., ignoring operator declarations). Atoms that need quotes are quoted. Terms written with this predicate can always be read back, regardless of current operator declarations. Equivalent to write_term/2 using the options ignore_ops, quoted and numbervars after numbervars/4 using the singletons option.

Note that due to the use of numbervars/4, non-ground terms must be written using a single write_canonical/1 call. This used to be the case anyhow, as garbage collection between multiple calls to one of the write predicates can change the _G(NNN) identity of the variables.
write canonical(+Stream, +Term) \[ISO\]
Write Term in canonical form on Stream.

write(+Term) \[ISO\]
Write Term to the current output, using brackets and operators where appropriate.

write(+Stream, +Term) \[ISO\]
Write Term to Stream.

writeq(+Term) \[ISO\]
Write Term to the current output, using brackets and operators where appropriate. Atoms that need quotes are quoted. Terms written with this predicate can be read back with \texttt{read/1} provided the currently active operator declarations are identical.

writeq(+Stream, +Term) \[ISO\]
Write Term to Stream, inserting quotes.

print(+Term)
Prints Term on the current output stream similar to \texttt{write/1}, but for each (sub)term of Term first the dynamic predicate \texttt{portray/1} is called. If this predicate succeeds \texttt{print} assumes the (sub)term has been written. This allows for user defined term writing. See also \texttt{portray/1}.

print(+Stream, +Term)
Print Term to Stream.

portray(+Term)
A dynamic predicate, which can be defined by the user to change the behaviour of \texttt{print/1} on (sub)terms. For each subterm encountered that is not a variable \texttt{print/1} first calls \texttt{portray/1} using the term as argument. For lists only the list as a whole is given to \texttt{portray/1}. If portray succeeds \texttt{print/1} assumes the term has been written.

read(-Term) \[ISO\]
Read the next Prolog term from the current input stream and unify it with Term. On a syntax error \texttt{read/1} displays an error message, attempts to skip the erroneous term and fails. On reaching end-of-file Term is unified with the atom \texttt{end_of_file}.

read(+Stream, -Term) \[ISO\]
Read Term from Stream.

read clause(-Term)
Equivalent to \texttt{read/1}, but warns the user for variables only occurring once in a term (singleton variables, see section 2.15.1) which do not start with an underscore if \texttt{style_check(singleton)} is active (default). Used to read Prolog source files (see \texttt{consult/1}). New code should use \texttt{read term/2} with the option \texttt{singletons(warning)}.

read clause(+Stream, -Term)
Read a clause from Stream. See \texttt{read clause/1}.
**read_term**(-Term, +Options)  
Read a term from the current input stream and unify the term with Term. The reading is controlled by options from the list of Options. If this list is empty, the behaviour is the same as for read/1. The options are upward compatible with Quintus Prolog. The argument order is according to the ISO standard. Syntax-errors are always reported using exception-handling (see catch/3). Options:

- **backquoted_string**(<Bool>)  
  If true, read ‘…’ to a string object (see section 4.22). The default depends on the Prolog flag backquoted_string.

- **character_escapes**(<Bool>)  
  Defines how to read \ escape-sequences in quoted atoms. See the Prolog flags character_escapes, current_prolog_flag/2. (SWI-Prolog).

- **comments**(-Comments)  
  Unify Comments with a list of Position-Comment, where Position is a stream-position object (see stream_position_data/3) indicating the start of a comment and Comment is a string-object containing the text including delimiters of a comment. It returns all comments from where the read_term/2 call started up to the end of the term read.

- **double_quotes**(<Bool>)  
  Defines how to read ”…” strings. See the Prolog flag double_quotes. (SWI-Prolog).

- **module**(<Module>)  
  Specify Module for operators, character_escapes flag and double_quotes flag. The value of the latter two is overruled if the corresponding read_term/3 option is provided. If no module is specified, the current ‘source-module’ is used. (SWI-Prolog).

- **singletons**(<Vars>)  
  As variable_names, but only reports the variables occurring only once in the Term read. Variables starting with an underscore (‘_’) are not included in this list. (ISO). If Vars is the constant warning, singleton variables are reported using print_message/2.

- **syntax_errors**(<Atom>)  
  If error (default), throw and exception on a syntax error. Other values are fail, which causes a message to be printed using print_message/2, after which the predicate fails, quiet which causes the predicate to fail silently and dec10 which causes syntax errors to be printed, after which read_term/[2,3] continues reading the next term. Using dec10, read_term/[2,3] never fails. (Quintus, SICStus).

- **subterm_positions**(<TermPos>)  
  Describes the detailed layout of the term. The formats for the various types of terms is given below. All positions are character positions. If the input is related to a normal stream, these positions are relative to the start of the input, when reading from the terminal, they are relative to the start of the term.

  - **From-To**  
    Used for primitive types (atoms, numbers, variables).

  - **string_position**(<From, To>)  
    Used to indicate the position of a string enclosed in double quotes (").
brace_term_position(From, To, Arg)

Term of the form \{ ... \}, as used in DCG rules. Arg describes the argument.

list_position(From, To, Elms, Tail)

A list. Elms describes the positions of the elements. If the list specifies the tail as \langle TailTerm \rangle, Tail is unified with the term-position of the tail, otherwise with the atom none.

term_position(From, To, FFrom, FTo, SubPos)

Used for a compound term not matching one of the above. FFrom and FTo describe the position of the functor. SubPos is a list, each element of which describes the term-position of the corresponding subterm.

term_position(Pos)

Unifies Pos with the starting position of the term read. Pos if of the same format as use by stream_property/2.

variables(Vars)

Unify Vars with a list of variables in the term. The variables appear in the order they have been read. See also term_variables/2. (ISO).

variable_names(Vars)

Unify Vars with a list of ‘Name = Var’, where Name is an atom describing the variable name and Var is a variable that shares with the corresponding variable in Term. (ISO).

read_term(+Stream, -Term, +Options)

[ISO]
Read term with options from Stream. See read_term/2.

read_history(+Show, +Help, +Special, +Prompt, -Term, -Bindings)

Similar to read_term/2 using the option variable_names, but allows for history substitutions. read_history/6 is used by the top level to read the user’s actions. Show is the command the user should type to show the saved events. Help is the command to get an overview of the capabilities. Special is a list of commands that are not saved in the history. Prompt is the first prompt given. Continuation prompts for more lines are determined by prompt/2. A %w in the prompt is substituted by the event number. See section 2.7 for available substitutions.

SWI-Prolog calls read_history/6 as follows:

```
read_history(h, '!h', [trace], '%w %- ', Goal, Bindings)
```

prompt(-Old, +New)

Set prompt associated with read/1 and its derivatives. Old is first unified with the current prompt. On success the prompt will be set to New if this is an atom. Otherwise an error message is displayed. A prompt is printed if one of the read predicates is called and the cursor is at the left margin. It is also printed whenever a newline is given and the term has not been terminated. Prompts are only printed when the current input stream is user.

prompt1(+Prompt)

Sets the prompt for the next line to be read. Continuation lines will be read using the prompt defined by prompt/2.
4.19 Analysing and Constructing Terms

**functor**(?Term, ?Name, ?Arity)  
[ISO]  
True when Term is a term with functor Name/Arity. If Term is a variable it is unified with a new term whose arguments are all different variables (such a term is called a skeleton). If Term is atomic, Arity will be unified with the integer 0, and Name will be unified with Term. Raises instantiation_error if term is unbound and Name/Arity is insufficiently instantiated.

**arg**(?Arg, +Term, ?Value)  
[ISO]  
Term should be instantiated to a term, Arg to an integer between 1 and the arity of Term. Value is unified with the Arg-th argument of Term. Arg may also be unbound. In this case Value will be unified with the successive arguments of the term. On successful unification, Arg is unified with the argument number. Backtracking yields alternative solutions. The predicate arg/3 fails silently if Arg = 0 or Arg > arity and raises the exception domain_error(not_less_then_zero, Arg) if Arg < 0.

**?Term =.. ?List**  
[ISO]  
List is a list which head is the functor of Term and the remaining arguments are the arguments of the term. Each of the arguments may be a variable, but not both. This predicate is called ‘Univ’. Examples:

```prolog
?- foo(hello, X) =.. List.
List = [foo, hello, X]
?- Term =.. [baz, foo(1)]
Term = baz(foo(1))
```

**numbervars**(+Term, +Start, -End)  
Unify the free variables of Term with a term $VAR(N)$, where $N$ is the number of the variable. Counting starts at Start. End is unified with the number that should be given to the next variable. Example:

```prolog
?- numbervars(foo(A, B, A), 0, End).
A = '$VAR'(0)
B = '$VAR'(1)
End = 2
```

See also the numbervars option to write_term/3 and numbervars/4.

**numbervars**(+Term, +Start, -End, +Options)  
As numbervars/3, but providing the following options:

---

38The instantiation pattern (-, +, ?) is an extension to ‘standard’ Prolog. Some systems provide genarg/3 that covers this pattern.
functor_name(+Atom)
   Name of the functor to use instead of $VAR.$

attvar(+Action)
   What to do if an attributed variable is encountered. Options are skip, which causes numbervars/3 to ignore the attributed variable, bind which causes it to thread it as a normal variable and assign the next '$VAR' (N) term to it or (default) error which raises the a type_error exception.\(^{39}\)

singleton(+Bool)
   If true (default false), numbervars/4 does singleton detection. Singleton variables are unified with '$VAR' ('_'), causing them to be printed as _ by write_term/2 using the numbervars option. This option is exploited by portray_clause/2 and write_canonical/2.\(^{40}\)

term_variables(+Term, -List)
   Unify List with a list of variables, each sharing with a unique variable of Term.\(^{41}\) The variables in List are ordered in order of appearance traversing Term depth-first and left-to-right. See also term_variables/3. For example:

   ?- term_variables(a(X, b(Y, X), Z), L).
   L = [G367, G366, G371]
   X = G367
   Y = G366
   Z = G371

term_variables(+Term, -List, ?Tail)
   Difference list version of term_variables/2. I.e. Tail is the tail of the variable-list List.

copy_term(+In, -Out)
   Create a version if In with renamed (fresh) variables and unify it to Out. Attributed variables (see section 6.1) have their attributed copied. The implementation of copy_term/2 can deal with infinite trees (cyclic terms). As pure Prolog cannot distinguish a ground term from another ground term with exactly the same structure, ground sub-terms are shared between In and Out. Sharing ground terms does affect setarg/3. SWI-Prolog provides duplicate_term/2 to create a true copy of a term.

4.19.1 Non-logical operations on terms

Prolog is not capable to modify instantiated parts of a term. Lacking that capability makes that language much safer, but unfortunately there are problems that suffer severely in terms of time and/or memory usage. Always try hard to avoid the use of these primitives, but they can be a good alternative to using dynamic predicates. See also section 6.3, discussing the use of global variables.

\(^{39}\)This behaviour was decided after a long discussion between David Reitter, Richard O’Keefe, Bart Demoen and Tom Schrijvers.

\(^{40}\)BUG: Currently this option is ignored for cyclic terms.

\(^{41}\)This predicate used to be called free_variables/2. The name term_variables/2 is more widely used. The old predicate is still available from the library backcomp.
setarg(+Arg, +Term, +Value)
Extra-logical predicate. Assigns the Arg-th argument of the compound term Term with the given Value. The assignment is undone if backtracking brings the state back into a position before the setarg/3 call. See also nb_setarg/3.

This predicate may be used for destructive assignment to terms, using them as an extra-logical storage bin. Always try hard to avoid the use of setarg/3 as it is not supported by many Prolog systems and one has to be very careful about unexpected copying as well as unexpected not copying of terms. A good practice to improve somewhat on this situation is to make sure that terms whose arguments are subject to setarg/3 have one unused and unshared variable in addition to the used arguments. This variable avoids unwanted sharing in e.g., copy_term/2 and causes the term to be considered as non-ground.

nb_setarg(+Arg, +Term, +Value)
Assigns the Arg-th argument of the compound term Term with the given Value as setarg/3, but on backtracking the assignment is not reversed. If Term is not atomic, it is duplicated using duplicate_term/2. This predicate uses the same technique as nb_setval/2. We therefore refer to the description of nb_setval/2 for details on non-backtrackable assignment of terms. This predicate is compatible with GNU-Prolog setarg(A,T,V,false), removing the type-restriction on Value. See also nb_linkarg/3. Below is an example for counting the number of solutions of a goal. Note that this implementation is thread-safe, reentrant and capable of handling exceptions. Realising these features with a traditional implementation based on assert/retract or flag/3 is much more complicated.

```
:- meta_predicate
  succeeds_n_times(0, -).

succeeds_n_times(Goal, Times) :-
  Counter = counter(0),
  ( Goal,
    arg(1, Counter, N0),
    N is N0 + 1,
    nb_setarg(1, Counter, N),
    fail
  ; arg(1, Counter, Times)
  ).
```

nb_linkarg(+Arg, +Term, +Value)
As nb_setarg/3, but like nb_linkval/2 it does not duplicate Value. Use with extreme care and consult the documentation of nb_linkval/2 before use.

duplicate_term(+In, -Out)
Version of copy_term/2 that also copies ground terms and therefore ensures destructive modification using setarg/3 does not affect the copy. See also nb_setval/2, nb_linkval/2, nb_setarg/3 and nb_linkarg/3.

same_term(@T1, @T2)
True if T1 and T2 are the equivalent and will remain the equivalent, even if setarg/3 is used
on either of them. This means $T1$ and $T2$ are the same variable, equivalent atomic data or a compound term allocated at the same address.

### 4.20 Analysing and Constructing Atoms

These predicates convert between Prolog constants and lists of character codes. The predicates `atom_codes/2`, `number_codes/2` and `name/2` behave the same when converting from a constant to a list of character codes. When converting the other way around, `atom_codes/2` will generate an atom, `number_codes/2` will generate a number or exception and `name/2` will return a number if possible and an atom otherwise.

The ISO standard defines `atom_chars/2` to describe the ‘broken-up’ atom as a list of one-character atoms instead of a list of codes. Up-to version 3.2.x, SWI-Prolog’s `atom_chars/2` behaved, compatible with Quintus and SICStus Prolog, like `atom_codes`. As of 3.3.x SWI-Prolog `atom_codes/2` and `atom_chars/2` are compliant to the ISO standard.

To ease the pain of all variations in the Prolog community, all SWI-Prolog predicates behave as flexible as possible. This implies the ‘list-side’ accepts either a code-list or a char-list and the ‘atom-side’ accept all atomic types (atom, number and string).

#### `atom_codes/2` [ISO]

Convert between an atom and a list of character codes. If `Atom` is instantiated, it will be translated into a list of character codes and the result is unified with `String`. If `Atom` is unbound and `String` is a list of character codes, it will `Atom` will be unified with an atom constructed from this list.

#### `atom_chars/2` [ISO]

As `atom_codes/2`, but `CharList` is a list of one-character atoms rather than a list of character codes.

```prolog
?- atom_chars(hello, X).
X = [h, e, l, l, o]
```

#### `char_code/2` [ISO]

Convert between character and character code for a single character.

#### `number_chars/2` [ISO]

Similar to `atom_chars/2`, but converts between a number and its representation as a list of one-character atoms. Fails with a `syntax_error` if `Number` is unbound and `CharList` does not describe a number. Following the ISO standard, it allows for **leading** white space (including newlines) and does not allow for **trailing** white space.

---

42Up-to version 3.2.x, `atom_chars/2` behaved as the current `atom_codes/2`. The current definition is compliant with the ISO standard.

43This is also called `atom_char/2` in older versions of SWI-Prolog as well as some other Prolog implementations. The `atom_char/2` predicate is available from the library `backcomp.pl`.

44ISO also allows for Prolog comments in leading white space. We -and most other implementations- believe this is incorrect. We also believe it would have been better not to allow for white space, or to allow for both leading and trailing white space. Prolog-syntax based conversion can be achieved using `format/3` and `read_from_chars/2`.

---

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
4.20. ANALYSING AND CONSTRUCTING ATOMS

number_codes(?Number, ?CodeList)

As number_chars/2, but converts to a list of character codes rather than one-character atoms. In the mode -, +, both predicates behave identically to improve handling of non-ISO source.

atom_number(?Atom, ?Number)

Realises the popular combination of atom_codes/2 and number_codes/2 to convert between atom and number (integer or float) in one predicate, avoiding the intermediate list. Calling in mode +,- to convert numbers represented as atoms is often good style. Converting numbers to atoms, which in turn are assembled into larger units before communication them to the outside world is bad style. Consider using streams or with_output_to/2 to reduce the number of expensive intermediate atoms.

name(?AtomOrInt, ?String)

String is a list of character codes representing the same text as Atom. Each of the arguments may be a variable, but not both. When String is bound to an character code list describing an integer and Atom is a variable Atom will be unified with the integer value described by String (e.g., ‘name(N, "300"), 400 is N + 100’ succeeds). New code should consider using the ISO predicates atom_codes/2 or number_codes/2.45

term_to_atom(?Term, ?Atom)

True if Atom describes a term that unifies with Term. When Atom is instantiated Atom is converted and then unified with Term. If Atom has no valid syntax, a syntax_error exception is raised. Otherwise Term is “written” on Atom using write_term/2 with the option quoted(true). See also format/3 and with_output_to/2.

atom_to_term(+Atom, -Term, -Bindings)

Use Atom as input to read_term/2 using the option variable_names and return the read term in Term and the variable bindings in Bindings. Bindings is a list of Name = Var couples, thus providing access to the actual variable names. See also read_term/2. If Atom has no valid syntax, a syntax_error exception is raised.

atom_concat(?Atom1, ?Atom2, ?Atom3)

Atom3 forms the concatenation of Atom1 and Atom2. At least two of the arguments must be instantiated to atoms. This predicate also allows for the mode (-,-,+), non-deterministically splitting the 3-th argument into two parts (as append/3 does for lists). SWI-Prolog allows for atomic arguments. Portable code must use atomic_concat/3 if non-atom arguments are involved.

atomic_concat(+Atomic1, +Atomic2, -Atom)

Atom represents the text after converting Atomic1 and Atomic2 to text and concatenating the result:

?- atomic_concat(name, 42, X).
X = name42.

45Unfortunately, the ISO predicates provide no neat way to check that a string can be interpreted as a number. The most sensible way is to use catch/3 to catch the exception from number_codes/2, however this is both slow and cumbersome.
atomic_list_concat(+List, -Atom)  \[commons\]

List is a list of atoms, integers or floating point numbers. Succeeds if Atom can be unified with the concatenated elements of List.

atomic_list_concat(+List, +Separator, ?Atom)  \[commons\]

Creates an atom just like atomic_list_concat/2, but inserts Separator between each pair of atoms. For example:

?- atomic_list_concat([gnu, gnat], ', ', A).
A = 'gnu, gnat'

The SWI-Prolog version of this predicate can also be used to split atoms by instantiating Separator and Atom as shown below. We kept this functionality to simplify porting old SWI-Prolog code where this predicate was called concat_atom/3.

?- atomic_list_concat(L, -, 'gnu-gnat').
L = [gnu, gnat]

atom_length(+Atom, -Length)  \[ISO\]

True if Atom is an atom of Length characters long. This predicate also works for strings (see section 4.22). If the prolog flag iso is not set, it also accepts integers and floats, expressing the number of characters output when given to write/1 as well as code-lists and character-lists, expressing the length of the list.\(^{46}\)

atom_prefix(+Atom, +Prefix)

True if Atom starts with the characters from Prefix. Its behaviour is equivalent to

?- sub_atom(Atom, 0, _, _, Prefix).

Depreciated.


ISO predicate for breaking atoms. It maintains the following relation: Sub is a sub-atom of Atom that starts at Before, has Len characters and Atom contains After characters after the match.

?- sub_atom(abc, 1, 1, A, S).
A = 1, S = b

The implementation minimises non-determinism and creation of atoms. This is a very flexible predicate that can do search, prefix- and suffix-matching, etc.

\(^{46}\)BUG: Note that [] is both an atom an empty code/character list. The predicate atom_length/2 returns 2 for this atom.
4.21 Character properties

SWI-Prolog offers two comprehensive predicates for classifying characters and character-codes. These predicates are defined as built-in predicates to exploit the C-character classification’s handling of locale (handling of local character-sets). These predicates are fast, logical and deterministic if applicable.

In addition, there is the library `ctype` providing compatibility with some other Prolog systems. The predicates of this library are defined in terms of `code_type/2`.

`char_type(?Char, ?Type)`
Tests or generates alternative Types or Chars. The character-types are inspired by the standard C `<ctype.h>` primitives.

- **alnum**
  `Char` is a letter (upper- or lowercase) or digit.

- **alpha**
  `Char` is a letter (upper- or lowercase).

- **csym**
  `Char` is a letter (upper- or lowercase), digit or the underscore (_). These are valid C- and Prolog symbol characters.

- **csymf**
  `Char` is a letter (upper- or lowercase) or the underscore (_). These are valid first characters for C- and Prolog symbols.

- **ascii**
  `Char` is a 7-bits ASCII character (0..127).

- **white**
  `Char` is a space or tab. E.i. white space inside a line.

- **cntrl**
  `Char` is an ASCII control-character (0..31).

- **digit**
  `Char` is a digit.

- **digit(Weight)**
  `Char` is a digit with value `Weight`. I.e. `char_type(X, digit(6)` yields `X = '6'`. Useful for parsing numbers.

- **xdigit(Weight)**
  `Char` is a hexa-decimal digit with value `Weight`. I.e. `char_type(a, xdigit(X)` yields `X = '10'`. Useful for parsing numbers.

- **graph**
  `Char` produces a visible mark on a page when printed. Note that the space is not included!

- **lower**
  `Char` is a lower-case letter.

- **lower(Upper)**
  `Char` is a lower-case version of `Upper`. Only true if `Char` is lowercase and `Upper` uppercase.
to_lower(Upper)
  Char is a lower-case version of Upper. For non-letters, or letter without case, Char and Lower are the same. See also upcase_atom/2 and downcase_atom/2.

upper
  Char is an upper-case letter.

upper(Lower)
  Char is an upper-case version of Lower. Only true if Char is uppercase and Lower lowercase.

to_upper(Lower)
  Char is an upper-case version of Lower. For non-letters, or letter without case, Char and Lower are the same. See also upcase_atom/2 and downcase_atom/2.

punct
  Char is a punctuation character. This is a graph character that is not a letter or digit.

space
  Char is some form of layout character (tab, vertical-tab, newline, etc.).

downcase_atom(+AnyCase, -LowerCase)
  Converts the characters of AnyCase into lowercase as char_type/2 does (i.e. based on the defined locale if Prolog provides locale support on the hosting platform) and unifies the lowercase atom with LowerCase.
4.22. REPRESENTING TEXT IN STRINGS

upcase_atom(+AnyCase, -UpperCase)
Converts, similar to downcase_atom/2, an atom to upper-case.

4.21.2 White space normalization

normalize_space(-Out, +In)
Normalize white space in In. All leading and trailing white space is removed. All non-empty sequences for Unicode white space characters are replaced by a single space (\u0020) character. Out uses the same conventions as with_output_to/2 and format/3.

4.21.3 Language specific comparison

This section deals with predicates for language specific string comparison operations.

collation_key(+Atom, -Key)
Create a Key from Atom for locale specific comparison. The key is defined such that if the key of atom A precedes the key of atom B in the standard order of terms, A is alphabetically smaller than B using the sort order of the current locale.

The predicate collation_key/2 is used by locale_sort/2 from library(sort). Please examine the implementation of locale_sort/2 as an example of using this call.

The Key is an implementation defined and generally unreadable string. On systems that do not support locale-handling, Key is simply unified with Atom.

locale_sort(+List, -Sorted)
Sort a list of atoms using the current locale. List is a list of atoms or string objects (see section 4.22). Sorted is unified with a list containing all atoms of List, sorted to the rules of the current locale. See also collation_key/2 and setlocale/3.

4.22 Representing text in strings

SWI-Prolog supports the data type string. Strings are a time and space efficient mechanism to handle text in Prolog. Strings are stored as a byte array on the global (term) stack and thus destroyed on backtracking and reclaimed by the garbage collector.

Strings were added to SWI-Prolog based on an early draft of the ISO standard, offering a mechanism to represent temporary character data efficiently. As SWI-Prolog strings can handle 0-bytes, they are frequently used through the foreign language interface (section 9) for storing arbitrary byte-sequences.

Starting with version 3.3, SWI-Prolog offers garbage collection on the atom-space as well as representing 0-bytes in atoms. Although strings and atoms still have different features, new code should consider using atoms to avoid too many representations for text as well as for compatibility with other Prolog implementations. Below are some of the differences:

- **creation**
  Creating strings is fast, as the data is simply copied to the global stack. Atoms are unique and therefore more expensive in terms of memory and time to create. On the other hand, if the same text has to be represented multiple times, atoms are more efficient.
• *destruction*

Backtracking destroys strings at no cost. They are cheap to handle by the garbage collector, but it should be noted that extensive use of strings will cause many garbage collections. Atom garbage collection is generally faster.

String objects by default have no lexical representation and thus can only be created using the predicates below or through the foreign language interface (See chapter 9). There are two ways to make `read/1` read text into strings, both controlled through Prolog flags. One is by setting the `double_quotes` flag to `string` and the other is by setting the `backquoted_string` flag to `true`. In latter case, ‘Hello world’ is read into a string and `write_term/2` prints strings between back-quotes if `quoted` is `true`. This flag provides compatibility with LPA Prolog string handling.

`string_to_atom(?String, ?Atom)`

Logical conversion between a string and an atom. At least one of the two arguments must be instantiated. `Atom` can also be an integer or floating point number.

`string_to_list(?String, ?List)`

Logical conversion between a string and a list of character codes characters. At least one of the two arguments must be instantiated.

`string_length(+String, -Length)`

Unify `Length` with the number of characters in `String`. This predicate is functionally equivalent to `atom_length/2` and also accepts atoms, integers and floats as its first argument.

`string_concat(?String1, ?String2, ?String3)`

Similar to `atom_concat/3`, but the unbound argument will be unified with a string object rather than an atom. Also, if both `String1` and `String2` are unbound and `String3` is bound to text, it breaks `String3`, unifying the start with `String1` and the end with `String2` as append does with lists. Note that this is not particularly fast on long strings as for each redo the system has to create two entirely new strings, while the list equivalent only creates a single new list-cell and moves some pointers around.

`sub_string(+String, ?Start, ?Length, ?After, ?Sub)`

`Sub` is a substring of `String` starting at `Start`, with length `Length` and `String` has `After` characters left after the match. See also `sub_atom/5`.

### 4.23 Operators

Operators are defined to improve the readability of source-code. For example, without operators, to write `2*3+4*5` one would have to write `+(\((\times\((2,3),\times\((4,5))\))\)`. In Prolog, a number of operators have been predefined. All operators, except for the comma `,` can be redefined by the user.

Some care has to be taken before defining new operators. Defining too many operators might make your source ‘natural’ looking, but at the same time lead to hard to understand the limits of your syntax. To ease the pain, as of SWI-Prolog 3.3.0, operators are local to the module in which they are defined. Operators can be exported from modules using a term `op(Precedence, Type, Name)` in the export list as specified by `module/2`. This is an extension specific to SWI-Prolog and the recommended mechanism if portability is not an important concern.
The module-table of the module `user` acts as default table for all modules and can be modified explicitly from inside a module to achieve compatibility with other Prolog systems:

```prolog
:- module(prove, [prove/1 ]).
:- op(900, xfx, user:(=>)).
```

Unlike what many users think, operators and quoted atoms have no relation: defining an atom as an operator does not influence parsing characters into atoms and quoting an atom does not stop it from acting as an operator. To stop an atom acting as an operator, enclose it in braces like this: (myop).

```prolog
op(+Precedence, +Type, :Name) [ISO]
```

Declare `Name` to be an operator of type `Type` with precedence `Precedence`. `Name` can also be a list of names, in which case all elements of the list are declared to be identical operators. `Precedence` is an integer between 0 and 1200. Precedence 0 removes the declaration. `Type` is one of: xf, yf, xfx, xfy, yfx, fy or fx. The ‘f’ indicates the position of the functor, while x and y indicate the position of the arguments. ‘y’ should be interpreted as “on this position a term with precedence lower or equal to the precedence of the functor should occur”. For ‘x’ the precedence of the argument must be strictly lower. The precedence of a term is 0, unless its principal functor is an operator, in which case the precedence is the precedence of this operator. A term enclosed in brackets (...) has precedence 0.

The predefined operators are shown in table 4.1. Operators can be redefined, unless prohibited by one of the limitations below. Applications must be careful with (re-)defining operators because changing operators may cause (other) files to be interpreted differently. Often this will lead to a syntax error. In other cases, text is read silently into a different term which may lead to subtle and difficult to track errors.

- It is not allowed to redefine the comma (’,’).
- The bar (\|) can only be (re-)defined as infix operator with priority not less than 1001.
- It is not allowed to define the empty list ([[]]) or the curly-bracket-pair ({}) as operators.

In SWI-Prolog, operators are local to a module (see also section 5.8). Keeping operators in modules and using controlled import/export of operators as described with the module/2 directive keep the issues manageable. The module system provides the operators from table 4.1 and these operators cannot be modified. Files that are loaded from the SWI-Prolog directories resolve operators and predicates from this system module rather than user which makes the semantics of the library and development system modules independent from operator changes to the user module.

```prolog
current_op(?Precedence, ?Type, ?:Name) [ISO]
```

True if `Name` is currently defined as an operator of type `Type` with precedence `Precedence`. See also op/3.
4.24 Character Conversion

Although I wouldn’t really know for what you would like to use these features, they are provided for ISO compliance.

\texttt{char_conversion(+CharIn, +CharOut)} \hspace{1cm} \textit{[ISO]}

Define that term-input (see \texttt{read_term/3}) maps each character read as \texttt{CharIn} to the character \texttt{CharOut}. Character conversion is only executed if the Prolog flag \texttt{char_conversion} is set to \texttt{true} and not inside quoted atoms or strings. The initial table maps each character onto itself. See also \texttt{current_char_conversion/2}.

\texttt{current_char_conversion(?CharIn, ?CharOut)} \hspace{1cm} \textit{[ISO]}

Queries the current character conversion-table. See \texttt{char_conversion/2} for details.

4.25 Arithmetic

Arithmetic can be divided into some special purpose integer predicates and a series of general predicates for integer, floating point and rational arithmetic as appropriate. The general arithmetic predicates all handle \textit{expressions}. An expression is either a simple number or a \textit{function}. The arguments of a function are expressions. The functions are described in section 4.25.2.

4.25.1 Special purpose integer arithmetic

The predicates in this section provide more logical operations between integers. They are not covered by the ISO standard, although they are ‘part of the community’ and found as either library or built-in
in many other Prolog systems.

**between(+Low, +High, ?Value)**

*Low* and *High* are integers, *High* \( \geq \) *Low*. If *Value* is an integer, *Low* \( \leq \) *Value* \( \leq \) *High*. When *Value* is a variable it is successively bound to all integers between *Low* and *High*. If *High* is *inf* or *infinite*\(^{47}\) *between/3* is true iff *Value* \( \geq \) *Low*, a feature that is particularly interesting for generating integers from a certain value.

**succ(?Int1, ?Int2)**

True if *Int2* = *Int1* + 1 and *Int1* \( \geq 0\). At least one of the arguments must be instantiated to a natural number. This predicate raises the domain-error not_less_than_zero if called with a negative integer. E.g. succ(*X*, 0) fails silently and succ(*X*, -1) raises a domain-error.\(^{48}\)

**plus(?Int1, ?Int2, ?Int3)**

True if *Int3* = *Int1* + *Int2*. At least two of the three arguments must be instantiated to integers.

### 4.25.2 General purpose arithmetic

The general arithmetic predicates are optionally compiled (see set_prolog_flag/2 and the -O command line option). Compiled arithmetic reduces global stack requirements and improves performance. Unfortunately compiled arithmetic cannot be traced, which is why it is optional.

\[
+Expr1 \gt +Expr2
\]

[ISO] True if expression *Expr1* evaluates to a larger number than *Expr2*.

\[
+Expr1 \lt +Expr2
\]

[ISO] True if expression *Expr1* evaluates to a smaller number than *Expr2*.

\[
+Expr1 \leq +Expr2
\]

[ISO] True if expression *Expr1* evaluates to a smaller or equal number to *Expr2*.

\[
+Expr1 \geq +Expr2
\]

[ISO] True if expression *Expr1* evaluates to a larger or equal number to *Expr2*.

\[
+Expr1 \neq +Expr2
\]

[ISO] True if expression *Expr1* evaluates to a number non-equal to *Expr2*.

\[
+Expr1 \equiv +Expr2
\]

[ISO] True if expression *Expr1* evaluates to a number equal to *Expr2*.

\[-Number\ is\ +Expr\]

[ISO] True when *Number* is the value to which *Expr* evaluates. Typically, is/2 should be used with unbound left operand. If equality is to be tested, =:=/2 should be used. For example:

\[
?- 1\ is\ \sin(pi/2).\quad \text{Fails!}\ \sin(pi/2)\ evaluates\ to\ the\ float\ 1.0,\ which\ does\ not\ unify\ with\ the\ integer\ 1.\n\]

\[
?- 1\ \equiv\ \sin(pi/2).\quad \text{Succeeds\ as\ expected.}\n\]

\(^{47}\)We prefer *infinite*, but some other Prolog systems already use *inf* for infinity we accept both for the time being.

\(^{48}\)The behaviour to deal with natural numbers only was defined by Richard O’Keefe to support the common count-down-to-zero in a natural way. Up-to 5.1.8 succ/2 also accepted negative integers.
Arithmetic types

SWI-Prolog defines the following numeric types:

- **integer**
  If SWI-Prolog is built using the GNU multiple precision arithmetic library (GMP), integer arithmetic is *unbounded*, which means that the size of integers is limited by available memory only. Without GMP, SWI-Prolog integers are 64-bits, regardless of the native integer size of the platform. The type of integer support can be detected using the Prolog flags `bounded`, `min_integer` and `max_integer`. As the use of GMP is default, most of the following descriptions assume unbounded integer arithmetic.

  Internally, SWI-Prolog has three integer representations. Small integers (defined by the Prolog flag `max_tagged_integer`) are encoded directly. Larger integers are represented as 64-bit value on the global stack. Integers that do not fit in 64-bit are represented as serialised GNU MPZ structures on the global stack.

- **rational number**
  Rational numbers \((Q)\) are quotients of two integers. Rational arithmetic is only provided if GMP is used (see above). Rational numbers are currently not supported by a Prolog type. They are represented by the compound term `rdiv(N,M)`. Rational numbers that are returned from `is/2` are *canonical*, which means \(M\) is positive and \(N\) and \(M\) have no common divisors. Rational numbers are introduced in the computation using the `rational/1`, `rationalize/1` or the `rdiv/2` (rational division) function. Using the same functor for rational division and representing rational numbers allow for passing rational numbers between computations as well as to `format/3` for printing.

  On the long term it is likely that rational numbers will become *atomic* as well as subtype of `number`. User code that creates or inspects the `rdiv(M,N)` terms will not be portable to future versions. Rationals are created using one of the functions mentioned above and inspected using `rational/3`.

- **float**
  Floating point numbers are represented using the C-type `double`. On most today platforms these are 64-bit IEEE floating point numbers.

  Arithmetic functions that require integer arguments accept, in addition to integers, rational numbers with (canonical) denominator ‘1’. If the required argument is a float the argument is converted to float. Note that conversion of integers to floating point numbers may raise an overflow exception. In all other cases, arguments are converted to the same type using the order below.

  \[
  \text{integer} \rightarrow \text{rational number} \rightarrow \text{floating point number}
  \]

Rational number examples

The use of rational numbers with unbounded integers allows for exact integer or *fixed point* arithmetic under the addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. To exploit rational arithmetic `rdiv/2` should be used instead of ‘/’ and floating point numbers must be converted to rational using `rational/1`. Omitting the `rational/1` on floats will convert a rational operand to float and continue the arithmetic using floating point numbers. Here are some examples.
Note that floats cannot represent all decimal numbers exactly. The function rational/1 creates an exact equivalent of the float, while rationalize/1 creates a rational number that is within the float rounding error from the original float. Please check the documentation of these functions for details and examples.

Rational numbers can be printed as decimal numbers with arbitrary precision using the format/3 floating point conversion:

?- A is 4 rdiv 3 + rational(1.5), format(’~50f~n’, [A]).
   2.83333333333333333333333333333333333333333333333333

A = 17 rdiv 6

Arithmetic Functions

Arithmetic functions are terms which are evaluated by the arithmetic predicates described in section 4.25.2. There are four types of arguments to functions:

- **Expr**  
  Arbitrary expression, returning either a floating point value or an integer.

- **IntExpr**  
  Arbitrary expression that must evaluate into an integer.

- **RatExpr**  
  Arbitrary expression that must evaluate into a rational number.

- **FloatExpr**  
  Arbitrary expression that must evaluate into a floating point.

For systems using bounded integer arithmetic (default is unbounded, see section 4.25.2 for details), integer operations that would cause overflow automatically convert to floating point arithmetic.

```
- +Expr  
  \[ISO\]
  \[ISO\]
  \[ISO\]
  \[ISO\]
  \[ISO\]
```

?- integer(+1) succeeds.

?- A is 2 rdiv 6  
   A = 1 rdiv 3

?- A is 4 rdiv 3 + 1  
   A = 7 rdiv 3

?- A is 4 rdiv 3 + 1.5  
   A = 2.83333

?- A is 4 rdiv 3 + rational(1.5)  
   A = 17 rdiv 6

Arithmetic functions are terms which are evaluated by the arithmetic predicates described in section 4.25.2. There are four types of arguments to functions:
+Expr1 / +Expr2  \[ISO\]

Result = Expr1 / Expr2  The flag iso is true, both arguments are converted to float and the return value is a float. Otherwise (default), if both arguments are integers the operation returns an integer if the division is exact. If at least one of the arguments is rational and the other argument is integer, the operation returns a rational number. In all other cases the return value is a float. See also //2 and rdiv/2.

+IntExpr1 mod +IntExpr2  \[ISO\]

Modulo, defined as Result = IntExpr1 - (IntExpr1 div IntExpr2) × IntExpr2, where div is floored division.

+IntExpr1 rem +IntExpr2  \[ISO\]

Remainder of integer division. Behaves as if defined by Result is IntExpr1 - (IntExpr1 // IntExpr2) × IntExpr2

+IntExpr1 // +IntExpr2  \[ISO\]

Integer division, defined as Result is rnd\(_I\)(Expr1/Expr2). The function rnd\(_I\) is the default rounding used by the C-compiler and available through the Prolog flag integer_rounding_function. In the C99 standard, C-rounding is defined as towards_zero.

\[
\text{div}(+\text{IntExpr1}, +\text{IntExpr2})  \[ISO\]
\]

Integer division, defined as Result is (IntExpr1 − IntExpr1 mod IntExpr2) // IntExpr2. In other words, this is integer division that rounds towards -infinity. This function guarantees behaviour that is consistent with mod/2, i.e., the following holds for every pair of integers X, Y where Y =\(\neq\) 0.

\[
\begin{align*}
Q &\text{ is } \text{div}(X, Y), \\
M &\text{ is } \text{mod}(X, Y), \\
X &\text{ = := } Y\times Q+M.
\end{align*}
\]

+RatExpr rdiv +RatExpr

Rational number division. This function is only available if SWI-Prolog has been compiled with rational number support. See section 4.25.2 for details.

+IntExpr1 gcd +IntExpr2

Result is the greatest common divisor of IntExpr1, IntExpr2.

abs(+Expr)  \[ISO\]

Evaluate Expr and return the absolute value of it.

sign(+Expr)  \[ISO\]

Evaluate to -1 if Expr < 0, 1 if Expr > 0 and 0 if Expr = 0.

max(+Expr1, +Expr2)

Evaluates to the largest of both Expr1 and Expr2. Both arguments are compared after converting to the same type, but the return value is in the original type. For example, max(2.5, 3) compares the two values after converting to float, but returns the integer 3.

Future versions might guarantee rounding towards zero.
min(+Expr1, +Expr2)
unused

Evaluates to the smallest of both Expr1 and Expr2. See max/2 for a description of type-handling.

.+Int, []+
A list of one element evaluates to the element. This implies "a" evaluates to the character code of the letter 'a' (97). This option is available for compatibility only. It will not work if 'style_check(+string)' is active as "a" will then be transformed into a string object. The recommended way to specify the character code of the letter 'a' is 0'a.

random(+IntExpr)
Evaluates to a random integer i for which 0 ≤ i < IntExpr. The system has two implementations. If it is compiled with support for unbounded arithmetic (default) it uses the GMP-library random functions. In this case, each thread keeps its own random state. The default algorithm is the Mersenne Twister algorithm. The seed is set when the first random number in a thread is generated. If available, it is set from /dev/random. Otherwise it is set from the system clock. If unbounded arithmetic is not supported, random numbers are shared between threads and the seed is initialised from the clock when SWI-Prolog was started. The predicate set_random/1 can be used to control the random number generator.

round(+Expr)
Evaluates Expr and rounds the result to the nearest integer.

integer(+Expr)
Same as round/1 (backward compatibility).

float(+Expr)
Translate the result to a floating point number. Normally, Prolog will use integers whenever possible. When used around the 2nd argument of is/2, the result will be returned as a floating point number. In other contexts, the operation has no effect.

rational(+Expr)
Convert the Expr to a rational number or integer. The function returns the input on integers and rational numbers. For floating point numbers, the returned rational number exactly represents the float. As floats cannot exactly represent all decimal numbers the results may be surprising. In the examples below, doubles can represent 0.25 and the result is as expected, in contrast to the result of rational(0.1). The function rationalize/1 remedies this. See section 4.25.2 for more information on rational number support.

?- A is rational(0.25).
A is 1 rdiv 4
?- A is rational(0.1).
A = 3602879701896397 rdiv 36028797018963968

rationalize(+Expr)
Convert the Expr to a rational number or integer. The function is similar to rational/1,
but the result is only accurate within the rounding error of floating point numbers, generally producing a much smaller denominator.\(^{50}\)

\[
?- A \text{ is } \text{rationalize}(0.25).
A = 1 \text{ rdiv } 4
?- A \text{ is } \text{rationalize}(0.1).
A = 1 \text{ rdiv } 10
\]

**float_fractional_part(+Expr)**  
Fractional part of a floating-point number. Negative if Expr is negative, rational if Expr is rational and 0 if Expr is integer. The following relation is always true:  
\[X \text{is float_fractional_part}(X) + \text{float_integer_part}(X).\]

**float_integer_part(+Expr)**  
Integer part of floating-point number. Negative if Expr is negative, Expr if Expr is integer.

**truncate(+Expr)**  
Truncate Expr to an integer. If \(Expr \geq 0\) this is the same as \(\text{floor}(Expr)\). For \(Expr < 0\) this is the same as \(\text{ceil}(Expr)\). E.i. truncate rounds towards zero.

**floor(+Expr)**  
Evaluates Expr and returns the largest integer smaller or equal to the result of the evaluation.

**ceiling(+Expr)**  
Evaluates Expr and returns the smallest integer larger or equal to the result of the evaluation.

**ceil(+Expr)**  
Same as ceiling/1 (backward compatibility).

**+IntExpr >> +IntExpr**  
Bitwise shift IntExpr1 by IntExpr2 bits to the right. The operation performs arithmetic shift, which implies that the inserted most significant bits are copies of the original most significant bit.

**+IntExpr << +IntExpr**  
Bitwise shift IntExpr1 by IntExpr2 bits to the left.

**+IntExpr \(\lor\) +IntExpr**  
Bitwise ‘or’ IntExpr1 and IntExpr2.

**+IntExpr \(\land\) +IntExpr**  
Bitwise ‘and’ IntExpr1 and IntExpr2.

**+IntExpr xor +IntExpr**  
Bitwise ‘exclusive or’ IntExpr1 and IntExpr2.

\(^{50}\)The names rational/1 and rationalize/1 as well as their semantics are inspired by Common Lisp.
4.25. ARITHMETIC

\[ +\text{IntExpr} \]
Bitwise negation. The returned value is the one’s complement of \( \text{IntExpr} \).

\[ \text{sqrt}(\text{+Expr}) \]
\[ \text{Result} = \sqrt{\text{Expr}} \] [ISO]

\[ \sin(\text{+Expr}) \]
\[ \text{Result} = \sin \text{Expr}. \text{Expr} \text{ is the angle in radians.} \] [ISO]

\[ \cos(\text{+Expr}) \]
\[ \text{Result} = \cos \text{Expr}. \text{Expr} \text{ is the angle in radians.} \] [ISO]

\[ \tan(\text{+Expr}) \]
\[ \text{Result} = \tan \text{Expr}. \text{Expr} \text{ is the angle in radians.} \]

\[ \text{asin}(\text{+Expr}) \]
\[ \text{Result} = \arcsin \text{Expr}. \text{Result} \text{ is the angle in radians.} \]

\[ \text{acos}(\text{+Expr}) \]
\[ \text{Result} = \arccos \text{Expr}. \text{Result} \text{ is the angle in radians.} \]

\[ \text{atan}(\text{+Expr}) \]
\[ \text{Result} = \arctan \text{Expr}. \text{Result} \text{ is the angle in radians.} \] [ISO]

\[ \text{atan2}(\text{YExpr}, \text{+XExpr}) \]
\[ \text{Result} = \arctan \frac{\text{YExpr}}{\text{XExpr}}. \text{Result} \text{ is the angle in radians. The return value is in the range } [-\pi \ldots \pi]. \text{Used to convert between rectangular and polar coordinate system.} \] [ISO]

\[ \text{atan}(\text{+YExpr}, \text{+XExpr}) \]
Same as atan2 / 2 (backward compatibility).

\[ \log(\text{+Expr}) \]
\[ \text{Natural logarithm. Result} = \ln \text{Expr} \] [ISO]

\[ \log_{10}(\text{+Expr}) \]
\[ \text{Base-10 logarithm. Result} = \log \text{Expr} \]

\[ \exp(\text{+Expr}) \]
\[ \text{Result} = e^{\text{Expr}} \] [ISO]

\[ +\text{Expr1} \mathbin{\star\star} +\text{Expr2} \]
\[ \text{Result} = \text{Expr1}^{\text{Expr2}}. \text{With unbounded integers and integer values for Expr1 and a non-negative integer Expr2, the result is always integer. The integer expressions } 0^I, 1^I \text{ and } -1^I \text{ are guaranteed to work for any integer } I. \text{Other integer base values generate a resource error if the result does not fit in memory.} \] [ISO]

\[ \text{powm}(\text{+IntExprBase, +IntExprExp, +IntExprMod}) \]
\[ \text{Result} = (\text{IntExprBase}^{\text{IntExprExp}}) \mod \text{IntExprMod}. \text{Only available when compiled with unbounded integer support. This formula is required for Diffie-Hellman key-exchange, a technique where two parties can establish a secret key over a public network.} \]
+Expr1 ^ +Expr2
    Same as */2 (backward compatibility).

pi
    Evaluates to the mathematical constant π (3.14159…).

e
    Evaluates to the mathematical constant e (2.71828…).

epsilon
    Evaluates to the difference between the float 1.0 and the first larger floating point number.

cputime
    Evaluates to a floating point number expressing the CPU time (in seconds) used by Prolog up till now. See also statistics/2 and time/1.

eval(+Expr)
    Evaluate Expr. Although ISO standard dictates that \( A=1+2, B = A \) works and unifies \( B \) to 3, it is widely felt that source-level variables in arithmetic expressions should have been limited to numbers. In this view the eval function can be used to evaluate arbitrary expressions.\(^{51}\)

Bitvector functions

The functions below are not covered by the standard. The msb/1 function is compatible with hProlog. The others are private extensions that improve handling of —unbounded— integers as bit-vectors.

msb(+IntExpr)
    Return the largest integer \( N \) such that \((IntExpr >> N) \\&\& 1 =:= 1\). This is the (zero-origin) index of the most significant 1 bit in the value of IntExpr, which must evaluate to a positive integer. Errors for 0, negative integers, and non-integers.

lsb(+IntExpr)
    Return the smallest integer \( N \) such that \((IntExpr >> N) \\&\& 1 =:= 1\). This is the (zero-origin) index of the least significant 1 bit in the value of IntExpr, which must evaluate to a positive integer. Errors for 0, negative integers, and non-integers.

popcount(+IntExpr)
    Return the number of 1s in the binary representation of the non-negative integer IntExpr.

4.26 Adding Arithmetic Functions

Prolog predicates can be given the role of arithmetic function. The last argument is used to return the result, the arguments before the last are the inputs. Arithmetic functions are added using the predicate arithmetic_function/1, which takes the head as its argument. Arithmetic functions are module sensitive, that is they are only visible from the module in which the function is defined and declared. Global arithmetic functions should be defined and registered from module user. Global definitions can be overruled locally in modules. The built-in functions described above can be redefined as well.

\(^{51}\)The eval/1 function was first introduced by ECLiPSe and is under consideration for YAP.
arithmetic_function(:Head)
Register a Prolog predicate as an arithmetic function (see is/2, >/2, etc.). The Prolog predicate should have one more argument than specified by Head, which it either a term Name/Arity, an atom or a complex term. This last argument is an unbound variable at call time and should be instantiated to an integer or floating point number. The other arguments are the parameters. This predicate is module sensitive and will declare the arithmetic function only for the context module, unless declared from module user. Example:

```
1 ?- [user].
   :- arithmetic_function(mean/2).

mean(A, B, C) :-
    C is (A+B)/2.
user compiled, 0.07 sec, 440 bytes.
Yes
2 ?- A is mean(4, 5).
A = 4.500000
```

current_arithmetic_function(:Head)
True if Head is a function that is visible from the current module. Built-in functions are visible from all modules, while user-defined functions (see arithmetic_function/1) obey the module visibility rules. E.g.,

```
?- current_arithmetic_function(sin(_)).
true.
```

4.27 Misc arithmetic support predicates

set_random(+Option)
Controls the random number generator that accessible through the function random/1. Note that the library random provides distinct support for random numbers that is not affected by set_random/1.

seed(+Seed)
Set the seed of the random generator for this thread. Seed is an integer or the atom random. If random, repeat the initialization procedure described with the function random/1. Here is an example:

```
?- set_random(seed(111)), A is random(6).
A = 5.
?- set_random(seed(111)), A is random(6).
A = 5.
```
4.28 Built-in list operations

Most list operations are defined in the library lists described in section ??.. Some that are implemented with more low-level primitives are built-in and described here.

**is_list(+Term)**

True if Term is bound to the empty list ([[]]) or a term with functor ‘.’ and arity 2 and the second argument is a list.\(^{52}\) This predicate acts as if defined by the definition below on acyclic terms. The implementation fails safely if Term represents a cyclic list.

\[
\text{is\_list}\(X\) :- \\
\quad \text{var}\(X\), !, \\
\quad \text{fail}.
\]

\[
\text{is\_list}\([[]]\).
\]

\[
\text{is\_list}\([\_\mid T]\) :- \\
\quad \text{is\_list}\(T\).
\]

**memberchk(?Elem, +List)**

Same as once\(\text{member}\(\text{Elem}, \text{List}\)\). See member/2.

**length(?List, ?Int)**

True if Int represents the number of elements of list List. This predicate is a true relation and can be used to find the length of a list or produce a list (holding variables) of length Int. The predicate is non-deterministic, producing lists of increasing length if List is a partial list and Int is unbound. It raises errors if List is not a list or partial list or Int is not an integer or unbound.

**sort(+List, -Sorted)**

True if Sorted can be unified with a list holding the elements of List, sorted to the standard order of terms (see section 4.6). Duplicates are removed. The implementation is in C, using natural merge sort.\(^{53}\) The sort/2 predicate can sort a cyclic list, returning a non-cyclic version with the same elements.

**msort(+List, -Sorted)**

Equivalent to sort/2, but does not remove duplicates. Raises a type_error if List is a cyclic list or not a list.

**keysort(+List, -Sorted)**

List is a proper list whose elements are Key–Value, that is, terms whose principal functor is (-)/2, whose first argument is the sorting key, and whose second argument is the satellite data to be carried along with the key. keysort/2 sorts List like msort/2, but only compares the keys. It is used to sort terms not on standard order, but on any criterion that can be expressed on a multi-dimensional scale. Sorting on more than one criterion can be done using terms as keys, putting the first criterion as argument 1, the second as argument 2, etc. The order of multiple elements that have the same Key is not changed. The implementation is in C, using natural

---

\(^{52}\)In versions before 5.0.1, is_list/1 just checked for [] or [\_] and proper_list/1 had the role of the current is_list/1. The current definition conforms to the de-facto standard. Assuming proper coding standards, there should only be very few cases where a quick-and-dirty is_list/1 is a good choice. Richard O’Keefe pointed at this issue.

\(^{53}\)Contributed by Richard O’Keefe.

---

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
merge sort. Fails with a type_error if List is a cyclic list or not a list or one of the elements of List is not a pair.

predsort(+Pred, +List, -Sorted)
Sorts similar to sort/2, but determines the order of two terms by calling Pred(-Delta, +E1, +E2). This call must unify Delta with one of <, > or =. If built-in predicate compare/3 is used, the result is the same as sort/2. See also keysort/2.54

4.29 Finding all Solutions to a Goal

findall(+Template, :Goal, -Bag)
[ISO]
Creates a list of the instantiations Template gets successively on backtracking over Goal and unifies the result with Bag. Succeeds with an empty list if Goal has no solutions. findall/3 is equivalent to bagof/3 with all free variables bound with the existential operator (^), except that bagof/3 fails when goal has no solutions.

findall(+Template, :Goal, -Bag, +Tail)
As findall/3, but returns the result as the difference-list Bag-Tail. The 3-argument version is defined as

\[
\text{findall}(\text{Templ}, \text{Goal}, \text{Bag}) : - \\
\text{findall}(\text{Templ}, \text{Goal}, \text{Bag}, [])
\]

bagof(+Template, :Goal, -Bag)
[ISO]
Unify Bag with the alternatives of Template, if Goal has free variables besides the one sharing with Template bagof will backtrack over the alternatives of these free variables, unifying Bag with the corresponding alternatives of Template. The construct +Var`Goal tells bagof not to bind Var in Goal. bagof/3 fails if Goal has no solutions.

The example below illustrates bagof/3 and the ^ operator. The variable bindings are printed together on one line to save paper.

2 ?- listing(foo).

foo(a, b, c).
foo(a, b, d).
foo(b, c, e).
foo(b, c, f).
foo(c, c, g).

Yes
3 ?- bagof(C, foo(A, B, C), Cs).

A = a, B = b, C = G308, Cs = [c, d] ;
A = b, B = c, C = G308, Cs = [e, f] ;
A = c, B = c, C = G308, Cs = [g] ;

54Please note that the semantics have changed between 3.1.1 and 3.1.2
No
4 ?- bagof(C, A^foo(A, B, C), Cs).
   A = G324, B = b, C = G326, Cs = [c, d];
   A = G324, B = c, C = G326, Cs = [e, f, g];
No
5 ?-

\textbf{setof(+Template, +Goal, -Set)} \quad \textbf{[ISO]}

Equivalent to \texttt{bagof/3}, but sorts the result using \texttt{sort/2} to get a sorted list of alternatives without duplicates.

\section*{4.30 Forall}

\textbf{forall(:Cond, :Action)} \quad \textbf{[semidet]}

For all alternative bindings of \texttt{Cond Action} can be proven. The example verifies that all arithmetic statements in the list \texttt{L} are correct. It does not say which is wrong if one proves wrong.

?- forall(member(Result = Formula, [2 = 1 + 1, 4 = 2 * 2]),
          Result =:= Formula).

\section*{4.31 Formatted Write}

The current version of SWI-Prolog provides two formatted write predicates. The first is \texttt{writef/1,2}, which is compatible with Edinburgh C-Prolog. The second is \texttt{format/1,2}, which is compatible with Quintus Prolog. We hope the Prolog community will once define a standard formatted write predicate. If you want performance use \texttt{format/1,2} as this predicate is defined in C. Otherwise compatibility reasons might tell you which predicate to use.

\subsection*{4.31.1 Writef}

\textbf{writeln(+Term)}

Equivalent to \texttt{write(Term), nl}.

\textbf{writef(+Atom)}

Equivalent to \texttt{writef(Atom, [])}.

\textbf{writef(+Format, +Arguments)}

Formatted write. \texttt{Format} is an atom whose characters will be printed. \texttt{Format} may contain certain special character sequences which specify certain formatting and substitution actions. \texttt{Arguments} then provides all the terms required to be output.

Escape sequences to generate a single special character:
Note that \l, \nnn and \ are interpreted differently when character-escapes are in effect. See section 2.15.1.

Escape sequences to include arguments from Arguments. Each time a % escape sequence is found in Format the next argument from Arguments is formatted according to the specification.

\l | Output a newline character (see also nl/[0,1])
\l | Output a line separator (same as \n)
\l | Output a carriage-return character (ASCII 13)
\l | Output the ASCII character TAB (9)
\l | The character \ is output
\l | The character % is output
\l | where \n is an integer (1-3 digits) the character with character code \n is output (NB: \n is read as decimal)

\n | The character \ is output
\% | The character % is output
\n | where \ is an integer (1-3 digits) the character with character code \ is output (NB: \ is read as decimal)

\%t | print/1 the next item (mnemonic: term)
\%w | write/1 the next item
\%q | writeq/1 the next item
\%d | Write the term, ignoring operators. See also write_term/2. Mnemonic: old Edinburgh display/1.
\%p | print/1 the next item (identical to %t)
\%n | Put the next item as a character (i.e., it is a character code)
\%r | Write the next item N times where N is the second item (an integer)
\%s | Write the next item as a String (so it must be a list of characters)
\%f | Perform a ttyflush/0 (no items used)
\%Nc | Write the next item Centered in N columns.
\%Nl | Write the next item Left justified in N columns.
\%Nr | Write the next item Right justified in N columns. N is a decimal number with at least one digit. The item must be an atom, integer, float or string.

\swritef(-String, +Format, +Arguments)
Equivalent to \writef/2, but “writes” the result on String instead of the current output stream.
Example:

?- swritef(S, '%15L%w', ['Hello', 'World']).
S = "Hello World"

\swritef(-String, +Format)
Equivalent to \swritef(String, Format, []).

4.3.1.2 Format

The format-family of predicates is the most versatile and portable\(^{55}\) way to produce textual output.

**format(+Format)**

Defined as `'format(Format) :- format(Format, []).'`

**format(+Format, +Arguments)**

*Format* is an atom, list of character codes, or a Prolog string. *Arguments* provides the arguments required by the format specification. If only one argument is required and this single argument is not a list the argument need not be put in a list. Otherwise the arguments are put in a list.

Special sequences start with the tilde (˜), followed by an optional numeric argument, followed by a character describing the action to be undertaken. A numeric argument is either a sequence of digits, representing a positive decimal number, a sequence ` ⟨character⟩`, representing the character code value of the character (only useful for ˜t) or a asterisk (*), in which case the numeric argument is taken from the next argument of the argument list, which should be a positive integer. E.g., the following three examples all pass 46 (.) to ˜t:

```
?- format('˜w ˜46t ˜w72|˜n', [Title, 'Page']).
?- format('˜w ˜.t ˜w72|˜n', [Title, 'Page']).
?- format('˜w ˜*t ˜w72|˜n', [Title, 46, 'Page']).
```

Numeric conversion (d, D, e, E, f, g and G) accept an arithmetic expression as argument. This is introduced to handle rational numbers transparently (see section 4.25.2. The floating point conversions allow for unlimited precision for printing rational numbers in decimal form. E.g., the following will write as many 3-s as you want by changing the ‘70’.

```
?- format('˜70f', [10 rdiv 3]).
```

```
3.3333333333333333333333333333333333333333333333333333333333333333333333
```

- Output the tilde itself.
- Output the next argument, which must be an atom. This option is equivalent to w, except for that it requires the argument to be an atom.
- Interpret the next argument as a character code and add it to the output. This argument should be an integer in the range [0, . . . , 255] (including 0 and 255).
- Output next argument as a decimal number. It should be an integer. If a numeric argument is specified a dot is inserted argument positions from the right (useful for doing fixed point arithmetic with integers, such as handling amounts of money).
- Same as d, but makes large values easier to read by inserting a comma every three digits left to the dot or right.
- Output next argument as a floating point number in exponential notation. The numeric argument specifies the precision. Default is 6 digits. Exact representation depends on the C library function printf(). This function is invoked with the format `% ⟨precision⟩e`.\(^{55}\) Unfortunately not converted by any standard.

\(^{55}\)[Unfortunately not converted by any standard.]
4.31. FORMATTED WRITE

E Equivalent to e, but outputs a capital E to indicate the exponent.

f Floating point in non-exponential notation. See C library function printf().

g Floating point in e or f notation, whichever is shorter.

G Floating point in E or f notation, whichever is shorter.

i Ignore next argument of the argument list. Produces no output.

k Give the next argument to (write_canonical/1).

n Output a newline character.

N Only output a newline if the last character output on this stream was not a newline. Not properly implemented yet.

p Give the next argument to print/1.

q Give the next argument to writeq/1.

r Print integer in radix the numeric argument notation. Thus ~16r prints its argument hexadecimal. The argument should be in the range [2,...,36]. Lower case letters are used for digits above 9.

R Same as r, but uses upper case letters for digits above 9.

s Output text from a list of character codes or a string (see string/1 and section 4.22) from the next argument.\(^{56}\)

@ Interpret the next argument as a goal and execute it. Output written to the current_output stream is inserted at this place. Goal is called in the module calling format/3. This option is not present in the original definition by Quintus, but supported by some other Prolog systems.

t All remaining space between 2 tab stops is distributed equally over ~t statements between the tab stops. This space is padded with spaces by default. If an argument is supplied this is taken to be the character code of the character used for padding. This can be used to do left or right alignment, centering, distributing, etc. See also ~| and ~+ to set tab stops. A tab stop is assumed at the start of each line.

| Set a tab stop on the current position. If an argument is supplied set a tab stop on the position of that argument. This will cause all ~t’s to be distributed between the previous and this tab stop.

+ Set a tab stop relative to the current position. Further the same as ~|.

w Give the next argument to write/1.

W Give the next two argument to write_term/2. E.g. format(’ W’, [Term, [numbervars(true)]]). This option is SWI-Prolog specific.

Example:

```
simple_statistics :-
    <obtain statistics> % left to the user
    format(’˜tStatistics˜t72|˜n˜n’),
    format(’Runtime: ˜.t ˜2f˜34| Inferences: ˜.t ˜D˜72|˜n’),
```

\(^{56}\)The s modifier also accept an atom for compatibility. This is deprecated due to the ambiguity of [].
Will output

Statistics

format(+Output, +Format, +Arguments)
As format/2, but write the output on the given Output. The de-facto standard only allows Output to be a stream. The SWI-Prolog implementation allows all valid arguments for with_output_to/2. 57 For example:

?- format(atom(A), '˜D', [1000000]).
A = '1,000,000'

4.31.3 Programming Format
format_predicate(+Char, +Head)
If a sequence `c (tilde, followed by some character) is found, the format derivatives will first check whether the user has defined a predicate to handle the format. If not, the built in formatting rules described above are used. Char is either an ASCII value, or a one character atom, specifying the letter to be (re)defined. Head is a term, whose name and arity are used to determine the predicate to call for the redefined formatting character. The first argument to the predicate is the numeric argument of the format command, or the atom default if no argument is specified. The remaining arguments are filled from the argument list. The example below redefines `n to produce Arg times return followed by linefeed (so a (Grr.) DOS machine is happy with the output).

:- format_predicate(n, dos_newline(_Arg)).
dos_newline(default) :- !,
dos_newline(1).
dos_newline(N) :-
   ( N > 0
    -> write('\r\n'),
    N2 is N - 1,
    dos_newline(N2)
   ; true
 ).

57 Earlier versions defined sformat/3. These predicates have been moved to the library backcomp.
current_format_predicate(?Code, ?:Head)
Enumerates all user-defined format predicates. Code is the character code of the format character. Head is unified with a term with the same name and arity as the predicate. If the predicate does not reside in module user, Head is qualified with the definition module of the predicate.

### 4.32 Terminal Control

The following predicates form a simple access mechanism to the Unix termcap library to provide terminal independent I/O for screen terminals. These predicates are only available on Unix machines. The SWI-Prolog Windows consoles accepts the ANSI escape sequences.

**tty_get_capability(+Name, +Type, -Result)**
Get the capability named Name from the termcap library. See termcap(5) for the capability names. Type specifies the type of the expected result, and is one of string, number or bool. String results are returned as an atom, number result as an integer and bool results as the atom on or off. If an option cannot be found this predicate fails silently. The results are only computed once. Successive queries on the same capability are fast.

**tty_goto(+X, +Y)**
Goto position (X, Y) on the screen. Note that the predicates line_count/2 and line_position/2 will not have a well defined behaviour while using this predicate.

**tty_put(+Atom, +Lines)**
Put an atom via the termcap library function tputs(). This function decodes padding information in the strings returned by tty_get_capability/3 and should be used to output these strings. Lines is the number of lines affected by the operation, or 1 if not applicable (as in almost all cases).

**set_tty(-OldStream, +NewStream)**
Set the output stream, used by tty_put/2 and tty_goto/2 to a specific stream. Default is user_output.

**tty_size(-Rows, -Columns)**
Determine the size of the terminal. Platforms:

**Unix** If the system provides ioctl calls for this, these are used and tty_size/2 properly reflects the actual size after a user resize of the window. As a fallback, the system uses tty_get_capability/3 using li and co capabilities. In this case the reported size reflects the size at the first call and is not updated after a user-initiated resize of the terminal.

**Windows** Getting the size of the terminal is provided for swipl-win.exe. The requested value reflects the current size. For the multi-threaded version the console that is associated with the user_input stream is used.

### 4.33 Operating System Interaction

**shell(+Command, -Status)**
Execute Command on the operating system. Command is given to the Bourne shell (/bin/sh).
Status is unified with the exit status of the command.

On Win32 systems, shell/[1,2] executes the command using the CreateProcess() API and waits for the command to terminate. If the command ends with a & sign, the command is handed to the WinExec() API, which does not wait for the new task to terminate. See also win_exec/2 and win_shell/2. Please note that the CreateProcess() API does not imply the Windows command interpreter (command.exe on Windows 95/98 and cmd.exe on Windows-NT) and therefore commands built-in to the command-interpreter can only be activated using the command interpreter. For example: 'command.exe /C copy file1.txt file2.txt'

shell(+Command)
Equivalent to ‘shell(Command, 0)’.

shell
Start an interactive Unix shell. Default is /bin/sh, the environment variable SHELL overrides this default. Not available for Win32 platforms.

win_exec(+Command, +Show)
Win32 systems only. Spawns a Windows task without waiting for its completion. Show is one of the Win32 SW_* constants written in lowercase without the SW_*: hide maximize minimize restore show showdefault show maximized show minimized showmin noactive showna shownoactive shownormal. In addition, iconic is a synonym for minimize and normal for shownormal.

win_shell(+Operation, +File, +Show)
Win32 systems only. Opens the document File using the windows shell-rules for doing so. Operation is one of open, print or explore or another operation registered with the shell for the given document-type. On modern systems it is also possible to pass a URL as File, opening the URL in Windows default browser. This call interfaces to the Win32 API ShellExecute(). The Show argument determines the initial state of the opened window (if any). See win_exec/2 for defined values.

win_shell(+Operation, +File)
Same as win_shell(Operation, File, normal)

win_registry_get_value(+Key, +Name, -Value)
Win32 systems only. Fetches the value of a Win32 registry key. Key is an atom formed as a path-name describing the desired registry key. Name is the desired attribute name of the key. Value is unified with the value. If the value is of type DWORD, the value is returned as an integer. If the value is a string it is returned as a Prolog atom. Other types are currently not supported. The default ‘root’ is HKEY_CURRENT_USER. Other roots can be specified explicitly as HKEY_CLASSES_ROOT, HKEY_CURRENT_USER, HKEY_LOCAL_MACHINE or HKEY_USERS. The example below fetches the extension to use for Prolog files (see README.TXT on the Windows version):

?- win_registry_get_value(‘HKEY_LOCAL_MACHINE/Software/SWI/Prolog’, fileExtension, Ext).

Ext = pl
### 4.33. OPERATING SYSTEM INTERACTION

**win_folder(?Name, -Directory)**

Is true if `Name` is the Windows ‘CSIDL’ of `Directory`. If `Name` is unbound all known Windows special paths are generated. `Name` is the CSIDL after deleting the leading CSIDL and mapping the constant to lowercase. Check the Windows documentation for the function `SHGetSpecialFolderPath()` for a description of the defined constants. This example extracts the ‘My Documents’ folder:

```
?- win_folder(personal, MyDocuments).

MyDocuments = 'C:/Documents and Settings/jan/My Documents'
```

**getenv(+Name, -Value)**

Get environment variable. Fails silently if the variable does not exist. Please note that environment variable names are case-sensitive on Unix systems and case-insensitive on Windows.

**setenv(+Name, +Value)**

Set an environment variable. `Name` and `Value` must be instantiated to atoms or integers. The environment variable will be passed to `shell/[0-2]` and can be requested using `getenv/2`. They also influence `expand_file_name/2`. Environment variables are shared between threads. Depending on the underlying C library, `setenv/2` and `unsetenv/1` may not be thread-safe and may cause memory leaks. Only changing the environment once and before starting threads is safe in all versions of SWI-Prolog.

**unsetenv(+Name)**

Remove an environment variable from the environment. Some systems lack the underlying `unsetenv()` library function. On these systems `unsetenv/1` sets the variable to the empty string.

**setlocale(+Category, -Old, +New)**

Set/Query the `locale` setting which tells the C-library how to interpret text-files, write numbers, dates, etc. Category is one of all, collate, ctype, messages, monetary, numeric or time. For details, please consult the C-library locale documentation. See also section 2.17.1. Please note that the locale is shared between all threads and thread-safe usage of `setlocale/3` is in general not possible. Do locale operations before starting threads or thoroughly study threading aspects of locale support in your environment before use in multi-threaded environments. Locale settings are used by `format_time/3`, `collation_key/2` and `locale_sort/2`.

**unix(+Command)**

This predicate comes from the Quintus compatibility library and provides a partial implementation thereof. It provides access to some operating system features and unlike the name suggests, is not operating system specific. Defined `Command`’s are below.

**system(+Command)**

Equivalent to calling `shell/1`. Use for compatibility only.

**shell(+Command)**

Equivalent to calling `shell/1`. Use for compatibility only.
shell
Equivalent to calling shell/0. Use for compatibility only.

cd
Equivalent to calling working_directory/2 to the expansion (see expand_file_name/2) of ~. For compatibility only.

cd(+Directory)
Equivalent to calling working_directory/2. Use for compatibility only.

argv(-Argv)
Unify Argv with the list of command-line arguments provided to this Prolog run. Please note that Prolog system-arguments and application arguments are separated by --. Integer arguments are passed as Prolog integers, float arguments and Prolog floating point numbers and all other arguments as Prolog atoms. New applications should use the Prolog flag argv. See also prolog Prolog flag argv.

A stand-alone program could use the following skeleton to handle command-line arguments. See also section 2.10.2.

```prolog
main :-
    current_prolog_flag(argv, Argv),
    append(_PrologArgs, [--|AppArgs], Argv), !,
    main(AppArgs).
```

### 4.33.1 Dealing with time and date

Representing time in a computer system is surprisingly complicated. There are a large number of time representations in use and the correct choice depends on factors such as compactness, resolution and desired operations. Humans tend to think about time in hours, days, months, years or centuries. Physicists think about time in seconds. But, a month does not have a defined number of seconds. Even a day does not have a defined number of seconds as sometimes a leap-second is introduced to synchronise properly with our earth’s rotation. At the same time, resolution demands range from better then pico-seconds to millions of years. Finally, civilizations have a wide range of calendars. Although there exist libraries dealing with most if this complexity, our desire to keep Prolog clean and lean stops us from fully supporting these.

For human-oriented tasks, time can be broken into years, months, days, hours, minutes, seconds and a timezone. Physicists prefer to have time in an arithmetic type representing seconds or fraction thereof, so basic arithmetic deal with comparison and durations. An additional advantage of the physicists approach is that it requires much less space. For these reasons, SWI-Prolog uses an arithmetic type as its prime time representation.

Many C libraries deal with time using fixed-point arithmetic, dealing with a large but finite time interval at constant resolution. In our opinion using a floating point number is a more natural choice as we can use a natural unit and the interface does not need to be changed if a higher resolution is required in the future. Our unit of choice is the second as it is the scientific unit.\(^5^8\) We have placed our origin at 1970-1-1T0:0:0Z for compatibility with the POSIX notion of time as well as with older time support provided by SWI-Prolog.

\(^{58}\)Using Julian days is a choice made by the Eclipse team. As conversion to dates is needed for a human readable notation of time and Julian days cannot deal naturally with leap seconds, we decided for second as our unit.
Where older versions of SWI-Prolog relied on the POSIX conversion functions, the current implementation uses libtai to realise conversion between time-stamps and calendar dates for a period of 10 million years.

**Time and date data-structures**

We use the following time representations

**TimeStamp**
A TimeStamp is a floating point number expression the time in seconds since the Epoch at 1970-1-1.

**date(Year, Month, Day, Hour, Minute, Second, Offset, Timezone, Daylight Saving)**
We call this term a *date-time* structure. The first 5 fields are integers expressing the year, month (1..12), day (1..31), hour (0..23), Minute (0..59). The *S* field holds the seconds as a floating point number between 0.0 and 60.0. *Off* is an integer representing the offset relative to UTC in seconds where positive values are west of Greenwich. If converted from local time (see *stamp_date_time/3*, *TZ* holds the name of the local timezone. If the timezone is not known *TZ* is the atom ‘-’. *DST* is true if daylight saving time applies to the current time, false if daylight saving time is relevant but not effective and ‘-‘ if unknown or the timezone has no daylight saving time.

**date(Year, Month, Day)**
Date using the same values as described above. Extracted using *date_time_value/3*.

**time(Hour, Minute, Second)**
Time using the same values as described above. Extracted using *date_time_value/3*.

**Time and date predicates**

**get_time(TimeStamp)**
Return the current time as a *TimeStamp*. The granularity is system dependent. See section 4.33.1.

**stamp_date_time(TimeStamp, DateTime, Timezone)**
Convert a *TimeStamp* to a *DateTime* in the given time zone. See section 4.33.1 for details on the data-types. *Timezone* describes the timezone for the conversion. It is one of local to extract the local time, ‘UTC’ to extract at UTC time or an integer describing the seconds west of Greenwich.

**date_time_stamp(DateTime, TimeStamp)**
Compute the timestamp from a date/9 term. Values for month, day, hour, minute or second need not be normalized. This flexibility allows for easy computation of the time at any given number of these units from a given timestamp. Normalization can be achieved following this call with *stamp_date_time/3*. This example computes the date 200 days after 2006-7-14:

```prolog
?- date_time_stamp(date(2006,7,214,0,0,0,0,-,-), Stamp),
   stamp_date_time(Stamp, D, 0),
   date_time_value(date, D, Date).
Date = date(2007, 1, 30)
```
**date_time_value(ForResult, +DateTime, ?Value)**

Extract values from a date/9 term. Provided keys are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>key</th>
<th>value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>year</td>
<td>Calendar year as an integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>month</td>
<td>Calendar month as an integer 1..12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>day</td>
<td>Calendar day as an integer 1..31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hour</td>
<td>Clock hour as an integer 0..23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minute</td>
<td>Clock minute as an integer 0..59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>second</td>
<td>Clock second as a float 0.0..60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>utc_offset</td>
<td>Offset to UTC in seconds (positive is west)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time_zone</td>
<td>Name of timezone; fails if unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>daylight_saving</td>
<td>Bool (true) if dst is effective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>date</td>
<td>Term date(Y,M,D)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>Term time(H,M,S)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**format_time(+Out, +Format, +StampOrDateTime)**

Modelled after POSIX strftime(), using GNU extensions. *Out* is a destination as specified with *with_output_to/2*. *Format* is an atom or string with the following conversions. Conversions start with a tilde (%) character.\(^{59}\) *StampOrDateTime* is either a (numeric time-stamp, a term date(Y,M,D,H,M,S,O,TZ,DST) or a term date(Y,M,D).

- a The abbreviated weekday name according to the current locale. Use `format_time/4` for POSIX locale.
- A The full weekday name according to the current locale. Use `format_time/4` for POSIX locale.
- b The abbreviated month name according to the current locale. Use `format_time/4` for POSIX locale.
- B The full month name according to the current locale. Use `format_time/4` for POSIX locale.
- c The preferred date and time representation for the current locale.
- C The century number (year/100) as a 2-digit integer.
- d The day of the month as a decimal number (range 01 to 31).
- D Equivalent to %m/%d/%y. (Yech for Americans only. Americans should note that in other countries %d/%m/%y is rather common. This means that in international context this format is ambiguous and should not be used.)
- e Like %d, the day of the month as a decimal number, but a leading zero is replaced by a space.
- E Modifier. Not implemented.
- f Number of microseconds. The f can be prefixed by an integer to print the desired number of digits. E.g., %3f prints milliseconds. This format is not covered by any standard, but available with different format-specifiers in various incarnations of the strftime() function.

\(^{59}\)Descriptions taken from Linux Programmer’s Manual
4.33. OPERATING SYSTEM INTERACTION

F Equivalent to %Y-%m-%d (the ISO 8601 date format).

G Like %G, but without century, i.e., with a 2-digit year (00-99).

G The ISO 8601 year with century as a decimal number. The 4-digit year corresponding to
the ISO week number (see %V). This has the same format and value as %y, except that if
the ISO week number belongs to the previous or next year, that year is used instead.

V The ISO 8601:1988 week number of the current year as a decimal number, range 01 to
53, where week 1 is the first week that has at least 4 days in the current year, and with
Monday as the first day of the week. See also %U and %W.

h Equivalent to %b.

H The hour as a decimal number using a 24-hour clock (range 00 to 23).

I The hour as a decimal number using a 12-hour clock (range 01 to 12).

j The day of the year as a decimal number (range 001 to 366).

k The hour (24-hour clock) as a decimal number (range 0 to 23); single digits are preceded
by a blank. (See also %H.)

l The hour (12-hour clock) as a decimal number (range 1 to 12); single digits are preceded
by a blank. (See also %I.)

m The month as a decimal number (range 01 to 12).

M The minute as a decimal number (range 00 to 59).

n A newline character.

O Modifier to select locale-specific output. Not implemented.

p Either ‘AM’ or ‘PM’ according to the given time value, or the corresponding strings for
the current locale. Noon is treated as ‘pm’ and midnight as ‘am’.

P Like %p but in lowercase: ‘am’ or ‘pm’ or a corresponding string for the current locale.

r The time in a.m. or p.m. notation. In the POSIX locale this is equivalent to ‘%I:%M:%S
%p’.

R The time in 24-hour notation (%H:%M). For a version including the seconds, see %T
below.

s The number of seconds since the Epoch, i.e., since 1970-01-01 00:00:00 UTC.

S The second as a decimal number (range 00 to 60). (The range is up to 60 to allow for
occasional leap seconds.)

t A tab character.

T The time in 24-hour notation (%H:%M:%S).

u The day of the week as a decimal, range 1 to 7, Monday being 1. See also %w.

U The week number of the current year as a decimal number, range 00 to 53, starting with
the first Sunday as the first day of week 01. See also %V and %W.

w The day of the week as a decimal, range 0 to 6, Sunday being 0. See also %u.

W The week number of the current year as a decimal number, range 00 to 53, starting with
the first Monday as the first day of week 01.

x The preferred date representation for the current locale without the time.
The preferred time representation for the current locale without the date.

\( y \) The year as a decimal number without a century (range 00 to 99).

\( Y \) The year as a decimal number including the century.

\( z \) The time-zone as hour offset from GMT using the format HH:mm. Required to emit RFC822-conforming dates (using \( '%a, %d %b %Y %T %z' \)). Our implementation supports \( %:z \), which modifies the output to HH:mm as required by XML-Schema. Note that both notations are valid in ISO8601. The sequence \( %:z \) is compatible to the GNU date(1) command.

\( Z \) The time zone or name or abbreviation.

\( + \) The date and time in date(1) format.

\( % \) A literal ‘%’ character.

The table below, gives some format strings for popular time representations. RFC1123 is used by HTTP. The full implementation of http_timestamp/2 as available from http/http_header is here.

```
http_timestamp(Time, Atom) :-
    stamp_date_time(Time, Date, 'UTC'),
    format_time(atom(Atom),
               '%a, %d %b %Y %T GMT',
               Date, posix).
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standard</th>
<th>Format string</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>xsd</td>
<td>'%FT%T:%z'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISO8601</td>
<td>'%FT%T%z'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RFC822</td>
<td>'%a, %d %b %Y %T %z'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RFC1123</td>
<td>'%a, %d %b %Y %T GMT'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**format_time(+Out, +Format, +StampOrDateTime, +Locale)**

Format time given a specified Locale. This predicate is a work-around for lacking proper portable and thread-safe time and locale handling in current C libraries. In its current implementation the only value allowed for Locale is posix, which currently only modifies the behaviour or the \( a \), \( A \), \( b \) and \( B \) format specifiers. The predicate is used to be able to emit POSIX locale week and month names for emitting standardised time-stamps such as RFC1123.

**parse_time(+Text, -Stamp)**

Same as parse_time(Text, Format, Stamp). See parse_time/3.

**parse_time(+Text, ?Format, -Stamp)**

Parse a textual time representation, producing a time-stamp. Supported formats for Text are in the table below. If the format is known, it may be given to reduce parse-time and avoid ambiguities. Otherwise, Format is unified with the format encountered.
day_of_the_week(+Date,-DayOfTheWeek)

Computes the day of the week for a given date. \( Date = \text{date}(Year,\ Month,\ Day) \). Days of the week are numbered from one to seven: monday = 1, tuesday = 2, ..., sunday = 7.

### 4.33.2 Controlling the \texttt{swipl-win.exe} console window

The Windows executable \texttt{swipl-win.exe} console has a number of predicates to control the appearance of the console. Being totally non-portable, we do not advice using it for your own application, but use XPCE or another portable GUI platform instead. We give the predicates for reference here.

\texttt{window_title(-Old, +New)}

Unify \( \text{Old} \) with the title displayed in the console and change the title to \( \text{New} \).

\texttt{win_window_pos(+ListOfOptions)}

Interface to the MS-Windows SetWindowPos() function, controlling size, position and stacking order of the window. \( \text{ListOfOptions} \) is a list that may hold any number of the terms below.

\texttt{size(W, H)}

Change the size of the window. \( W \) and \( H \) are expressed in character-units.

\texttt{position(X, Y)}

Change the top-left corner of the window. The values are expressed in pixel units.

\texttt{zorder(ZOrder)}

Change the location in the window stacking order. Values are bottom, top, topmost and notopmost. Topmost windows are displayed above all other windows.

\texttt{show(Bool)}

If true, show the window, if false hide the window.

\texttt{activate}

If present, activate the window.

\texttt{win_has_menu}

True if \texttt{win_insert_menu/2} and \texttt{win_insert_menu_item/4} are present.

\texttt{win_insert_menu(+Label, +Before)}

Insert a new entry (pulldown) in the menu. If the menu already contains this entry, nothing is
done. The Label is the label and using the Windows conventions, a letter prefixed with & is underlined and defines the associated accelerator key. Before is the label before which this one must be inserted. Using – adds the new entry at the end (right). For example, the call below adds a Application entry just before the Help menu.

\[
\text{win_insert_menu('&Application', '&Help')}
\]

\[
\text{win_insert_menu_item(+Pulldown, +Label, +Before, :Goal)}
\]

Add an item to the named Pulldown menu. Label and Before are handled as in \text{win_insert_menu/2}, but the label – inserts a separator. Goal is called if the user selects the item.

### 4.34 File System Interaction

\text{access_file(+File, +Mode)}

True if File exists and can be accessed by this prolog process under mode Mode. Mode is one of the atoms read, write, append, exist, none or execute. File may also be the name of a directory. Fails silently otherwise. \text{access_file(File, none)} simply succeeds without testing anything.

If ‘Mode’ is write or append, this predicate also succeeds if the file does not exist and the user has write-access to the directory of the specified location.

\text{exists_file(+File)}

True if File exists and is a regular file. This does not imply the user has read and/or write permission for the file.

\text{file_directory_name(+File, -Directory)}

Extracts the directory-part of File. The returned Directory name does not end in / . There are two special cases. The directory-name of / is / itself and the directory-name if File does not contain any / characters is ..

\text{file_base_name(+File, -BaseName)}

Extracts the filename part from a path specification. If File does not contain any directory separators, File is returned.

\text{same_file(+File1, +File2)}

True if both filenames refer to the same physical file. That is, if File1 and File2 are the same string or both names exist and point to the same file (due to hard or symbolic links and/or relative vs. absolute paths).

\text{exists_directory(+Directory)}

True if Directory exists and is a directory. This does not imply the user has read, search and or write permission for the directory.

\text{delete_file(+File)}

Remove File from the file system.
**renamed_file(+File1, +File2)**

Rename `File1` into `File2`. The semantics is compatible to the POSIX semantics of the `rename()` system call as far as the operating system allows. If `File2` exists, the operation succeeds (except for possible permission errors) and is *atomic* (meaning there is no window where `File2` does not exist).

**size_file(+File, -Size)**

Unify `Size` with the size of `File` in bytes.

**time_file(+File, -Time)**

Unify the last modification time of `File` with `Time`. `Time` is a floating point number expressing the seconds elapsed since Jan 1, 1970. See also `convert_time/[2,8]` and `get_time/1`.

**absolute_file_name(+File, -Absolute)**

Expand a local file-name into an absolute path. The absolute path is canonised: references to . and .. are deleted. This predicate ensures that expanding a file-name it returns the same absolute path regardless of how the file is addressed. SWI-Prolog uses absolute file names to register source files independent of the current working directory. See also `absolute_file_name/3`. See also `absolute_file_name/3` and `expand_file_name/2`.

**absolute_file_name(+Spec, +Options, -Absolute)**

Converts the given file specification into an absolute path. `Option` is a list of options to guide the conversion:

1. **extensions(ListOfExtensions)**
   List of file-extensions to try. Default is `'`. For each extension, `absolute_file_name/3` will first add the extension and then verify the conditions imposed by the other options. If the condition fails, the next extension of the list is tried. Extensions may be specified both as `.ext` or plain `ext`.

2. **relative_to(+FileOrDir)**
   Resolve the path relative to the given directory or directory the holding the given file. Without this option, paths are resolved relative to the working directory (see `working_directory/2`) or, if `Spec` is atomic and `absolute_file_name/[2,3]` is executed in a directive, it uses the current source-file as reference.

3. **access(Mode)**
   Imposes the condition `access_file(File, Mode)`. `Mode` is on of `read`, `write`, `append`, `exist` or `none`. See also `access_file/2`.

4. **file_type(Type)**
   Defines extensions. Current mapping: `txt` implies `['']`, `prolog` implies `['.pl', '']`, `executable` implies `['.so', '']`, `qlf` implies `['.qlf', '']`, `directory` implies `['']`. The file-type source is an alias for `prolog` for compatibility with SICStus Prolog. See also `prolog_file_type/2`. This predicate only returns non-directories, unless the option `file_type(directory)` is specified.

5. **file_errors(fail/error)**
   If `error` (default), throw and `existence_error` exception if the file cannot be found. If `fail`, stay silent.\(^\text{61}\)

\(^\text{61}\)Silent operation was the default up to version 3.2.6.
solutions(first/all)

If first (default), the predicates leaves no choice-point. Otherwise a choice-point will be left and backtracking may yield more solutions.

expand(true/false)

If true (default is false) and Spec is atomic, call expand_file_name/2 followed by member/2 on Spec before proceeding. This is a SWI-Prolog extension.

The Prolog flag verbose_file_search can be set to true to help debugging Prolog’s search for files.

Compatibility considerations with common argument-order in ISO as well as SICStus absolute_file_name/3 forced us to be flexible here. If the last argument is a list and the 2nd not, the arguments are swapped, making the call absolute_file_name(+Spec, -Path, +Options) valid as well.

is_absolute_file_name(+File)

True if File specifies and absolute path-name. On Unix systems, this implies the path starts with a ‘/’. For Microsoft based systems this implies the path starts with ⟨letter⟩:. This predicate is intended to provide platform-independent checking for absolute paths. See also absolute_file_name/2 and prolog_to_os_filename/2.

file_name_extension(?Base, ?Extension, ?Name)

This predicate is used to add, remove or test filename extensions. The main reason for its introduction is to deal with different filename properties in a portable manner. If the file system is case-insensitive, testing for an extension will be done case-insensitive too. Extension may be specified with or without a leading dot (.). If an Extension is generated, it will not have a leading dot.

directory_files(+Directory, -Entries)

Unifies Entries with a list of entries in Directory. Each member of Entries is an atom denoting an entry relative to Directory. Entries contains all entries, including hidden files and, if supplied by the OS, the special entries . and ... See also expand_file_name/2.62

expand_file_name(+WildCard, -List)

Unify List with a sorted list of files or directories matching WildCard. The normal Unix wildcard constructs ‘?’, ‘*’, ‘[...]’ and ‘{...}’ are recognised. The interpretation of ‘{...}’ is interpreted slightly different from the C shell (csh(1)). The comma separated argument can be arbitrary patterns, including ‘{...}’ patterns. The empty pattern is legal as well: ‘\{.pl, \}’ matches either ‘.pl’ or the empty string.

If the pattern contains wildcard characters, only existing files and directories are returned. Expanding a ‘pattern’ without wildcard characters returns the argument, regardless on whether or not it exists.

Before expanding wildcards, the construct $var is expanded to the value of the environment variable var and a possible leading ~ character is expanded to the user’s home directory.63

---

62 This predicate should be considered a misnomer because it returns entries rather than files. We stick to this name for compatibility with e.g., SICStus, Ciao and YAP.

63 On Windows, the home directory is determined as follows: if the environment variable HOME exists, this is used. If the variables HOMEDRIVE and HOMEPATH exist (Windows-NT), these are used. At initialisation, the system will set the
**prolog_to_os_filename(?PrologPath, ?OsPath)**

Converts between the internal Prolog pathname conventions and the operating-system pathname conventions. The internal conventions are Unix and this predicate is equivalent to \="/2 (unify) on Unix systems. On DOS systems it will change the directory-separator, limit the filename length map dots, except for the last one, onto underscores.

**read_link(+File, -Link, -Target)**

If File points to a symbolic link, unify Link with the value of the link and Target to the file the link is pointing to. Target points to a file, directory or non-existing entry in the file system, but never to a link. Fails if File is not a link. Fails always on systems that do not support symbolic links.

**tmp_file(+Base, -TmpName)**

Create a name for a temporary file. Base is an identifier for the category of file. The TmpName is guaranteed to be unique. If the system halts, it will automatically remove all created temporary files. Base is used as part of the final filename. Portable applications should limit themselves to alphanumerical characters.

Because it is possible to guess the generated filename, attackers may create the filesystem entry as a link and possibly create a security issue. New code should use tmp_file_stream/3.

**tmp_file_stream(+Encoding, -FileName, -Stream)**

Create a temporary file name FileName and open it for writing in the given Encoding. Encoding is a text-encoding name or binary. Stream is the output stream. If the OS supports it, the created file is only accessible to the current user. If the OS supports it, the file is created using the open()-flag O_EXCL, which guarantees that the file did not exist before this call. This predicate is a safe replacement of tmp_file/2. Note that in those cases where the temporary file is needed to store output from an external command, the file must be closed first. E.g., the following downloads a file from a URL to a temporary file and opens the file for reading (On Unix systems you can delete the file after opening it for reading for cleanup):

```prolog
open_url(URL, In) :-
    tmp_file_stream(text, File, Stream),
    close(Stream),
    process_create(curl, ['-o', File, URL], []),
    open(File, read, In),
    delete_file(File). % Unix-only
```

Temporary files created using this call are removed if the Prolog process terminates. Calling delete_file/1 using FileName removes the file and removes the entry from the administration of files-to-be-deleted.

**make_directory(+Directory)**

Create a new directory (folder) on the filesystem. Raises an exception on failure. On Unix systems, the directory is created with default permissions (defined by the process umask setting).

environment variable HOME to point to the SWI-Prolog home directory if neither HOME nor HOMEPATH and HOMEDRIVE are defined
**delete_directory(+Directory)**

Delete directory (folder) from the filesystem. Raises an exception on failure. Please note that in general it will not be possible to delete a non-empty directory.

**working_directory(-Old, +New)**

Unify `Old` with an absolute path to the current working directory and change working directory to `New`. Use the pattern `working_directory(CWD, CWD)` to get the current directory. See also `absolute_file_name/2` and `chdir/1`. Note that the working directory is shared between all threads.

**chdir(+Path)**

Compatibility predicate. New code should use `working_directory/2`.

### 4.35 User Top-level Manipulation

**break**

Recursively start a new Prolog top level. This Prolog top level has its own stacks, but shares the heap with all break environments and the top level. Debugging is switched off on entering a break and restored on leaving one. The break environment is terminated by typing the system’s end-of-file character (control-D). If the `-t toplevel` command line option is given this goal is started instead of entering the default interactive top level (`prolog/0`).

**abort**

Abort the Prolog execution and restart the top level. If the `-t toplevel` command line options is given this goal is started instead of entering the default interactive top level.

Aborting is implemented by throwing the reserved exception `$aborted`. This exception can be caught using `catch/3`, but the recovery goal is wrapped with a predicate that prunes the choice-points of the recovery goal (i.e., as `once/1`) and re-throws the exception. This is illustrated in the example below, where we press control-C and ‘a’.

```prolog
?- catch((repeat, fail), E, true).
^CAction (h for help) ? abort
% Execution Aborted
```

**halt**

[ISO]

Terminate Prolog execution. Open files are closed and if the command line option `-tty` is not active the terminal status (see Unix stty(1)) is restored. Hooks may be registered both in Prolog and in foreign code. Prolog hooks are registered using `at_halt/1`. `halt/0` is equivalent to `halt(0)`.

**halt(+Status)**

[ISO]

Terminate Prolog execution with given status. Status is an integer. See also `halt/0`.

---

64BUG: Some of the file-I/O predicates use local filenames. Changing directory while file-bound streams are open causes wrong results on `telling/1, seeing/1` and `current_stream/3`.

65BUG: In the multi-threaded version, `halt/0` does not work when not called from the main thread. In the current system a permission_error exception is raised. Future versions may enable `halt/0` from any thread.
4.36 Creating a Protocol of the User Interaction

SWI-Prolog offers the possibility to log the interaction with the user on a file. All Prolog interaction, including warnings and tracer output, are written on the protocol file.

- **protocol(+File)**
  - Start protocolling on file File. If there is already a protocol file open then close it first. If File exists it is truncated.

- **protocola(+File)**
  - Equivalent to protocol/1, but does not truncate the File if it exists.

- **noprcriptocol**
  - Stop making a protocol of the user interaction. Pending output is flushed on the file.

- **protocolling(-File)**
  - True if a protocol was started with protocol/1 or protocola/1 and unifies File with the current protocol output file.

4.37 Debugging and Tracing Programs

This section is a reference to the debugger interaction predicates. A more use-oriented overview of the debugger is in section 2.9.

If you have installed XPCE, you can use the graphical front-end of the tracer. This front-end is installed using the predicate guitracer/0.

---

66 A similar facility was added to Edinburgh C-Prolog by Wouter Jansweijer.
trace
Start the tracer. trace/0 itself cannot be seen in the tracer. Note that the Prolog top-level treats trace/0 special; it means ‘trace the next goal’.

tracing
True if the tracer is currently switched on. tracing/0 itself can not be seen in the tracer.

notrace
Stop the tracer. notrace/0 itself cannot be seen in the tracer.

guitracer
Installs hooks (see prolog_trace_interception/4) into the system that redirects tracing information to a GUI front-end providing structured access to variable-bindings, graphical overview of the stack and highlighting of relevant source-code.

noguitracer
Reverts back to the textual tracer.

trace(+Pred)
Equivalent to trace(Pred, +all).

trace(+Pred, +Ports)
Put a trace-point on all predicates satisfying the predicate specification Pred. Ports is a list of port names (call, redo, exit, fail). The atom all refers to all ports. If the port is preceded by a − sign the trace-point is cleared for the port. If it is preceded by a + the trace-point is set.

The predicate trace/2 activates debug mode (see debug/0). Each time a port (of the 4-port model) is passed that has a trace-point set the goal is printed as with trace/0. Unlike trace/0 however, the execution is continued without asking for further information. Examples:

?- trace(hello). Trace all ports of hello with any arity in any module.
?- trace(foo/2, +fail). Trace failures of foo/2 in any module.
?- trace(bar/1, -all). Stop tracing bar/1.

The predicate debugging/0 shows all currently defined trace-points.

notrace(:Goal)
Call Goal, but suspend the debugger while Goal is executing. The current implementation cuts the choice-points of Goal after successful completion. See once/1. Later implementations may have the same semantics as call/1.

debug
Start debugger. In debug mode, Prolog stops at spy- and trace-points, disables last-call optimisation and aggressive destruction of choice points to make debugging information accessible. Implemented by the Prolog flag debug.

Note that the min_free parameters of all stacks is enlarged to 8 K-cells if debugging is switched off to avoid excessive GC. GC complicates tracing because it
renames the \texttt{G(NNN)} variables and replaces unreachable variables with the atom \texttt{\textbackslash{\texttt{bnfmeta\{garbage\_collected}}}. Calling \texttt{nodebug/0} does not reset the initial free-margin because several parts of the toplevel and debugger disable debugging of system code-regions. See also \texttt{set\_prolog\_stack/2}.

\textbf{nodebug}

Stop debugger. Implemented by the Prolog flag \texttt{debug}. See also \texttt{debug/0}.

\textbf{debugging}

Print debug status and spy points on current output stream. See also the Prolog flag \texttt{debug}.

\textbf{spy(+Pred)}

Put a spy point on all predicates meeting the predicate specification \texttt{Pred}. See section 4.4.

\textbf{nospy(+Pred)}

Remove spy point from all predicates meeting the predicate specification \texttt{Pred}.

\textbf{nospyall}

Remove all spy points from the entire program.

\textbf{leash(?Ports)}

Set/query leashing (ports which allow for user interaction). \texttt{Ports} is one of \texttt{+Name}, \texttt{-Name}, \texttt{?Name} or a list of these. \texttt{+Name} enables leashing on that port, \texttt{-Name} disables it and \texttt{?Name} succeeds or fails according to the current setting. Recognised ports are: \texttt{call}, \texttt{redo}, \texttt{exit}, \texttt{fail} and \texttt{unify}. The special shorthand \texttt{all} refers to all ports, \texttt{full} refers to all ports except for the unify port (default). \texttt{half} refers to the \texttt{call}, \texttt{redo} and \texttt{fail} port.

\textbf{visible(+Ports)}

Set the ports shown by the debugger. See \texttt{leash/1} for a description of the port specification. Default is \texttt{full}.

\textbf{unknown(-Old, +New)}

Edinburgh-prolog compatibility predicate, interfacing to the ISO prolog flag \texttt{unknown}. Values are \texttt{trace} (meaning \texttt{error}) and \texttt{fail}. If the \texttt{unknown} flag is set to \texttt{warning}, \texttt{unknown/2} reports the value as \texttt{trace}.

\textbf{style\_check(+Spec)}

Set style checking options. \texttt{Spec} is either \texttt{+\langle option\rangle}, \texttt{-\langle option\rangle}, \texttt{?\langle option\rangle}\textsuperscript{67} or a list of such options. \texttt{+\langle option\rangle} sets a style checking option, \texttt{-\langle option\rangle} clears it and \texttt{?\langle option\rangle} succeeds or fails according to the current setting. \texttt{consult/1} and derivatives resets the style checking options to their value before loading the file. If—for example—a file containing long atoms should be loaded the user can start the file with:

\begin{verbatim}
:- style_check(-atom).
\end{verbatim}

Currently available options are:

\textsuperscript{67}In older versions ‘?’ was a prefix operator. Inversions after 5.5.13, explicit brackets are needed.
### 4.38 Obtaining Runtime Statistics

**statistics(+Key, -Value)**

Unify system statistics determined by *Key* with *Value*. The possible keys are given in the table 4.2. The last part of the table contains keys for compatibility with other Prolog implementations (Quintus) for improved portability. Note that the ISO standard does not define methods to collect system statistics. Space unit is bytes\(^{68}\). Times are in seconds, represented as a floating point number. The Quintus compatibility keys express times in milliseconds.

**statistics**

Display a table of system statistics on the current output stream.

**time(:Goal)**

Execute *Goal* just like once/1 (i.e., leaving no choice points), but print used time, number of logical inferences and the average number of *lips* (logical inferences per second). Note that SWI-Prolog counts the actual executed number of inferences rather than the number of passes through the call- and redo ports of the theoretical 4-port model.

### 4.39 Execution profiling

This section describes the hierarchical execution profiler introduced in SWI-Prolog 5.1.10. This profiler is based on ideas from *gprof* described in [Graham et al., 1982]. The profiler consists of two parts: the information-gathering is built into the kernel,\(^{69}\) and a presentation component which is defined in the *statistics* library. The latter can be hooked, which is used by the XPCE module *swi/pce_profile* to provide an interactive graphical representation of results.

---

\(^{68}\)This may change to ‘cells’ to enhance compatibility between the 32- and 64-bit versions.

\(^{69}\)There are two implementations; one based on setitimer() using the SIGPROF signal and one using Windows Multi Media (MM) timers. On other systems the profiler is not provided.
4.39. EXECUTION PROFILING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>age</td>
<td>Number of atom garbage-collections performed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>age_gain</td>
<td>Number of atoms removed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>age_time</td>
<td>Time spent in atom garbage-collections</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cputime</td>
<td>(User) CPU time since Prolog was started in seconds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inferences</td>
<td>Total number of passes via the call and redo ports since Prolog was started.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heap</td>
<td>Estimated total size of the heap (see section 2.18.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heap_used</td>
<td>Bytes heap in use by Prolog.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heap_limit</td>
<td>Maximum size of the heap (see section 2.18.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stack</td>
<td>System (C-) stack limit. 0 if not known.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>local</td>
<td>Total memory in use for stacks in all threads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>local_used</td>
<td>Allocated size of the local stack in bytes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>local_limit</td>
<td>Number of bytes in use on the local stack.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>global</td>
<td>Size to which the local stack is allowed to grow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>global_used</td>
<td>Allocated size of the global stack in bytes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>global_limit</td>
<td>Number of bytes in use on the global stack.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trail</td>
<td>Size to which the global stack is allowed to grow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trail_used</td>
<td>Allocated size of the trail stack in bytes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trail_limit</td>
<td>Number of bytes in use on the trail stack.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atoms</td>
<td>Total number of defined atoms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>functors</td>
<td>Total number of defined name/arity pairs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>predicates</td>
<td>Total number of predicate definitions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modules</td>
<td>Total number of module definitions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>codes</td>
<td>Total amount of byte codes in all clauses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>threads</td>
<td>MT-version: number of active threads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>threads_created</td>
<td>MT-version: number of created threads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_cputime</td>
<td>MT-version: seconds CPU time used by finished threads. Supported on Windows-NT and later, Linux and possibly a few more. Verify it gives plausible results before using.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compatibility keys (times in milliseconds)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>runtime</td>
<td>[ CPU time, CPU time since last ] (milliseconds, excluding time spent in garbage collection)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>system_time</td>
<td>[ System CPU time, System CPU time since last ] (milliseconds)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>real_time</td>
<td>[ Wall time, Wall time since last ] (integer seconds. See <code>get_time/1</code>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wall_time</td>
<td>[ Wall time since start, Wall time since last] (milliseconds, SICStus compatibility)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>memory</td>
<td>[ Total unshared data, free memory ] (Uses getusage() if available, otherwise incomplete own statistics.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stacks</td>
<td>[ global use, local use ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>program</td>
<td>[ heap, 0 ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>global_stack</td>
<td>[ global use, global free ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>local_stack</td>
<td>[ local use, local free ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trail</td>
<td>[ trail use, 0 ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>garbage_collection</td>
<td>[ number of GC, bytes gained, time spent, bytes left ] The last column is a SWI-Prolog extension. It contains the sum of the memory left after each collection, which can be divided by the count to find the average working set size after GC. Use [Count, Gained, Time</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2: Keys for `statistics/2`
4.39.1 Profiling predicates

Currently, the interface is kept compatible with the old profiler. As experience grows, it is likely that the old interface is replaced with one that better reflects the new capabilities. Feel free to examine the internal interfaces and report useful application thereof.

```
profile(:Goal)
```

Execute `Goal` just like `time/1`, collecting profiling statistics and call `show_profile(plain, 25)`. With XPCE installed this opens a graphical interface to the collected profiling data.

```
profile(:Goal, +Style, +Number)
```

Execute `Goal` just like `time/1`. Collect profiling statistics and show the top `Number` procedures on the current output stream (see `show_profile/1`) using `Style`. The results are kept in the database until `reset_profiler/0` or `profile/3` is called and can be displayed again with `show_profile/1`. The `profile/1` predicate is a backward compatibility interface to `profile/1`. The other predicates in this section are low-level predicates for special cases.

```
show_profile(+Style, +Number)
```

Show the collected results of the profiler. It shows the top `Number` predicates according the percentage CPU-time used. If `Style` is `plain` the time spent in the predicates itself is displayed. If `Style` is `cumulative` the time spent in its siblings (callees) is added to the predicate.

This predicate first calls `prolog:show_profile_hook/2`. If XPCE is loaded this hook is used to activate a GUI interface to visualise the profile results.

```
show_profile(+Number)
```

Compatibility. Same as `show_profile(plain, Number)`.

```
profiler(-Old, +New)
```

Query or change the status of the profiler. The status is a boolean (`true` or `false`) stating whether or not the profiler is collecting data. It can be used to enable or disable profiling certain parts of the program.

```
reset_profiler
```

Switches the profiler to `false` and clears all collected statistics.

```
noprofile(+Name/+Arity, . . .)
```

Declares the predicate `Name/Arity` to be invisible to the profiler. The time spend in the named predicate is added to the caller and the callees are linked directly to the caller. This is particularly useful for simple meta-predicates such as `call/1`, `ignore/1`, `catch/3`, etc.

4.39.2 Visualizing profiling data

Browsing the annotated call-tree as described in section 4.39.3 itself is not very attractive. Therefore, the results are combined per predicate, collecting all `callers` and and `callees` as well as the propagation of time and activations in both directions. Figure 4.1 illustrates this. The central yellowish line is the ‘current’ predicate with counts for time spent in the predicate (‘Self’), time spent in its children (‘Siblings’), activations through the call and redo ports. Above that are the `callers`. Here, the two time fields indicate how much time is spent serving each of the callers. The columns sum to the time in the yellowish line. The caller `<recursive>` are the number of recursive calls. Below the yellowish lines
are the callees, with the time spent in the callee itself for serving the current predicate and the time spent in the callees of the callee (‘Siblings’), so the whole time-block adds up to the ‘Siblings’ field of the current predicate. The ‘Access’ fields show how many times the current predicate accesses each of the callees.

The predicates have a menu that allows changing the view of the detail window to the given caller or callee, showing the documentation (if it is a built-in) and/or jumping to the source.

The statistics shown in the report-field of figure 4.1 show the following information:

- **samples**
  Number of times the call-tree was sampled for collecting time statistics. On most hardware the resolution of SIGPROF is 1/100 second. This number must be sufficiently large to get reliable timing figures. The **Time** menu allows viewing time as samples, relative time or absolute time.

- **sec**
  Total user CPU time with the profiler active.

- **predicates**
  Total count of predicates that have been called at least one time during the profile.

- **nodes**
  Number of nodes in the call-tree.

- **distortion**
  How much of the time is spend building the call-tree as a percentage of the total execution time. Timing samples while the profiler is building the call-tree are not added to the call-tree.

### 4.39.3 Information gathering

While the program executes under the profiler, the system builds a dynamic call-tree. It does this using three hooks from the kernel: one that starts a new goal (profCall), one that tells the system which goal is resumed after an exit (profExit) and one that tells the system which goal is resumed after a fail (i.e. which goal is used to retry (profRedo)). The profCall() function finds or creates the subnode for the argument predicate below the current node, increments the call-count of this link and returns the subnode which is recorded in the Prolog stack-frame. Choice-points are marked with the current profiling node. profExit() and profRedo() pass the profiling node where execution resumes.
Just using the above algorithm would create a much too big tree due to recursion. For this reason the system performs detection of recursion. In the simplest case, recursive procedures increment the ‘recursive’ count on the current node. Mutual recursion however is not easily detected. For example, `call/1` can call a predicate that uses `call/1` itself. This can be viewed as a recursive invocation, but this is generally not desirable. Recursion is currently assumed if the same predicate with the same parent appears higher in the call-graph. Early experience with some arbitrary non-trivial programs are promising.

The last part of the profiler collects statistics on the CPU-time used in each node. On systems providing `setitimer()` with `SIGPROF`, it ‘ticks’ the current node of the call-tree each time the timer fires. On Windows a MM-timer in a separate thread checks 100 times per second how much time is spent in the profiled thread and adds this to the current node. See section 4.39.3 for details.

### Profiling in the Windows Implementation

Profiling in the Windows version is similar but as profiling is a statistical process it is good to be aware of the implementation\(^{70}\) for proper interpretation of the results.

Windows does not provide timers that fire asynchronously, frequent and proportional to the CPU time used by the process. Windows does provide multi-media timers that can run at high frequency. Such timers however run in a separate thread of execution and they are fired on the wall-clock rather than the amount of CPU time used. The profiler installs such a timer running, for saving CPU time, rather inaccurately at about 100 Hz. Each time it is fired, it determines the milliseconds CPU time used by Prolog since the last time it was fired. If this value is non-zero, active predicates are incremented with this value.

### 4.40 Memory Management

**garbage_collect**

Invoke the global- and trail stack garbage collector. Normally the garbage collector is invoked automatically if necessary. Explicit invocation might be useful to reduce the need for garbage collections in time critical segments of the code. After the garbage collection `trimstacks/0` is invoked to release the collected memory resources.

**garbage_collect_atoms**

Reclaim unused atoms. Normally invoked after `agc_margin` (a Prolog flag) atoms have been created. On multi-threaded versions the actual collection is delayed until there are no threads performing normal garbage collection. In this case `garbage_collect_atoms/0` returns immediately. Note this implies there is no guarantee it will ever happen as there may always be threads performing garbage collection.

**trim_stacks**

Release stack memory resources that are not in use at this moment, returning them to the operating system. It can be used to release memory resources in a backtracking loop, where the iterations require typically seconds of execution time and very different, potentially large, amounts of stack space. Such a loop can be written as follows:

\(^{70}\)We hereby acknowledge Lionel Fourquaux, who suggested the design described here after a newsnet enquiry.
loop :-
  generator,
  trim_stacks,
  potentially_expensive_operation,
  stop_condition, !.

The prolog top level loop is written this way, reclaiming memory resources after every user query.

**set_prolog_stack(+Stack, +KeyValue)**
Set a parameter for one of the Prolog runtime stacks. Stack is one of local, global, trail or argument. The table below describes the Key(argValue) pairs. Value can be an arithmetic integer expression. E.g., to specify a 2Gb limit for the global stack one can use:

```
?- set_prolog_stack(global, limit(2*10**9)).
```

Current settings can be retrieved with **prolog_stack_property/2**.

**limit(+Bytes)**
Set the limit to which the stack is allowed to grow. If the specified value is lower than the current usage a permission_error is raised. If the limit is larger than supported, the system silently reduces the requested limit to the system limit.

**min_free(+Cells)**
Minimum amount of free space after trimming or shifting the stack. Setting this value higher can reduce the number of garbage collections and stack-shifts at the cost of higher memory usage. The spare stack amount is reported and specified in ‘cells’. A cell is 4 bytes in the 32-bit version and 8-bytes on the 64-bit version. See **address_bits**. See also **trim_stacks/0** and **debug/0**.

**spare(+Cells)**
All stacks trigger overflow before actually reaching the limit, so the resulting error can be handled gracefully. The spare stack is used for **print_message/2** from the garbage collector and for handling exceptions. The default suffices, unless the user redefines related hooks. Do **not** specify large values for this because it reduces the amount of memory available for your real task.

Related hooks are: **message_hook/3** (redefining GC messages), **prolog_trace_interception/4** and **prolog_exception_hook/4**.

**prolog_stack_property(?Stack, ?KeyValue)**
True if KeyValue is a current property of Stack. See **set_prolog_stack/2** for defined properties.
4.41 Windows DDE interface

The predicates in this section deal with MS-Windows ‘Dynamic Data Exchange’ or DDE protocol. A Windows DDE conversation is a form of interprocess communication based on sending reserved window-events between the communicating processes.

See also section 9.2.3 for loading Windows DLL’s into SWI-Prolog.

4.41.1 DDE client interface

The DDE client interface allows Prolog to talk to DDE server programs. We will demonstrate the use of the DDE interface using the Windows PROGMAN (Program Manager) application:

```
1 ?- open_dde_conversation(progman, progman, C).
   C = 0
2 ?- dde_request(0, groups, X)
   --> Unifies X with description of groups
3 ?- dde_execute(0, '[CreateGroup("DDE Demo")]').
   Yes
4 ?- close_dde_conversation(0).
   Yes
```

For details on interacting with progman, use the SDK online manual section on the Shell DDE interface. See also the Prolog library(progman), which may be used to write simple Windows setup scripts in Prolog.

**open_dde_conversation(+Service, +Topic, -Handle)**

Open a conversation with a server supporting the given service name and topic (atoms). If successful, Handle may be used to send transactions to the server. If no willing server is found this predicate fails silently.

**close_dde_conversation(+Handle)**

Close the conversation associated with Handle. All opened conversations should be closed when they’re no longer needed, although the system will close any that remain open on process termination.

**dde_request(+Handle, +Item, -Value)**

Request a value from the server. Item is an atom that identifies the requested data, and Value will be a string (CF_TEXT data in DDE parlance) representing that data, if the request is successful. If unsuccessful, Value will be unified with a term of form error(⟨Reason⟩), identifying the problem. This call uses SWI-Prolog string objects to return the value rather then atoms to reduce the load on the atom-space. See section 4.22 for a discussion on this data type.

---

71 This interface is contributed by Don Dwiggins.
4.41. WINDOWS DDE INTERFACE

**dde.execute(+Handle, +Command)**
Request the DDE server to execute the given command-string. Succeeds if the command could be executed and fails with error message otherwise.

**dde.poke(+Handle, +Item, +Command)**
Issue a POKE command to the server on the specified Item. Command is passed as data of type CF_TEXT.

### 4.41.2 DDE server mode

The (autoload) library(dde) defines primitives to realise simple DDE server applications in SWI-Prolog. These features are provided as of version 2.0.6 and should be regarded prototypes. The C-part of the DDE server can handle some more primitives, so if you need features not provided by this interface, please study library(dde).

**dde.register_service(+Template, +Goal)**
Register a server to handle DDE request or DDE execute requests from other applications. To register a service for a DDE request, Template is of the form:

```
+Service(+Topic, +Item, +Value)
```

*Service* is the name of the DDE service provided (like progman in the client example above). *Topic* is either an atom, indicating *Goal* only handles requests on this topic or a variable that also appears in *Goal*. *Item* and *Value* are variables that also appear in *Goal*. *Item* represents the request data as a Prolog atom.

The example below registers the Prolog current_prolog_flag/2 predicate to be accessible from other applications. The request may be given from the same Prolog as well as from another application.

```
?- dde_register_service(prolog(current_prolog_flag, F, V),
                         current_prolog_flag(F, V)).
?- open_dde_conversation(prolog, current_prolog_flag, Handle),
   dde_request(Handle, home, Home),
   close_dde_conversation(Handle).

Home = '/usr/local/lib/pl-2.0.6/'
```

Handling DDE execute requests is very similar. In this case the template is of the form:

```
+Service(+Topic, +Item)
```

Passing a *Value* argument is not needed as execute requests either succeed or fail. If *Goal* fails, a ‘not processed’ is passed back to the caller of the DDE request.

---

72 Up-to version 3.4.5 this was a list of character codes. As recent versions have atom garbage collection there is no need for this anymore.
**Chapter 4. Built-In Predicates**

**dde_unregister_service(+Service)**

Stop responding to `Service`. If Prolog is halted, it will automatically call this on all open services.

**dde_current_service(-Service, -Topic)**

Find currently registered services and the topics served on them.

**dde_current_connection(-Service, -Topic)**

Find currently open conversations.

### 4.42 Miscellaneous

**dwim_match(+Atom1, +Atom2)**

True if `Atom1` matches `Atom2` in ‘Do What I Mean’ sense. Both `Atom1` and `Atom2` may also be integers or floats. The two atoms match if:

- They are identical
- They differ by one character (spy ≡ spu)
- One character is inserted/deleted (debug ≡ deug)
- Two characters are transposed (trace ≡ tarce)
- ‘Sub-words’ are glued differently (existsfile ≡ existsFile ≡ exists_file)
- Two adjacent sub words are transposed (existsFile ≡ fileExists)

**dwim_match(+Atom1, +Atom2, -Difference)**

Equivalent to `dwim_match/2`, but unifies `Difference` with an atom identifying the difference between `Atom1` and `Atom2`. The return values are (in the same order as above): equal, mismatched_char, inserted_char, transposed_char, separated and transposed_word.

**wildcard_match(+Pattern, +String)**

True if `String` matches the wildcard pattern `Pattern`. `Pattern` is very similar the Unix csh pattern matcher. The patterns are given below:

- `?` Matches one arbitrary character.
- `*` Matches any number of arbitrary characters.
- `[...]` Matches one of the characters specified between the brackets.
- `<char1>–<char2>` indicates a range.
- `{...}` Matches any of the patterns of the comma separated list between the braces.

Example:

```prolog
?- wildcard_match(’[a-z]*.{pro,pl}[%¬]’, ’a_hello.pl%’).
Yes
```
sleep(+Time)

Suspend execution \textit{Time} seconds. \textit{Time} is either a floating point number or an integer. Granularity is dependent on the system’s timer granularity. A negative time causes the timer to return immediately. On most non-realtime operating systems we can only ensure execution is suspended for at least \textit{Time} seconds.

On Unix systems the \texttt{sleep/1} predicate is realised —in order of preference— by \texttt{nanosleep()}, \texttt{usleep()}, \texttt{select()} if the time is below 1 minute or \texttt{sleep()}. On Windows systems \texttt{Sleep()} is used.
A Prolog module is a collection of predicates which defines a public interface by means of a set of provided predicates and operators. Prolog modules are defined by an ISO standard. Unfortunately, the standard is considered a failure and, as far as we are aware, not implemented by any concrete Prolog implementation. The SWI-Prolog module system is derived from the Quintus Prolog module system. The Quintus module system has been the starting points for the module systems of a number of mainstream Prolog systems, such as SICStus, Ciao and YAP.

This chapter motivates and describes the SWI-Prolog module system. Novices can start using the module system after reading section 5.2 and section 5.3. The primitives defined in these sections suffice for basic usage until one needs to export predicates that call or manage other predicates dynamically (e.g., use call/1, assert/1, etc.). Such predicates are called *meta predicates* and are discussed in section 5.4. Section 5.5 to section 5.8 describe more advanced issues. Starting with section 5.9, we discuss more low-level aspects of the SWI-Prolog module systems that are used to implement the visible module system, and can be used to build other code reuse mechanisms.

### 5.1 Why Using Modules?

In classic Prolog systems, all predicates are organised in a single namespace and any predicate can call any predicate. Because each predicate in a file can be called from anywhere in the program, it becomes very hard to find the dependencies and enhance the implementation of a predicate without risking to break the overall application. This is true for any language, but even worse for Prolog due to its frequent need for ‘helper predicates’.

A Prolog module encapsulates a set of predicates and defines an *interface*. Modules can import other modules, which makes the dependencies explicit. Given explicit dependencies and a well-defined interface, it becomes much easier to change the internal organisation of a module without breaking the overall application.

Explicit dependencies can also be used by the development environment. The SWI-Prolog library prolog_xref can be used to analyse completeness and consistency of modules. This library is used by the built-in editor PceEmacs for syntax highlighting, jump-to-definition, etc.

### 5.2 Defining a Module

Modules are normally created by loading a *module file*. A module file is a file holding a `module/2` directive as its first term. The `module/2` directive declares the name and the public (i.e., externally visible) predicates of the module. The rest of the file is loaded into the module. Below is an example of a module file, defining `reverse/2` and hiding the helper-predicate `rev/3`. A module can use all built-in predicates and, by default, cannot redefine system predicates.
The module is named reverse. Typically, the name of a module is the same as the name of the file by which it is defined without the filename extension, but this naming is not enforced. Modules are organised in a single and flat namespace and therefore module names must be chosen with some care to avoid conflicts. As we will see, typical applications of the module system rarely use the name of a module explicitly in the source text.

:- module(+Module, +PublicList)
This directive can only be used as the first term of a source file. It declares the file to be a module file, defining a module named Module and exporting the predicates of PublicList. PublicList is a list of predicate indicators (name/arity or name//arity pairs) or operator declarations using the format op(Precedence, Type, Name). Operators defined in the export list are available inside the module as well as to modules importing this module. See also section 4.23.

Compatible to Ciao Prolog, if Module is unbound, it is unified with the basename without extension of the file being loaded.

5.3 Importing Predicates into a Module

Predicates can be added to a module by importing them from another module. Importing adds predicates to the namespace of a module. An imported predicate can be called exactly the same as a locally defined predicate, although its implementation remains part of the module in which it has been defined.

Importing the predicates from another module is achieved using the directives use_module/1 or use_module/2. Note that both directives take file name(s) as arguments. I.e., modules are imported based on their file name rather than their module name.

use_module(+Files)
Load the file(s) specified with File just like ensure_loaded/1. The files must all be module files. All exported predicates from the loaded files are imported into the module from which this predicate is called. This predicate is equivalent to ensure_loaded/1, except that it raises an error if File is not a module file.

use_module(+File, +ImportList)
Load File, which must be a module file and import the predicates as specified by ImportList. ImportList is a list of predicate indicators specifying the predicates that will be imported from the loaded module. ImportList also allows for renaming or import-everything-except. See also import option of load_files/2. The first example below loads member/2 from the lists

```prolog
:- module(reverse, [reverse/2]).
reverse(List1, List2) :-
  rev(List1, [], List2).
rev([], List, List).
rev([Head|List1], List2, List3) :-
  rev(List1, [Head|List2], List3).
```
library and \texttt{append/2} under the name \texttt{list\_concat}, which how this predicate is named in YAP. The second example loads all exports from library \texttt{option}, except for \texttt{meta\_options/3}. These renaming facilities are generally used to deal with portability issues with as few as possible changes to the actual code. See also section \texttt{C} and section 5.7.

\begin{verbatim}
:- use_module(library(lists), [ member/2,  
    append/2 as list\_concat  
  ]).
:- use_module(library(option), except([meta\_options/3])).
\end{verbatim}

The \texttt{module/2} directive, \texttt{use\_module/1} and \texttt{use\_module/2} are sufficient to partition a simple Prolog program into modules. The SWI-Prolog graphical cross-referencing tool \texttt{gxref/0} can be used to analyse the dependencies between non-module files and propose module declarations for each file.

### 5.4 Defining a meta-predicate

A meta-predicate is a predicate that calls other predicates dynamically, modifies a predicate or reasons about properties of a predicate. Such predicates use either a compound term or a predicate indicator to describe the predicate they address, e.g., \texttt{assert(name(jan))} or \texttt{abolish(name/1)}. With modules, this simple schema no longer works as each module defines its own mapping from name+arity to predicate. This is resolved by wrapping the original description in a term \texttt{⟨module⟩:⟨term⟩}, e.g., \texttt{assert(person\_name(jan))} or \texttt{abolish(person\_name/1)}.

Of course, calling \texttt{assert/1} from inside a module, we expect to assert to a predicate local to this module. In other words, we do not wish to provide this \texttt{:/2} wrapper by hand. The \texttt{meta\_predicate/1} directive tells the compiler that certain arguments are terms that will be used to lookup a predicate and thus need to be wrapped (qualified) with \texttt{⟨module⟩:⟨term⟩}, unless they are already wrapped.

In the example below, we use this to define \texttt{maplist/3} inside a module. The argument ‘2’ in the \texttt{meta\_predicate} declaration means that the argument is module sensitive and refers to a predicate with an arity that is two more than the term that is passed in. The compiler only distinguishes the values \texttt{0..9} and \texttt{:}, which denote module-sensitive arguments, from \texttt{+}, \texttt{-} and \texttt{?} which denotes modes. The values \texttt{0..9} are used by the \texttt{cross\_refererencer} and syntax highlighting. Note that the helper-predicate \texttt{maplist/3} does not need to be declared as a meta-predicate because the \texttt{maplist/3} wrapper already ensures that \texttt{Goal} is qualified as \texttt{⟨module⟩:Goal}. See the description of \texttt{meta\_predicate/1} for details.

\begin{verbatim}
:- module(maplist, [maplist/3]).
:- meta\_predicate maplist(2, ?, ?).

%% maplist(:Goal, +List1, ?List2)
%% True if Goal can successfully be applied to all
%% successive pairs of elements from List1 and List2.
maplist(Goal, L1, L2) :-
\end{verbatim}
5.4. DEFINING A META-PREDICATE

maplist_(L1, L2, G).
maplist_([], [], _).
maplist_([H0|T0], [H|T], Goal) :-
call(Goal, H0, H),
maplist_(T0, T, Goal).

meta_predicate +Head, ...

Define the predicates referenced by the comma-separated list Head as meta-predicates. Each argument of each head is a meta argument specifier. Defined specifiers are given below. Only 0..9 and : are interpreted; the mode declarations +, - and ? are ignored.

0..9
The argument is a term that is used to reference a predicate with \( N \) more arguments than the given argument term. For example: \( \text{call(0)} \) or \( \text{maplist(1, +)} \).

:  
The argument is module sensitive, but does not directly refer to a predicate. For example: \( \text{consult(0)} \).

-  
The argument is not module sensitive and unbound on entry.

?  
The argument is not module sensitive and the mode is unspecified.

+  
The argument is not module sensitive and bound (i.e., nonvar) on entry.

Each argument that is module-sensitive (i.e., marked 0..9 or :) is qualified with the context module of the caller if it is not already qualified. The implementation ensures that the argument is passed as \( \langle \text{module} \rangle : \langle \text{term} \rangle \), where \( \langle \text{atom} \rangle \) is an atom denoting the name of a module and \( \langle \text{term} \rangle \) itself is not a :/2 term. Below is a simple declaration and a number of queries.

:- meta_predicate
meta(0, +).
meta(Module:Term, _Arg) :-
    format("Module=’\w’, Term = ’\q’n’, [Module, Term]").

?- meta(test, x).
Module=user, Term = test
?- meta(m1:test, x).
Module=m1, Term = test
?- m2:meta(test, x).
Module=m2, Term = test
?- m1:meta(m2:test, x).
Module=m2, Term = test
Module=m2, Term = test
The `meta/1` declaration is the portable mechanism for defining meta-predicates and replaces the old SWI-Prolog specific mechanism provided by the deprecated predicates `module_transparent/1`, `context_module/1` and `strip_module/3`. See also section 5.15.

### 5.5 Overruling Module Boundaries

The module system described so far is sufficient to distribute programs over multiple modules. There are however cases in which we would like to be able to overrule this schema and explicitly call a predicate in some module or assert explicitly into some module. Calling in a particular module is useful for debugging from the user’s top-level or to access multiple implementations of the same interface that reside in multiple modules. Accessing the same interface from multiple modules cannot be achieved using importing because importing a predicate with the same name and arity from two modules results in a name conflict. Asserting in a different module can be used to create models dynamically in a new module. See section 5.12.

Direct addressing of modules is achieved using a `:/2` explicitly in a program and rely on the module qualification mechanism described in section 5.4. Here are a few examples:

```
?- assert(world:done). % asserts done/0 into module world
?- world:assert(done). % the same
?- world:done. % calls done/0 in module world
```

### 5.6 Interacting with modules from the toplevel

Debugging often requires interaction with predicates that reside in modules: running them, setting spy-points on them, etc. This can be achieved using the `<module>:<term>` construct explicitly as described above. In SWI-Prolog, you may also wish to omit the module qualification. Setting a spy-point (spy/1) on a plain predicate sets a spy-point on any predicate with that name in any module. Editing (edit/1) or calling an unqualified predicate invokes the DWIM (Do What I Mean) mechanism, which generally suggests the correct qualified query.

Mainly for compatibility, we provide `module/1` to switch the module with which the interactive toplevel interacts:

```
module(+Module)
```

The call `module(Module)` may be used to switch the default working module for the interactive top-level (see `prolog/0`). This may be used when debugging a module. The example below lists the clauses of file `of_label/2` in the module `tex`.

```
1 ?- module(tex).
```
5.7 Composing modules from other modules

The predicates in this section are intended to create new modules from the content of other modules. Below is an example to define a composite module. The example exports all public predicates of module_1, module_2 and module_3, pred/1 from module_4, all predicates from module_5 except do_not_use/1 and all predicates from module_6 while renaming pred/1 into mypred/1.

```prolog
:- module(my_composite, []).  
:- reexport([ module_1,  
              module_2,  
              module_3  
              ]).  
:- reexport(module_4, [ pred/1 ]).  
:- reexport(module_5, except([do_not_use/1])).  
:- reexport(module_6, except([pred/1 as mypred])).
```

**reexport(Files)**

Load and import predicates as use_modules/1 and re-export all imported predicates. The reexport declarations must immediately follow the module declaration.

**reexport(File, Import)**

Import from File as use_module/2 and re-export the imported predicates. The reexport declarations must immediately follow the module declaration.

5.8 Operators and modules

Operators (section 4.23) are local to modules, where the initial table behaves as if it is copied from the module user (see section 5.10). A specific operator can be disabled inside a module using :- op(0, Type, Name). Inheritance from the public table can be restored using :- op(-1, Type, Name).

In addition to using the op/3 directive, operators can be declared in the module/2 directive as shown below. Such operator declarations are visible inside the module and importing such a module makes the operators visible in the target module. Exporting operators is typically used by modules that implement sub-languages such as chr (see chapter 7). The example below is copied from the library clpfd.

```prolog
:- module(clpfd,  
          [ op(760, yfx, #<==>,),  
            op(750, xfy, #==>),
          ],
```

---

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
5.9 Dynamic importing using import modules

Until now we discussed the public module interface that is, at least to some extent, portable between Prolog implementation with a module system that is derived from Quintus Prolog. The remainder of this chapter describes the underlying mechanisms that can be used to emulate other module systems or implement other code-reuse mechanisms.

In addition to built-in predicates, imported predicates and locally defined predicates, SWI-Prolog modules can also call predicates from its import modules. Each module has a (possibly empty) list of import modules. In the default setup, each new module has a single import module, which is user for all normal user modules and system for all system library modules. Module user imports from system where all built-in predicates reside. These special modules are described in more detail in section 5.10.

The list of import modules can be manipulated and queried using the following predicates:

`set_base_module(+Module)`
Set the default import module of the current module to `Module`. Typically, `Module` is one of user or system.

`import_module(+Module, -Import)`
True if `Import` is defined as an import module for `Module`. All normal modules only import from user, which imports from system. The predicates `add_import_module/3` and `delete_import_module/2` can be used to manipulate the import list.

`add_import_module(+Module, +Import, +StartOrEnd)`
If `Import` is not already an import module for `Module`, add it to this list at the start or end depending on `StartOrEnd`. See also `import_module/2` and `delete_import_module/2`.

`delete_import_module(+Module, +Import)`
Delete `Import` from the list of import modules for `Module`. Fails silently if `Import` is not in the list.

One usage scenario of import modules is to define a module that is a copy of another, but where one or more predicates have an alternative definition.
5.10 Reserved Modules and using the ‘user’ module

As mentioned above, SWI-Prolog contains two special modules. The first one is the module `system`. This module contains all built-in predicates. Module `system` has no import module. The second special module is the module `user`. This module forms the initial working space of the user. Initially it is empty. The import module of module `user` is `system`, making all built-in predicates available.

All other modules import from the module `user`. This implies they can use all predicates imported into `user` without explicitly importing them. If an application loads all modules from the `user` module using `use_module/1`, one achieves a scoping system similar to the C-language, where every module can access all exported predicates without any special precautions.

5.11 An alternative import/export interface

The `use_module/1` predicate from section 5.3 defines import and export relations based on the filename from which a module is loaded. If modules are created differently, such as by asserting predicates into a new module as described in section 5.12, this interface cannot be used. The interface below provides for import/export from modules that are not created using a module-file.

\[\text{export}(+\text{PredicateIndicator}, \ldots)\]

Add predicates to the public list of the context module. This implies the predicate will be imported into another module if this module is imported with `use_module/[1,2]`. Note that predicates are normally exported using the directive `module/2`. `export/1` is meant to handle export from dynamically created modules.

\[\text{import}(+\text{PredicateIndicator}, \ldots)\]

Import predicates `PredicateIndicator` into the current context module. `PredicateIndicator` must specify the source module using the `(module):⟨pi⟩` construct. Note that predicates are normally imported using one of the directives `use_module/[1,2]`. The `import/1` alternative is meant for handling imports into dynamically created modules. See also `export/1` and `export_list/2`.

5.12 Dynamic Modules

So far, we discussed modules that were created by loading a module-file. These modules have been introduced to facilitate the development of large applications. The modules are fully defined at load-time of the application and normally will not change during execution. Having the notion of a set of predicates as a self-contained world can be attractive for other purposes as well. For example, assume an application that can reason about multiple worlds. It is attractive to store the data of a particular world in a module, so we extract information from a world simply by invoking goals in this world.

Dynamic modules can easily be created. Any built-in predicate that tries to locate a predicate in a specific module will create this module as a side-effect if it did not yet exist. For Example:

\[
?\- \text{assert}(\text{world}_a:\text{consistent}), \\
\text{world}_a:\text{set_prolog_flag}(\text{unknown}, \text{fail}).
\]

These calls create a module called ‘world_a’ and make the call ‘world_a:consistent’ succeed. Undefined predicates will not raise an exception for this module (see `unknown`).
Import and export from a dynamically created world can be achieved using `import/1` and `export/1` or specifying the import module as described in section 5.9.

```prolog
?- world_b:export(solve(_,_)). % exports solve/2 from world_b
?- world_c:import(world_b:solve(_,_)). % and import it to world_c
```

### 5.13 Transparent predicates: definition and context module

The qualification of module sensitive arguments described in section 5.4 is realised using transparent predicates. It is now deprecated to use this mechanism directly. However, studying the underlying mechanism helps to understand SWI-Prolog’s modules. In some respect, the transparent mechanism is more powerful than meta-predicate declarations.

Each predicate of the program is assigned a module, called its **definition module**. The definition module of a predicate is always the module in which the predicate was originally defined. Each active goal in the Prolog system has a **context module** assigned to it.

The context module is used to find predicates for a Prolog term. By default, the context module is the definition module of the predicate running the goal. For transparent predicates however, this is the context module of the goal is inherited from the parent goal. Below, we implement `maplist/3` using the transparent mechanism. The code of `maplist/3` and `maplist_/3` is the same as in section 5.4, but now we must declare both the main predicate and the helper as transparent to avoid changing the context module when calling the helper.

```
:- module(maplist, maplist/3).
:- module_transparent
    maplist/3, maplist_/3.

maplist(Goal, L1, L2) :-
    maplist_(L1, L2, G).

maplist_([], [], _).
maplist_(H0|T0, [H|T], Goal) :-
    call(Goal, H0, H),
    maplist_(T0, T, Goal).
```

Note that any call that translates terms into predicates is subject to the transparent mechanism, not just the terms passed to module-sensitive arguments. For example, the module below counts the number of unique atoms returned as bindings for a variable. It works as expected. If we use the directive `:- module_transparent count_atom_results/3. instead, atom_result/2 is called wrongly in the module calling count_atom_results/3. This can be solved using `strip_module/3` to create a qualified goal and a non-transparent helper predicate that is defined in the same module.
5.14. QUERY THE MODULE SYSTEM

```prolog
:- module(count_atom_results,
    count_atom_results/3).
:- meta_predicate count_atom_results(-,0,-).

count_atom_results(A, Goal, Count) :-
    setof(A, atom_result(A, Goal), As), !,
    length(As, Count).
count_atom_results(_, _, 0).

atom_result(Var, Goal) :-
    call(Goal),
    atom(Var).
```

The following predicates support the module-transparent interface:

```prolog
:- module_transparent(+Preds)
Preds is a comma separated list of name/arity pairs (like dynamic/1). Each goal associated
with a transparent declared predicate will inherit the context module from its parent goal.

collection(module(-Module))
Unify Module with the context module of the current goal. context_module/1 itself is, of
course, transparent.

strip_module(+Term, -Module, -Plain)
Used in module transparent or meta-predicates to extract the referenced module and plain term.
If Term is a module-qualified term, i.e. of the format Module:Plain, Module and Plain are
unified to these values. Otherwise, Plain is unified to Term and Module to the context module.

5.14 Query the module system

The following predicates can be used to query the module system for reflexive programming:

```prolog
collection(current_module(?Module)) [nondet]
True if Module is a currently defined module. This predicate enumerates all modules, whether
loaded from a file or created dynamically. Note that modules cannot be destroyed in the current
version of SWI-Prolog.

module_property(?Module, ?Property)
True if Property is a property of Module. Defined properties are:

file(?File)
True if Module was loaded from File.

line_count(-Line)
True if Module was loaded from the N-th line of file.
```
exports(ListOfPredicateIndicators)

True if Module exports the given predicates. Predicate indicators are in canonical form (i.e., always using Name/Arity and never the DCG form Name//=Arity). Future versions may also use the DCG form and include public operators. See also predicate_property/2.

5.15 Compatibility of the Module System

The SWI-Prolog module system is largely derived from the Quintus Prolog module system, which is also adopted by SICStus, Ciao and YAP. Originally, the mechanism for defining meta-predicates in SWI-Prolog was based on the module_transparent/1 directive and strip_module/3. Since 5.7.4 it supports the de-facto standard meta_predicate/1 directive for implementing meta-predicates, providing much better compatibility.

The support for the meta_predicate/1 mechanism however is considerably different. On most systems, the caller of a meta-predicate is compiled differently to provide the required ⟨module⟩:⟨term⟩ qualification. This implies that the meta-declaration must be available to the compiler when compiling code that calls a meta-predicate. In practice, this implies that other systems pose the following restrictions on meta-predicates:

- Modules that provide meta-predicates for a module to-be-compiled must be loaded explicitly by that module.
- The meta_predicate directives of exported predicates must follow the module/2 directive immediately.
- After changing a meta-declaration, all modules that call the modified predicates need to be recompiled.

In SWI-Prolog, meta-predicates are also module-transparent and qualifying the module sensitive arguments is done inside the meta-predicate. As a result, the caller need not be aware that it is calling a meta-predicate and none of the above restrictions hold for SWI-Prolog. However, code that aims at portability must obey the above rules.

Other differences are listed below.

- If a module does not define a predicate, it is searched for in the import modules. By default, the import module of any user-defined module is the user module. In turn, the user module imports from the module system that provides all built-in predicates. The auto-import hierarchy can be changed using add_import_module/3 and delete_import_module/2.
  
  This mechanisms can be used to realise a simple object oriented system or hierarchical module system.

- Operator declarations are local to a module and may be exported. In Quintus and SICStus all operators are global. YAP and Ciao also use local operators. SWI-Prolog provides global operator declarations from within a module by explicitly qualifying the operator name with the user module.

  :- op(precedence, type, user:(operatortname)).
This chapter deals with extensions primarily designed to support constraint logic programming (CLP). The low-level attributed variable interface defined in in section 6.1 is not intended for the typical Prolog programmer. Instead, the typical Prolog programmer should use the coroutining predicates and the various constraint solvers built on top of attributed variables. CHR (section 7) provides a general purpose constraint handling language.

As a rule of thumb, constraint programming reduces the search space by reordering goals and joining goals based on domain knowledge. A typical example is constraint reasoning over integer domains. Plain Prolog has no efficient means to deal with (integer) \( X > 0 \) and \( X < 3 \). At best it could translate \( X > 0 \) with uninstantiated \( X \) to between(1, infinite, \( X \)) and a similar primitive for \( X < 3 \). If the two are combined it has no choice but to generate and test over this infinite two-dimensional space. Instead, a constraint system will delay an uninstantated goal to \( X > 0 \). If, later, it finds a value for \( X \) it will execute the test. If it finds \( X < 3 \) it will combine this knowledge to infer that \( X \) is in 1..2 (see below). If never finds a concrete value for \( X \) it can be asked to label \( X \) and produce 1 and 2 on backtracking. See section A.7.

```prolog
1 ?- [library(clpfd)].
... true.
2 ?- X #> 0, X #< 3.
   X in 1..2.
```

Using constraints generally makes your program more declarative. There are some caveats though:

- Constraints and cuts to not merge well. A cut after a goal that is delayed prunes the search-space before the condition is true.

- Term-copying operations (assert/1, retract/2, findall/3, copy_term/2, etc.) generally also copy constraints. The effect varies from ok, silent copying of huge constraint networks to violations of the internal consistency of constraint networks. As a rule of thumb, copying terms holding attributes must be deprecated.

### 6.1 Attributed variables

Attributed variables provide a technique for extending the Prolog unification algorithm [Holzbaur, 1992] by hooking the binding of attributed variables. There is no consensus in the Prolog community on the exact definition and interface to attributed variables. The SWI-Prolog interface is identical to the one realised by Bart Demoen for hProlog [Demen, 2002]. This interface is simple
and available on all Prolog systems that can run the Leuven CHR system (see section 7 and the Leuven CHR page.

Binding an attributed variable schedules a goal to be executed at the first possible opportunity. In the current implementation the hooks are executed immediately after a successful unification of the clause-head or successful completion of a foreign language (built-in) predicate. Each attribute is associated to a module and the hook (attr_unify_hook/2) is executed in this module. The example below realises a very simple and incomplete finite domain reasoner.

```
:- module(domain,
        [ domain/2 % Var, ?Domain
        ]).
:- use_module(library(ordsets)).

domain(X, Dom) :-
    var(Dom), !,
    get_attr(X, domain, Dom).

domain(X, List) :-
    list_to_ord_set(List, Domain),
    put_attr(Y, domain, Domain),
    X = Y.

% An attributed variable with attribute value Domain has been assigned the value Y

attr_unify_hook(Domain, Y) :-
    ( get_attr(Y, domain, Dom2)
      -> ord_intersection(Domain, Dom2, NewDomain),
        ( NewDomain == []
          -> fail
          ; NewDomain = [Value]
          -> Y = Value
          ; put_attr(Y, domain, NewDomain)
        )
      ; var(Y)
      -> put_attr( Y, domain, Domain )
      ; ord_memberchk(Y, Domain)
    ).

% Translate attributes from this module to residual goals

attribute_goals(X) -->
    { get_attr(X, domain, List) },
    [domain(X, List)].
```

Before explaining the code we give some example queries:
6.1. ATTRIBUTED VARIABLES

?- domain(X, [a,b]), X = c  fail
?- domain(X, [a,b]), domain(X, [a,c]). X = a
?- domain(X, [a,b,c]), domain(X, [a,c]). domain(X, [a, c])

The predicate domain/2 fetches (first clause) or assigns (second clause) the variable a domain, a set of values it can be unified with. In the second clause first associates the domain with a fresh variable and then unifies X to this variable to deal with the possibility that X already has a domain. The predicate attr_unify_hook/2 is a hook called after a variable with a domain is assigned a value. In the simple case where the variable is bound to a concrete value we simply check whether this value is in the domain. Otherwise we take the intersection of the domains and either fail if the intersection is empty (first example), simply assign the value if there is only one value in the intersection (second example) or assign the intersection as the new domain of the variable (third example). The nonterminal attribute_goals/3 is used to translate remaining attributes to user-readable goals that, when executed, reinstate these attributes.

6.1.1 Attribute manipulation predicates

attvar(+Term)
  Succeeds if Term is an attributed variable. Note that var/1 also succeeds on attributed variables. Attributed variables are created with put_attr/3.

put_attr(+Var, +Module, +Value)
  If Var is a variable or attributed variable, set the value for the attribute named Module to Value. If an attribute with this name is already associated with Var, the old value is replaced. Backtracking will restore the old value (i.e. an attribute is a mutable term. See also setarg/3). This predicate raises a representation error if Var is not a variable and a type error if Module is not an atom.

get_attr(+Var, +Module, -Value)
  Request the current value for the attribute named Module. If Var is not an attributed variable or the named attribute is not associated to Var this predicate fails silently. If Module is not an atom, a type error is raised.

del_attr(+Var, +Module)
  Delete the named attribute. If Var loses its last attribute it is transformed back into a traditional Prolog variable. If Module is not an atom, a type error is raised. In all other cases this predicate succeeds regardless whether or not the named attribute is present.

6.1.2 Attributed variable hooks

Attribute names are linked to modules. This means that certain operations on attributed variables cause hooks to be called in the the module whose name matches the attribute name.

attr_unify_hook(+AttValue, +VarValue)
  Hook that must be defined in the module an attributed variable refers to. Is is called after the attributed variable has been unified with a non-var term, possibly another attributed variable. AttValue is the attribute that was associated to the variable in this module and VarValue is the new value of the variable. Normally this predicate fails to veto binding the variable to VarValue, forcing backtracking to undo the binding. If VarValue is another attributed variable
the hook often combines the two attribute and associates the combined attribute with \texttt{VarValue} using \texttt{put\_attr/3}.

\textbf{\texttt{attr\_portray\_hook}(\texttt{+AttValue, +Var})}

Called by \texttt{write\_term/2} and friends for each attribute if the option \texttt{attributes(portray)} is in effect. If the hook succeeds the attribute is considered printed. Otherwise \texttt{Module = ...} is printed to indicate the existence of a variable. New infrastructure dealing with communicating attribute values must be based on \texttt{copy\_term/3} and its hook \texttt{attribute\_goals//1}.

\textbf{\texttt{attribute\_goals}(\texttt{+Var})} //

This nonterminal, if it is defined in a module, is used by \texttt{copy\_term/3} to project attributes of that module to residual goals. It is also used by the toplevel to obtain residual goals after executing a query.

\subsection*{6.1.3 Operations on terms with attributed variables}

\textbf{\texttt{copy\_term}(\texttt{+Term, -Copy, -Gs})}

Create a regular term \texttt{Copy} as a copy of \texttt{Term} (without any attributes), and a list \texttt{Gs} of goals that represents the attributes. The goal \texttt{maplist(call,Gs)} recreates the attributes for \texttt{Copy}. The nonterminal \texttt{attribute\_goals//1}, as defined in the modules the attributes stem from, is used to convert attributes to lists of goals.

This building block is used by the toplevel to report pending attributes in a portable and understandable fashion. This predicate is the preferred way to reason about and communicate terms with constraints.

\textbf{\texttt{copy\_term\_nat}(\texttt{+Term, -Copy})}

As \texttt{copy\_term/2}. Attributes however, are not copied but replaced by fresh variables.

\textbf{\texttt{term\_attvars}(\texttt{+Term, -AttVars})}

\texttt{AttVars} is a list of all attributed variables in \texttt{Term} and its attributes. I.e., \texttt{term\_attvars/2} works recursively through attributes. This predicate is Cycle-safe. The goal \texttt{term\_attvars(Term, [])} in an efficient test that \texttt{Term} has no attributes. I.e., scanning the term is aborted after the first attributed variable is found.

\subsection*{6.1.4 Special purpose predicates for attributes}

Normal user code should deal with \texttt{put\_attr/3}, \texttt{get\_attr/3} and \texttt{del\_attr/2}. The routines in this section fetch or set the entire attribute list of a variables. Use of these predicates is anticipated to be restricted to printing and other special purpose operations.

\textbf{\texttt{get\_attrs}(\texttt{+Var, -Attributes})}

Get all attributes of \texttt{Var}. \texttt{Attributes} is a term of the form \texttt{att(Module, Value, MoreAttributes)}, where \texttt{MoreAttributes} is \texttt{[]} for the last attribute.

\textbf{\texttt{put\_attrs}(\texttt{+Var, -Attributes})}

Set all attributes of \texttt{Var}. See \texttt{get\_attrs/2} for a description of \texttt{Attributes}. 

---

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
6.2. COROUTINING

***del_attr(+Var)***

If Var is an attributed variable, delete all its attributes. In all other cases, this predicate succeeds without side-effects.

### 6.2 Coroutining

Coroutining deals with having Prolog goals scheduled for execution as soon as some conditions are fulfilled. In Prolog the most commonly used condition is the instantiation (binding) of a variable. Scheduling a goal to execute immediately after a variable is bound can be used to avoid instantiation errors for some built-in predicates (e.g. arithmetic), do work lazy, prevent the binding of a variable to a particular value, etc. Using freeze/2 for example we can define a variable can only be assigned an even number:

\[
?- \text{freeze}(X, X \mod 2 =:= 0), X = 3
\]

No

#### freeze(+Var, :Goal)

Delay the execution of Goal until Var is bound (i.e. is not a variable or attributed variable). If Var is bound on entry freeze/2 is equivalent to call/1. The freeze/2 predicate is realised using an attributed variable associated with the module freeze. Use frozen(Var, Goal) to find out whether and which goals are delayed on Var.

#### frozen(@Var, -Goal)

Unify Goal with the goal or conjunction of goals delayed on Var. If no goals are frozen on Var, Goal is unified to true.

#### when(@Condition, :Goal)

Execute Goal when Condition becomes true. Condition is one of ?=(X, Y), nonvar(X), ground(X), (Cond1, Cond2) or ;(Cond1, Cond2). See also freeze/2 and dif/2. The implementation can deal with cyclic terms in X and Y.

The when/2 predicate is realised using attributed variable associated with the module when. It is defined in the autoload library when.

#### dif(@A, @B)

The dif/2 predicate provides a constraint stating that A and B are different terms. If A and B can never unify dif/2 succeeds deterministically. If A and B are identical it fails immediately and finally, if A and B can unify, goals are delayed that prevent A and B to become equal. The dif/2 predicate behaves as if defined by

\[
dif(X, Y) :- \text{when}(?=X, Y), X \neq Y
\]

See also ?=/2. The implementation can deal with cyclic terms.

The dif/2 predicate is realised using attributed variable associated with the module dif. It is defined in the autoload library dif.

#### call_residue_vars(-Goal, -Vars)

Find residual attributed variables left by Goal. This predicate is intended for debugging programs using coroutining or constraints. Consider a program that poses contracting constraints
on a variable. Such programs should fail, but sometimes succeed because the constraint solver is too weak to detect the contradiction. Ideally, delayed goals and constraints are all executed at the end of the computation. The meta predicate `call_residue_vars/2` finds variables that are given attributes variables or whose attributes are modified\(^1\) by `Goal`, regardless or not whether these variables are reachable from the arguments of `Goal`.

The predicate has considerable implications. During the execution of `Goal`, the garbage collector does not reclaim attributed variables. This causes some degradation of GC performance. In a well-behaved program there are no such variables, so the space impact is generally minimal. The actual collection of `Vars` is implemented using a scan of the trail- and global stacks.

### 6.3 Global variables

Global variables are associations between names (atoms) and terms. They differ in various ways from storing information using `assert/1` or `recorda/3`.

- The value lives on the Prolog (global) stack. This implies that lookup time is independent from the size of the term. This is particularly interesting for large data structures such as parsed XML documents or the CHR global constraint store.

- They support both global assignment using `nb_setval/2` and backtrackable assignment using `b_setval/2`.

- Only one value (which can be an arbitrary complex Prolog term) can be associated to a variable at a time.

- Their value cannot be shared among threads. Each thread has its own namespace and values for global variables.

- Currently global variables are scoped globally. We may consider module scoping in future versions.

Both `b_setval/2` and `nb_setval/2` implicitly create a variable if the referenced name does not already refer to a variable.

Global variables may be initialised from directives to make them available during the program lifetime, but some considerations are necessary for saved-states and threads. Saved-states to not store global variables, which implies they have to be declared with `initialization/1` to recreate them after loading the saved state. Each thread has its own set of global variables, starting with an empty set. Using `thread_initialization/1` to define a global variable it will be defined, restored after reloading a saved state and created in all threads that are created after the registration. Finally, global variables can be initialised using the exception hook called `exception/3`. The latter technique is by CHR (see chapter 7).

```
b_setval(+Name, +Value)
```

Associate the term `Value` with the atom `Name` or replaces the currently associated value with `Value`. If `Name` does not refer to an existing global variable a variable with initial value `[ ]` is created (the empty list). On backtracking the assignment is reversed.

\(^1\)Tracking modifications is currently not complete and this feature may be dropped completely in future versions.
6.3. GLOBAL VARIABLES

\texttt{b\_getval(+Name, -Value)}

Get the value associated with the global variable \textit{Name} and unify it with \textit{Value}. Note that this unification may further instantiate the value of the global variable. If this is undesirable the normal precautions (double negation or \texttt{copy\_term/2}) must be taken. The \texttt{b\_getval/2} predicate generates errors if \textit{Name} is not an atom or the requested variable does not exist.

\texttt{nb\_setval(+Name, +Value)}

Associates a copy of \textit{Value} created with \texttt{duplicate\_term/2} with the atom \textit{Name}. Note that this can be used to set an initial value other than \texttt{[]} prior to backtrackable assignment.

\texttt{nb\_getval(+Name, -Value)}

The \texttt{nb\_getval/2} predicate is a synonym for \texttt{b\_getval/2}, introduced for compatibility and symmetry. As most scenarios will use a particular global variable either using non-backtrackable or backtrackable assignment, using \texttt{nb\_getval/2} can be used to document that the variable is used non-backtrackable.

\texttt{nb\_linkval(+Name, +Value)}

Associates the term \textit{Value} with the atom \textit{Name} without copying it. This is a fast special-purpose variation of \texttt{nb\_setval/2} intended for expert users only because the semantics on backtracking to a point before creating the link are poorly defined for compound terms. The principal term is always left untouched, but backtracking behaviour on arguments is undone if the original assignment was \textit{trailed} and left alone otherwise, which implies that the history that created the term affects the behaviour on backtracking. Please consider the following example:

\begin{verbatim}
demo_nb_linkval :-
    T = nice(N),
    ( N = world,
    nb_linkval(myvar, T),
    fail
    ;
    nb_getval(myvar, V),
    writeln(V)
).
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{nb\_current(?Name, ?Value)}

Enumerate all defined variables with their value. The order of enumeration is undefined.

\texttt{nb\_delete(+Name)}

Delete the named global variable.

6.3.1 Compatibility of SWI-Prolog Global Variables

Global variables have been introduced by various Prolog implementations recently. The implementation of them in SWI-Prolog is based on hProlog by Bart Demoen. In discussion with Bart it was decided that the semantics if hProlog \texttt{nb\_setval/2}, which is equivalent to \texttt{nb\_linkval/2} is not acceptable for normal Prolog users as the behaviour is influenced by how built-in predicates constructing terms (\texttt{read/1}, \texttt{=../2}, etc.) are implemented.

GNU-Prolog provides a rich set of global variables, including arrays. Arrays can be implemented easily in SWI-Prolog using \texttt{functor/3} and \texttt{setarg/3} due to the unrestricted arity of compound terms.
7.1 Introduction

Constraint Handling Rules (CHR) is a committed-choice rule-based language embedded in Prolog. It is designed for writing constraint solvers and is particularly useful for providing application-specific constraints. It has been used in many kinds of applications, like scheduling, model checking, abduction, type checking among many others.

CHR has previously been implemented in other Prolog systems (SICStus, Eclipse, Yap), Haskell and Java. This CHR system is based on the compilation scheme and runtime environment of CHR in SICStus.

In this documentation we restrict ourselves to giving a short overview of CHR in general and mainly focus on elements specific to this implementation. For a more thorough review of CHR we refer the reader to [Frühwirth, 1998]. More background on CHR can be found at [Frühwirth, ].

In section 7.2 we present the syntax of CHR in Prolog and explain informally its operational semantics. Next, section 7.3 deals with practical issues of writing and compiling Prolog programs containing CHR. Section 7.4 explains the currently primitive CHR debugging facilities. Section 7.4.3 provides a few useful predicates to inspect the constraint store and section 7.5 illustrates CHR with two example programs. In section 7.6 some compatibility issues with older versions of this system and SICStus’ CHR system. Finally, section 7.7 concludes with a few practical guidelines for using CHR.

7.2 Syntax and Semantics

7.2.1 Syntax

The syntax of CHR rules is the following:
7.2. SYNTAX AND SEMANTICS

rules --> rule, rules.
rules --> [].

rule --> name, actual_rule, pragma, [atom(‘.’)].

name --> atom, [atom(‘@’)].
name --> [].

actual_rule --> simplification_rule.
actual_rule --> propagation_rule.
actual_rule --> simpagation_rule.

simplification_rule --> head, [atom(‘<=>’)], guard, body.
propagation_rule --> head, [atom(‘==’)], guard, body.
simpagation_rule --> head, [atom(‘\’)], head, [atom(‘<=>’)], guard, body.

head --> constraints.

constraints --> constraint, constraint_id.
constraints --> constraint, constraint_id, [atom(‘,’)], constraints.

constraint --> compound_term.

constraint_id --> [].
constraint_id --> [atom('#')], variable.
constraint_id --> [atom('#')], [atom('passive')].

guard --> [].
guard --> goal, [atom('|')].

body --> goal.

pragma --> [].
pragma --> [atom('pragma')], actual_pragmas.

actual_pragmas --> actualPragma.
actual_pragmas --> actualPragma, [atom(‘,’)], actual_pragmas.

actualPragma --> [atom('passive(')], variable, [atom(')')]].

Note that the guard of a rule may not contain any goal that binds a variable in the head of the rule with a non-variable or with another variable in the head of the rule. It may however bind variables that do not appear in the head of the rule, e.g. an auxiliary variable introduced in the guard.
7.2.2 Semantics

In this subsection the operational semantics of CHR in Prolog are presented informally. They do not differ essentially from other CHR systems.

When a constraint is called, it is considered an active constraint and the system will try to apply the rules to it. Rules are tried and executed sequentially in the order they are written.

A rule is conceptually tried for an active constraint in the following way. The active constraint is matched with a constraint in the head of the rule. If more constraints appear in the head they are looked for among the suspended constraints, which are called passive constraints in this context. If the necessary passive constraints can be found and all match with the head of the rule and the guard of the rule succeeds, then the rule is committed and the body of the rule executed. If not all the necessary passive constraint can be found, the matching fails or the guard fails, then the body is not executed and the process of trying and executing simply continues with the following rules. If for a rule, there are multiple constraints in the head, the active constraint will try the rule sequentially multiple times, each time trying to match with another constraint.

This process ends either when the active constraint disappears, i.e. it is removed by some rule, or after the last rule has been processed. In the latter case the active constraint becomes suspended.

A suspended constraint is eligible as a passive constraint for an active constraint. The other way it may interact again with the rules, is when a variable appearing in the constraint becomes bound to either a non-variable or another variable involved in one or more constraints. In that case the constraint is triggered, i.e. it becomes an active constraint and all the rules are tried.

Rule Types

There are three different kinds of rules, each with their specific semantics:

- *simplification*
  The simplification rule removes the constraints in its head and calls its body.

- *propagation*
  The propagation rule calls its body exactly once for the constraints in its head.

- *simpagation*
  The simpagation rule removes the constraints in its head after the \ and then calls its body. It is an optimization of simplification rules of the form:

  \[ constraints_1, constraints_2 \Leftrightarrow constraints_1, body \]

  Namely, in the simpagation form:

  \[ constraints_1\backslash constraints_2 \Leftrightarrow body \]

  The \( constraints_1 \) constraints are not called in the body.

Rule Names

Naming a rule is optional and has no semantical meaning. It only functions as documentation for the programmer.

Pragmas

The semantics of the pragmas are:

- **passive(Identifier)**
  The constraint in the head of a rule Identifier can only match a passive constraint in that rule. There is an abbreviated syntax for this pragma. Instead of:
you can also write

\[
..., c \# \text{passive}, ... \iff ...
\]

Additional pragmas may be released in the future.

\[\text{:- chr\_option}(+\text{Option, } +\text{Value})\]

It is possible to specify options that apply to all the CHR rules in the module. Options are specified with the \texttt{chr\_option/2} declaration:

\[
\text{:- chr\_option(Option,Value).}
\]

and may appear in the file anywhere after the first constraints declaration.

Available options are:

- **check\_guard\_bindings**
  This option controls whether guards should be checked for (illegal) variable bindings or not. Possible values for this option are on, to enable the checks, and off, to disable the checks. If this option is on, any guard fails when it binds a variable that appears in the head of the rule. When the option is off (default), the behavior of a binding in the guard is undefined.

- **optimize**
  This option controls the degree of optimization. Possible values are full, to enable all available optimizations, and off (default), to disable all optimizations. The default is derived from the SWI-Prolog flag \texttt{optimise}, where true is mapped to full. Therefore the command-line option \texttt{-O} provides full CHR optimization. If optimization is enabled, debugging must be disabled.

- **debug**
  This option enables or disables the possibility to debug the CHR code. Possible values are on (default) and off. See section 7.4 for more details on debugging. The default is derived from the Prolog flag \texttt{generate\_debug\_info}, which is true by default. See \texttt{-nodebug}. If debugging is enabled, optimization must be disabled.

7.3 **CHR in SWI-Prolog Programs**

7.3.1 **Embedding in Prolog Programs**

The CHR constraints defined in a \texttt{.pl} file are associated with a module. The default module is \texttt{user}. One should never load different \texttt{.pl} files with the same CHR module name.
7.3.2 Constraint declaration

:- chr_constraint(+Specifier)

Every constraint used in CHR rules has to be declared with a chr_constraint/1 declaration by the constraint specifier. For convenience multiple constraints may be declared at once with the same chr_constraint/1 declaration followed by a comma-separated list of constraint specifiers.

A constraint specifier is, in its compact form, $F/A$ where $F$ and $A$ are respectively the functor name and arity of the constraint, e.g.:

```prolog
:- chr_constraint foo/1.
:- chr_constraint bar/2, baz/3.
```

In its extended form, a constraint specifier is $c(A_1, \ldots, A_n)$ where $c$ is the constraint’s functor, $n$ its arity and the $A_i$ are argument specifiers. An argument specifier is a mode, optionally followed by a type. E.g.

```prolog
:- chr_constraint get_value(+,?).
:- chr_constraint domain(?int, +list(int)),
      alldifferent(?list(int)).
```

**Modes** A mode is one of:

- The corresponding argument of every occurrence of the constraint is always unbound.

- The corresponding argument of every occurrence of the constraint is always ground.

- The corresponding argument of every occurrence of the constraint can have any instantiation, which may change over time. This is the default value.

**Types** A type can be a user-defined type or one of the built-in types. A type comprises a (possibly infinite) set of values. The type declaration for a constraint argument means that for every instance of that constraint the corresponding argument is only ever bound to values in that set. It does not state that the argument necessarily has to be bound to a value.

The built-in types are:

- int
  The corresponding argument of every occurrence of the constraint is an integer number.

- dense_int
  The corresponding argument of every occurrence of the constraint is an integer that can be used as an array index. Note that if this argument takes values in $[0, n]$, the array takes $O(n)$ space.

- float
  ... a floating point number.
number
    ...a number.

natural
    ...a positive integer.

any
    The corresponding argument of every occurrence of the constraint can have any type. This is
    the default value.

:- chr_type(+TypeDeclaration)
    User-defined types are algebraic data types, similar to those in Haskell or the discriminated
    unions in Mercury. An algebraic data type is defined using chr_type/1:

    :- chr_type type ---> body.

If the type term is a functor of arity zero (i.e. one having zero arguments), it names a monomorphic
type. Otherwise, it names a polymorphic type; the arguments of the functor must be distinct
type variables. The body term is defined as a sequence of constructor definitions separated by
semi-colons.

Each constructor definition must be a functor whose arguments (if any) are types. Discriminated
union definitions must be transparent: all type variables occurring in the body must also occur
in the type.

Here are some examples of algebraic data type definitions:

    :- chr_type color ---> red ; blue ; yellow ; green.
    :- chr_type tree ---> empty ; leaf(int) ; branch(tree, tree).
    :- chr_type list(T) ---> [] ; [T | list(T)].
    :- chr_type pair(T1, T2) ---> (T1 - T2).

Each algebraic data type definition introduces a distinct type. Two algebraic data types that
have the same bodies are considered to be distinct types (name equivalence).

Constructors may be overloaded among different types: there may be any number of construc-
tors with a given name and arity, so long as they all have different types.

Aliases can be defined using ==. For example, if your program uses lists of lists of integers,
you can define an alias as follows:

    :- chr_type lli == list(list(int)).
Type Checking  

Currently two complementary forms of type checking are performed:

1. Static type checking is always performed by the compiler. It is limited to CHR rule heads and CHR constraint calls in rule bodies.

Two kinds of type error are detected. The first is where a variable has to belong to two types. For example, in the program:

```
:-chr_type foo ---> foo.
:-chr_type bar ---> bar.

:-chr_constraint abc(?foo).
:-chr_constraint def(?bar).

foobar @ abc(X) <=> def(X).
```

the variable \( X \) has to be of both type \( \text{foo} \) and \( \text{bar} \). This is reported by the type clash error:

```
CHR compiler ERROR:

‘---> Type clash for variable _G5398 in rule foobar:
  expected type foo in body goal def(_G5398, _G5448)
  expected type bar in head def(_G5448, _G5398)
```

The second kind of error is where a functor is used that does not belong to the declared type. For example in:

```
:-chr_type foo ---> foo.
:-chr_type bar ---> bar.

:-chr_constraint abc(?foo).

foo @ abc(bar) <=> true.
```

in the head of the rule \( \text{bar} \) appears where something of type \( \text{foo} \) is expected. This is reported as:

```
CHR compiler ERROR:

‘---> Invalid functor in head abc(bar) of rule foo:
  found ‘bar’,
  expected type ‘foo’!
```

No runtime overhead is incurred in static type checking.

2. Dynamic type checking checks at runtime, during program execution, whether the arguments of CHR constraints respect their declared types. The when/2 co-routining library is used to delay dynamic type checks until variables are instantiated.

The kind of error detected by dynamic type checking is where a functor is used that does not belong to the declared type. E.g. for the program:
we get the following error in an erroneous query:

?- abc(bar).
ERROR: Type error: ‘foo’ expected, found ‘bar’ (CHR Runtime Type Error)

Dynamic type checking is weaker than static type checking in the sense that it only checks the particular program execution at hand rather than all possible executions. It is stronger in the sense that it tracks types throughout the whole program.

Note that it is enabled only in debug mode, as it incurs some (minor) runtime overhead.

### 7.3.3 Compilation

The SWI-Prolog CHR compiler exploits `term_expansion/2` rules to translate the constraint handling rules to plain Prolog. These rules are loaded from the library `chr`. They are activated if the compiled file has the `.chr` extension or after finding a declaration of the format below.

```prolog
:- chr_constraint ... 
```

It is advised to define CHR rules in a module file, where the module declaration is immediately followed by including the library(chr) library as exemplified below:

```prolog
:- module(zebra, [ zebra/0 ]).
:- use_module(library(chr)).
:- chr_constraint ... 
```

Using this style CHR rules can be defined in ordinary Prolog `.pl` files and the operator definitions required by CHR do not leak into modules where they might cause conflicts.

### 7.4 Debugging

The CHR debugging facilities are currently rather limited. Only tracing is currently available. To use the CHR debugging facilities for a CHR file it must be compiled for debugging. Generating debug info is controlled by the CHR option `debug`, whose default is derived from the SWI-Prolog flag `generate_debug_info`. Therefore debug info is provided unless the `-nodebug` is used.

#### 7.4.1 Ports

For CHR constraints the four standard ports are defined:

- **call**
  A new constraint is called and becomes active.
exit
An active constraint exits: it has either been inserted in the store after trying all rules or has been removed from the constraint store.

fail
An active constraint fails.

redo
An active constraint starts looking for an alternative solution.

In addition to the above ports, CHR constraints have five additional ports:

wake
A suspended constraint is woken and becomes active.

insert
An active constraint has tried all rules and is suspended in the constraint store.

remove
An active or passive constraint is removed from the constraint store.

try
An active constraints tries a rule with possibly some passive constraints. The try port is entered just before committing to the rule.

apply
An active constraints commits to a rule with possibly some passive constraints. The apply port is entered just after committing to the rule.

7.4.2 Tracing

Tracing is enabled with the chr_trace/0 predicate and disabled with the chr_notrace/0 predicate.

When enabled the tracer will step through the call, exit, fail, wake and apply ports, accepting debug commands, and simply write out the other ports.

The following debug commands are currently supported:

CHR debug options:

<cr> creep c creep
s skip
G ancestors
n nodebug
b break
a abort
f fail
? help h help

Their meaning is:
7.4. DEBUGGING

creep
   Step to the next port.

skip
   Skip to exit port of this call or wake port.

ancestors
   Print list of ancestor call and wake ports.

nodebug
   Disable the tracer.

break
   Enter a recursive Prolog top-level. See break/0.

abort
   Exit to the top-level. See abort/0.

fail
   Insert failure in execution.

help
   Print the above available debug options.

7.4.3 CHR Debugging Predicates

The chr module contains several predicates that allow inspecting and printing the content of the constraint store.

chr_trace
   Activate the CHR tracer. By default the CHR tracer is activated and deactivated automatically by the Prolog predicates trace/0 and notrace/0.

chr_notrace
   De-activate the CHR tracer. By default the CHR tracer is activated and deactivated automatically by the Prolog predicates trace/0 and notrace/0.

chr_leash(+Spec)
   Define the set of CHR ports on which the CHR tracer asks for user intervention (i.e. stops). Spec is either a list of ports as defined in section 7.4.1 or a predefined ‘alias’. Defined aliases are: full to stop at all ports, none or off to never stop, and default to stop at the call, exit, fail, wake and apply ports. See also leash/1.

chr_show_store(+Mod)
   Prints all suspended constraints of module Mod to the standard output. This predicate is automatically called by the SWI-Prolog top-level at the end of each query for every CHR module currently loaded. The Prolog flag chr_toplevel_show_store controls whether the top-level shows the constraint stores. The value true enables it. Any other value disables it.

find_chr_constraint(-Constraint)
   Returns a constraint in the constraint store. Via backtracking, all constraints in the store can be enumerated.
7.5 Examples

Here are two example constraint solvers written in CHR.

- The program below defines a solver with one constraint, `leq/2/`, which is a less-than-or-equal constraint, also known as a partial order constraint.

```prolog
:- module(leq, [leq/2]).
:- use_module(library(chr)).
:- 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).
```

When the above program is saved in a file and loaded in SWI-Prolog, you can call the `leq/2` constraints in a query, e.g.:

```prolog
?- leq(X,Y), leq(Y,Z).
leq(_G23837, _G23841)
leq(_G23838, _G23841)
leq(_G23837, _G23838)

X = _G23837{leq = ...}
Y = _G23838{leq = ...}
Z = _G23841{leq = ...}

Yes
```

When the query succeeds, the SWI-Prolog top-level prints the content of the CHR constraint store and displays the bindings generated during the query. Some of the query variables may have been bound to attributed variables, as you see in the above example.

- The program below implements a simple finite domain constraint solver.

```prolog
:- module(dom, [dom/2]).
:- use_module(library(chr)).
:- chr_constraint dom(?int,+list(int)).
:- chr_type list(T) ---> [] ; [T|list(T)].
dom(X,[]) <=> fail.
dom(X,[Y]) <=> X = Y.
dom(X,L) <=> nonvar(X) | memberchk(X,L).
dom(X,L1), dom(X,L2) <=> intersection(L1,L2,L3), dom(X,L3).
```
When the above program is saved in a file and loaded in SWI-Prolog, you can call the `dom/2` constraints in a query, e.g.:

```
?- dom(A, [1,2,3]), dom(A, [3,4,5]).
A = 3
Yes
```

### 7.6 Backwards Compatibility

#### 7.6.1 The Old SICStus CHR implementation

There are small differences between the current K.U.Leuven CHR system in SWI-Prolog, older versions of the same system and SICStus’ CHR system.

The current system maps old syntactic elements onto new ones and ignores a number of no longer required elements. However, for each a *deprecated* warning is issued. You are strongly urged to replace or remove deprecated features.

Besides differences in available options and pragmas, the following differences should be noted:

- **The `constraints/1` declaration**
  This declaration is deprecated. It has been replaced with the `chr_constraint/1` declaration.

- **The `option/2` declaration**
  This declaration is deprecated. It has been replaced with the `chr_option/2` declaration.

- **The `handler/1` declaration**
  In SICStus every CHR module requires a `handler/1` declaration declaring a unique handler name. This declaration is valid syntax in SWI-Prolog, but will have no effect. A warning will be given during compilation.

- **The `rules/1` declaration**
  In SICStus, for every CHR module it is possible to only enable a subset of the available rules through the `rules/1` declaration. The declaration is valid syntax in SWI-Prolog, but has no effect. A warning is given during compilation.

- **Guard bindings**
  The `check_guard_bindings` option only turns invalid calls to unification into failure. In SICStus this option does more: it intercepts instantiation errors from Prolog built-ins such as `is/2` and turns them into failure. In SWI-Prolog, we do not go this far, as we like to separate concerns more. The CHR compiler is aware of the CHR code, the Prolog system and programmer should be aware of the appropriate meaning of the Prolog goals used in guards and bodies of CHR rules.
7.6.2 The Old ECLiPSe CHR implemenation

The old ECLiPSe CHR implementations features a `label_with/1` construct for labeling variables in CHR constraints. This feature has long since been abandoned. However, a simple transformation is all that is required to port the functionality.

```prolog
label_with Constraint1 if Condition1.
...
lable_with ConstraintN if ConditionN.
Constraint1 :- Body1.
...
ConstraintN :- BodyN.
```

is transformed into

```prolog
:- chr_constraint my_labeling/0.
my_labeling \ Constraint1 <=> Condition1 | Body1.
...
my_labeling \ ConstraintN <=> ConditionN | BodyN.
my_labeling <=> true.
```

Be sure to put this code after all other rules in your program! With `my_labeling/0` (or another predicate name of your choosing) the labeling is initiated, rather than ECLiPSe’s `chr_labeling/0`.

7.7 Programming Tips and Tricks

In this section we cover several guidelines on how to use CHR to write constraint solvers and how to do so efficiently.

- **Check guard bindings yourself**
  It is considered bad practice to write guards that bind variables of the head and to rely on the system to detect this at runtime. It is inefficient and obscures the working of the program.

- **Set semantics**
  The CHR system allows the presence of identical constraints, i.e. multiple constraints with the same functor, arity and arguments. For most constraint solvers, this is not desirable: it affects efficiency and possibly termination. Hence appropriate simpagation rules should be added of the form:

  \[
  \text{constraint} \ \text{\textbackslash constraint} \ <=> \text{true}
  \]

- **Multi-headed rules**
  Multi-headed rules are executed more efficiently when the constraints share one or more variables.

- **Mode and type declarations**
  Provide mode and type declarations to get more efficient program execution. Make sure to disable debug (`-nodebug`) and enable optimization (`-O`).

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
7.8. COMPILER ERRORS AND WARNINGS

• Compile once, run many times
  Does consulting your CHR program take a long time in SWI-Prolog? Probably it takes the CHR compiler a long time to compile the CHR rules into Prolog code. When you disable optimizations the CHR compiler will be a lot quicker, but you may loose performance. Alternatively, you can just use SWI-Prolog’s `qcompile/1` to generate a `.qlf` file once from your `.pl` file. This `.qlf` contains the generated code of the CHR compiler (be it in a binary format). When you consult the `.qlf` file, the CHR compiler is not invoked and consultation is much faster.

• Finding Constraints
  The `find_chr_constraint/1` predicate is fairly expensive. Avoid it, if possible. If you must use it, try to use it with an instantiated toplevel constraint symbol.

7.8 Compiler Errors and Warnings

In this section we summarize the most important error and warning messages of the CHR compiler.

7.8.1 CHR Compiler Errors

Type clash for variable ... in rule ...
  This error indicates an inconsistency between declared types; a variable should belong to two types. See static type checking.

Invalid functor in head ... of rule ...
  This error indicates an inconsistency between a declared type and the use of a functor in a rule. See static type checking.

Cyclic alias definition: ... == ...
  You have defined a type alias in terms of itself, either directly or indirectly.

Ambiguous type aliases You have defined two overlapping type aliases.

Multiple definitions for type
  You have defined the same type multiple times.

Non-ground type in constraint definition: ...
  You have declared a non-ground type for a constraint argument.

Could not find type definition for ...
  You have used an undefined type in a type declaration.

Illegal mode/type declaration You have used invalid syntax in a constraint declaration.

Constraint multiply defined There is more than one declaration for the same constraint.

Undeclared constraint ... in head of ...
  You have used an undeclared constraint in the head of a rule. This often indicates a misspelled constrained name or wrong number of arguments.
Invalid pragma  ... in ... Pragma should not be a variable.
      You have used a variable as a pragma in a rule. This is not allowed.

Invalid identifier ... in pragma passive in ...
      You have used an identifier in a passive pragma that does not correspond to an identifier in the
      head of the rule. Likely the identifier name is misspelled.

Unknown pragma ... in ...
      You have used an unknown pragma in a rule. Likely the pragma is misspelled or not supported.

Something unexpected happened in the CHR compiler
      You have most likely bumped into a bug in the CHR compiler. Please contact Tom Schrijvers
      to notify him of this error.
Multi-threaded applications

SWI-Prolog multithreading is based on standard C-language multithreading support. It is not like ParLog or other parallel implementations of the Prolog language. Prolog threads have their own stacks and only share the Prolog heap: predicates, records, flags and other global non-backtrackable data. SWI-Prolog thread support is designed with the following goals in mind.

- **Multi-threaded server applications**
  Today's computing services often focus on (internet) server applications. Such applications often have need for communication between services and/or fast non-blocking service to multiple concurrent clients. The shared heap provides fast communication and thread creation is relatively cheap.\(^1\)

- **Interactive applications**
  Interactive applications often need to perform extensive computation. If such computations are executed in a new thread, the main thread can process events and allow the user to cancel the ongoing computation. User interfaces can also use multiple threads, each thread dealing with input from a distinct group of windows. See also section 8.8.

- **Natural integration with foreign code**
  Each Prolog thread runs in a native thread of the operating system, automatically making them cooperate with MT-safe foreign-code. In addition, any foreign thread can create its own Prolog engine for dealing with calling Prolog from C-code.

SWI-Prolog multi-threading is based on the POSIX thread standard [Butenhof, 1997] used on most popular systems except for MS-Windows. On Windows it uses the pthread-win32 emulation of POSIX threads mixed with the Windows native API for smoother and faster operation.

### 8.1 Creating and destroying Prolog threads

**thread_create(:Goal, -Id, +Options)**
Create a new Prolog thread (and underlying C-thread) and start it by executing Goal. If the thread is created successfully, the thread-identifier of the created thread is unified to Id. Options is a list of options. The currently defined options are below. Stack size options can also take the value inf or infinite, which is mapped to the maximum stack size supported by the platform.

**alias(AliasName)**
Associate an ‘alias-name’ with the thread. This named may be used to refer to the thread and remains valid until the thread is joined (see thread_join/2).

\(^1\)On an dual AMD-Athlon 1600, SWI-Prolog 5.1.0 creates and joins 4,957 threads per second elapsed time.
at_exit(:AtExit)
Register AtExit as using thread_at_exit/1 before entering the thread goal. Unlike calling thread_at_exit/1 as part of the normal Goal, this ensures the Goal is called. Using thread_at_exit/1, the thread may be signalled or run out of resources before thread_at_exit/1 is reached.
detached(Bool)
If false (default), the thread can be waited for using thread_join/2. thread_join/2 must be called on this thread to reclaim all resources associated with the thread. If true, the system will reclaim all associated resources automatically after the thread finishes. Please note that thread identifiers are freed for reuse after a detached thread finishes or a normal thread has been joined. See also thread_join/2 and thread_detach/1.

If a detached thread dies due to failure or exception of the initial goal the thread prints a message using print_message/2. If such termination is considered normal, the code must be wrapped using ignore/1 and/or catch/3 to ensure successful completion.
global(K-Bytes)
Set the limit to which the global stack of this thread may grow. If omitted, the limit of the calling thread is used. See also the -G command-line option.
local(K-Bytes)
Set the limit to which the local stack of this thread may grow. If omitted, the limit of the calling thread is used. See also the -L command-line option.
c_stack(K-Bytes)
Set the limit to which the system stack of this thread may grow. The default, minimum and maximum values are system-dependent.\textsuperscript{2}
trail(K-Bytes)
Set the limit to which the trail stack of this thread may grow. If omitted, the limit of the calling thread is used. See also the -T command-line option.

The Goal argument is copied to the new Prolog engine. This implies further instantiation of this term in either thread does not have consequences for the other thread: Prolog threads do not share data from their stacks.

thread_self(-Id)
Get the Prolog thread identifier of the running thread. If the thread has an alias, the alias-name is returned.

thread_join(+Id, -Status)
Wait for the termination of thread with given Id. Then unify the result-status of the thread with Status. After this call, Id becomes invalid and all resources associated with the thread are reclaimed. Note that threads with the attribute detached(true) cannot be joined. See also thread_property/2.

A thread that has been completed without thread_join/2 being called on it is partly reclaimed: the Prolog stacks are released and the C-thread is destroyed. A small data-structure representing the exit-status of the thread is retained until thread_join/2 is called on the thread. Defined values for Status are:

\textsuperscript{2}Older versions used stack. This is still accepted as a synonym.
true
The goal has been proven successfully.

false
The goal has failed.

exception(Term)
The thread is terminated on an exception. See print_message/2 to turn system exceptions into readable messages.

exited(Term)
The thread is terminated on thread_exit/1 using the argument Term.

thread_detach(+Id)
Switch thread into detached-state (see detached(Boolean) option at thread_create/3) at runtime. Id is the identifier of the thread placed in detached state. This may be the result of thread_self/1.

One of the possible applications is to simplify debugging. Threads that are created as detached leave no traces if they crash. For not-detached threads the status can be inspected using thread_property/2. Threads nobody is waiting for may be created normally and detach themselves just before completion. This way they leave no traces on normal completion and their reason for failure can be inspected.

thread_exit(+Term) [deprecated]
Terminates the thread immediately, leaving exited(Term) as result-state for thread_join/2. If the thread has the attribute detached(true) it terminates, but its exit status cannot be retrieved using thread_join/2 making the value of Term irrelevant. The Prolog stacks and C-thread are reclaimed.

The current implementation does not guarantee proper releasing of all mutexes and proper cleanup in setup_call_cleanup/3, etc. Please use the exception mechanism (throw/1) to abort execution using non-standard control.

thread_initialization(:Goal)
Run Goal when thread is started. This predicate is similar to initialization/1, but is intended for initialization operations of the runtime stacks, such as setting global variables as described in section 6.3. Goal is run on four occasions: at the call to this predicate, after loading a saved state, on starting a new thread and on creating a Prolog engine through the C interface. On loading a saved state, Goal is executed after running the initialization/1 hooks.

thread_at_exit(:Goal)
Run Goal just before releasing the thread resources. This is to be compared to at_halt/1, but only for the current thread. These hooks are run regardless of why the execution of the thread has been completed. As these hooks are run, the return-code is already available through thread_property/2 using the result of thread_self/1 as thread-identifier. See also the at_exit(Goal) argument of thread_create/3.

thread_setconcurrency(-Old, +New)
Determine the concurrency of the process, which is defined as the maximum number of concurrently active threads. ‘Active’ here means they are using CPU time. This option is provided
if the thread-implementation provides pthread_setconcurrency(). Solaris is a typical example of this family. On other systems this predicate unifies Old to 0 (zero) and succeeds silently.

8.2 Monitoring threads

Normal multi-threaded applications should not need the predicates from this section because almost any usage of these predicates is unsafe. For example checking the existence of a thread before signalling it is of no use as it may vanish between the two calls. Catching exceptions using catch/3 is the only safe way to deal with thread-existence errors.

These predicates are provided for diagnosis and monitoring tasks. See also section 8.5, describing more high-level primitives.

\texttt{thread\_property(?Id, ?Property)}

True if thread \texttt{Id} has \texttt{Property}. Either or both arguments may be unbound, enumerating all relations on backtracking. Calling \texttt{thread\_property/2} does not influence any thread. See also \texttt{thread\_join/2}. For threads that have an alias-name, this name is returned in \texttt{Id} instead of the numerical thread identifier. Defined properties are:

\texttt{alias(Alias)}

\texttt{Alias} is the alias name of thread \texttt{Id}.

\texttt{detached(Boolean)}

Current detached status of the thread.

\texttt{status(Status)}

Current status of the thread. \texttt{Status} is one of:

\texttt{running}

The thread is running. This is the initial status of a thread. Please note that threads waiting for something are considered running too.

\texttt{false}

The \texttt{Goal} of the thread has been completed and failed.

\texttt{true}

The \texttt{Goal} of the thread has been completed and succeeded.

\texttt{exited(Term)}

The \texttt{Goal} of the thread has been terminated using \texttt{thread\_exit/1} with \texttt{T}erm as argument. If the underlying native thread has exited (using pthread\_exit()) \texttt{T}erm is unbound.

\texttt{exception(Term)}

The \texttt{Goal} of the thread has been terminated due to an uncaught exception (see \texttt{throw/1} and \texttt{catch/3}).

\texttt{thread\_statistics(+Id, +Key, -Value)}

Obtains statistical information on thread \texttt{Id} as \texttt{statistics/2} does in single-threaded applications. This call supports all keys of \texttt{statistics/2}, although only stack sizes and CPU time yield different values for each thread.\footnote{Getting the CPU-time of a specific thread is not supported on all platforms. On some platforms it returns total process CPU time instead of the thread CPU time. Thread CPU time is supported on MS-Windows and most recent Linux versions.}
mutex_statistics
Print usage statistics on internal mutexes and mutexes associated with dynamic predicates. For each mutex two numbers are printed: the number of times the mutex was acquired and the number of collisions: the number times the calling thread has to wait for the mutex. The collision-count is not available on MS-Windows. Generally collision count is close to zero on single-CPU hardware.

8.3 Thread communication

8.3.1 Message queues

Prolog threads can exchange data using dynamic predicates, database records, and other globally shared data. These provide no suitable means to wait for data or a condition as they can only be checked in an expensive polling loop. Message queues provide a means for threads to wait for data or conditions without using the CPU.

Each thread has a message-queue attached to it that is identified by the thread. Additional queues are created using message_queue_create/1.

thread_send_message(+QueueOrThreadId, +Term)
Place Term in the given queue or default queue of the indicated thread (which can even be the message queue of itself, see thread_self/1). Any term can be placed in a message queue, but note that the term is copied to the receiving thread and variable-bindings are thus lost. This call returns immediately.

If more than one thread is waiting for messages on the given queue and at least one of these is waiting with a partially instantiated Term, the waiting threads are all sent a wake-up signal, starting a rush for the available messages in the queue. This behaviour can seriously harm performance with many threads waiting on the same queue as all-but-the-winner perform a useless scan of the queue. If there is only one waiting thread or all waiting threads wait with an unbound variable an arbitrary thread is restarted to scan the queue.4

thread_get_message(?Term)
Examines the thread message queue and if necessary blocks execution until a term that unifies to Term arrives in the queue. After a term from the queue has been unified to Term, the term is deleted from the queue.

Please note that not-unifying messages remain in the queue. After the following has been executed, thread 1 has the term b(gnu) in its queue and continues execution using A = gnat.

```
<thread 1>
thread_get_message(a(A)),

<thread 2>
thread_send_message(Thread_1, b(gnu)),
thread_send_message(Thread_1, a(gnat)),
```

4See the documentation for the POSIX thread functions pthread_cond_signal() v.s. pthread_cond_broadcast() for background information.
See also `thread_peek_message/1`.

**thread_peek_message(?Term)**
Examines the thread message-queue and compares the queued terms with `Term` until one unifies or the end of the queue has been reached. In the first case the call succeeds (possibly instantiating `Term`. If no term from the queue unifies this call fails.

**message_queue_create(?Queue)**
If `Queue` is an atom, create a named queue. To avoid ambiguity of `thread_send_message/2`, the name of a queue may not be in use as a thread-name. If `Queue` is unbound an anonymous queue is created and `Queue` is unified to its identifier.

**message_queue_create(-Queue, +Options)**
Create a message queue from `Options`. Defined options are:

- **alias(+Alias)**
  Same as `message_queue_create(Alias)`, but according to the ISO draft on Prolog threads.

- **max_size(+Size)**
  Maximum number of terms in the queue. If this number is reached, `thread_send_message/2` will suspend until the queue is drained. The option can be used if the source, sending messages to the queue, is faster than the drain, consuming the messages.

**message_queue_destroy(+Queue)**
Destroy a message queue created with `message_queue_create/1`. A permission error is raised if `Queue` refers to (the default queue of) a thread. Other threads are waiting for `Queue` using `thread_get_message/2` receive an existence error.

**thread_get_message(+Queue, ?Term)**
As `thread_get_message/1`, operating on a given queue. It is allowed (but not advised) to get messages from the queue of other threads.

**thread_peek_message(+Queue, ?Term)**
As `thread_peek_message/1`, operating on a given queue. It is allowed to peek into another thread’s message queue, an operation that can be used to check whether a thread has swallowed a message sent to it.

**message_queue_property(?Queue, ?Property)**
True if `Property` is a property of `Queue`. Defined properties are:

- **alias(Alias)**
  Queue has the given alias name.

- **size(Size)**
  Queue currently contains `Size` terms. Note that due to concurrent access the returned value may be outdated before it is returned. It can be used for debugging purposes as well as work distribution purposes.
Explicit message queues are designed with the worker-pool model in mind, where multiple threads wait on a single queue and pick up the first goal to execute. Below is a simple implementation where the workers execute arbitrary Prolog goals. Note that this example provides no means to tell when all work is done. This must be realised using additional synchronisation.

```prolog
% create_workers(+Id, +N)
% Create a pool with given Id and number of workers.
create_workers(Id, N) :-
    message_queue_create(Id),
    forall(between(1, N,_),
        thread_create(do_work(Id),_,[])).

do_work(Id) :-
    repeat,
        thread_get_message(Id, Goal),
        ( catch(Goal, E, print_message(error, E))
            -> true
            ; print_message(error, goal_failed(Goal, worker(Id)))
        ),
    fail.

% work(+Id, +Goal)
% Post work to be done by the pool
work(Id, Goal) :-
    thread_send_message(Id, Goal).
```

### 8.3.2 Signalling threads

These predicates provide a mechanism to make another thread execute some goal as an *interrupt*. Signalling threads is safe as these interrupts are only checked at safe points in the virtual machine. Nevertheless, signalling in multi-threaded environments should be handled with care as the receiving thread may hold a mutex (see with_mutex). Signalling probably only makes sense to start debugging threads and to cancel no-longer-needed threads with `throw/1`, where the receiving thread should be designed carefully to handle exceptions at any point.

```
thread_signal(+ThreadId, :Goal)
Make thread ThreadId execute Goal at the first opportunity. In the current implementation, this implies at the first pass through the Call-port. The predicate `thread_signal/2` itself places Goal into the signalled-thread’s signal queue and returns immediately.

Signals (interrupts) do not cooperate well with the world of multi-threading, mainly because the status of mutexes cannot be guaranteed easily. At the call-port, the Prolog virtual machine holds no locks and therefore the asynchronous execution is safe.
```
Goal can be any valid Prolog goal, including throw/1 to make the receiving thread generate an exception and trace/0 to start tracing the receiving thread.

In the Windows version, the receiving thread immediately executes the signal if it reaches a Windows GetMessage() call, which generally happens if the thread is waiting for (user-)input.

### 8.3.3 Threads and dynamic predicates

Besides queues (section 8.3.1) threads can share and exchange data using dynamic predicates. The multi-threaded version knows about two types of dynamic predicates. By default, a predicate declared as dynamic (see dynamic/1) is shared by all threads. Each thread may assert, retract and run the dynamic predicate. Synchronisation inside Prolog guarantees the consistency of the predicate. Updates are logical: visible clauses are not affected by assert/retract after a query started on the predicate. In many cases primitives from section 8.4 should be used to ensure that application invariants on the predicate are maintained.

Besides shared predicates, dynamic predicates can be declared with the thread_local/1 directive. Such predicates share their attributes, but the clause-list is different in each thread.

```prolog
thread_local +Functor+/+Arity, ... 
```

This directive is related to the dynamic/1 directive. It tells the system that the predicate may be modified using assert/1, retract/1, etc. during execution of the program. Unlike normal shared dynamic data however each thread has its own clause-list for the predicate. As a thread starts, this clause list is empty. If there are still clauses when the thread terminates, these are automatically reclaimed by the system (see also volatile/1). The thread_local property implies the properties dynamic and volatile.

Thread-local dynamic predicates are intended for maintaining thread-specific state or intermediate results of a computation.

It is not recommended to put clauses for a thread-local predicate into a file as in the example below because the clause is only visible from the thread that loaded the source-file. All other threads start with an empty clause-list.

```prolog
:- thread_local 
    foo/1.  

foo(gnat).
```

**DISCLAIMER** Whether or not this declaration is appropriate in the sense of the proper mechanism to reach the goal is still debated. If you have strong feeling in favour or against, please share them in the SWI-Prolog mailing list.

### 8.4 Thread synchronisation

All internal Prolog operations are thread-safe. This implies two Prolog threads can operate on the same dynamic predicate without corrupting the consistency of the predicate. This section deals with user-level mutexes (called monitors in ADA or critical-sections by Microsoft). A mutex is a MUTual EXclusive device, which implies at most one thread can hold a mutex.
8.4. THREAD SYNCHRONISATION

Mutexes are used to realise related updates to the Prolog database. With ‘related’, we refer to the situation where a ‘transaction’ implies two or more changes to the Prolog database. For example, we have a predicate `address/2`, representing the address of a person and we want to change the address by retracting the old and asserting the new address. Between these two operations the database is invalid: this person has either no address or two addresses, depending on the assert/retract order.

Here is how to realise a correct update:

```prolog
:- initialization
    mutex_create(addressbook).

change_address(Id, Address) :-
    mutex_lock(addressbook),
    retractall(address(Id, _)),
    asserta(address(Id, Address)),
    mutex_unlock(addressbook).
```

`mutex_create(?MutexId)`
Create a mutex. If `MutexId` is an atom, a named mutex is created. If it is a variable, an anonymous mutex reference is returned. There is no limit to the number of mutexes that can be created.

`mutex_create(-MutexId, +Options)`
Create a mutex using options. Defined options are:

- `alias(Alias)`
  Set the alias name. Using `mutex_create(X, [alias(name)])` is preferred over the equivalent `mutex_create(name)`.

`mutex_destroy(+MutexId)`
Destroy a mutex. After this call, `MutexId` becomes invalid and further references yield an existence_error exception.

`with_mutex(+MutexId, :Goal)`
Execute `Goal` while holding `MutexId`. If `Goal` leaves choice-points, these are destroyed (as in `once/1`). The mutex is unlocked regardless of whether `Goal` succeeds, fails or raises an exception. An exception thrown by `Goal` is re-thrown after the mutex has been successfully unlocked. See also `mutex_create/1` and `setup_call_cleanup/3`.

Although described in the thread-section, this predicate is also available in the single-threaded version, where it behaves simply as `once/1`.

`mutex_lock(+MutexId)`
Lock the mutex. Prolog mutexes are recursive mutexes: they can be locked multiple times by the same thread. Only after unlocking it as many times as it is locked, the mutex becomes available for locking by other threads. If another thread has locked the mutex the calling thread is suspended until mutex is unlocked.

If `MutexId` is an atom, and there is no current mutex with that name, the mutex is created automatically using `mutex_create/1`. This implies named mutexes need not be declared explicitly.
Please note that locking and unlocking mutexes should be paired carefully. Especially make sure to unlock mutexes even if the protected code fails or raises an exception. For most common cases use `with_mutex/2`, which provides a safer way for handling Prolog-level mutexes. The predicate `setup_call_cleanup/3` is another way to guarantee that the mutex is unlocked while retaining non-determinism.

```prolog
mutex_trylock(+MutexId)
As `mutex_lock/1`, but if the mutex is held by another thread, this predicate fails immediately.

mutex_unlock(+MutexId)
Unlock the mutex. This can only be called if the mutex is held by the calling thread. If this is not the case, a `permission_error` exception is raised.

mutex_unlock_all
Unlock all mutexes held by the current thread. This call is especially useful to handle thread-termination using `abort/0` or exceptions. See also `thread_signal/2`.

mutex_property(?MutexId, ?Property)
True if Property is a property of MutexId. Defined properties are:

- `alias(Alias)`
  Mutex has defined alias name. See `mutex_create/2` using the ‘alias’ option.

- `status(Status)`
  Current status of the mutex. One of `unlocked` if the mutex is currently not locked or `locked(Owner, Count)` if mutex is locked `Count` times by threads `Owner`. Note that, unless `Owner` is the calling thread, the locked status can change at any time. There is no useful application of this property, except for diagnostic purposes.\(^5\)

### 8.5 Thread-support library(threadutil)

This library defines a couple of useful predicates for demonstrating and debugging multi-threaded applications. This library is certainly not complete.

- `threads`
  Lists all current threads and their status.

- `join_threads`
  Join all terminated threads. For normal applications, dealing with terminated threads must be part of the application logic, either detaching the thread before termination or making sure it will be joined. The predicate `join_threads/0` is intended for interactive sessions to reclaim resources from threads that died unexpectedly during development.

- `interactor`
  Create a new console and run the Prolog top-level in this new console. See also `attach_console/0`. In the Windows version a new interactor can also be created from the Run/New thread menu.

\(^5\)BUG: As `Owner` and `Count` are fetched separately from the mutex, the values may be inconsistent.
8.5.1 Debugging threads

Support for debugging threads is still very limited. Debug and trace mode are flags that are local to each thread. Individual threads can be debugged either using the graphical debugger described in section 3.5 (see tspy/1 and friends) or by attaching a console to the thread and running the traditional command-line debugger (see attach_console/0). When using the graphical debugger, the debugger must be loaded from the main thread (for example using guitracer) before gtrace/0 can be called from a thread.

attach_console
If the current thread has no console attached yet, attach one and redirect the user streams (input, output, and error) to the new console window. On Unix systems the console is an xterm application. On Windows systems this requires the GUI version swipl-win.exe rather than the console based swipl.exe.

This predicate has a couple of useful applications. One is to separate (debugging) I/O of different threads. Another is to start debugging a thread that is running in the background. If thread 10 is running, the following sequence starts the tracer on this thread:

?- thread_signal(10, (attach_console, trace)).

\( tdebug(\text{+ThreadId}) \)
Prepare ThreadId for debugging using the graphical tracer. This implies installing the tracer hooks in the thread and switching the thread to debug-mode using debug/0. The call is injected into the thread using thread_signal/2. We refer to the documentation of this predicate for asynchronous interaction with threads. New threads created inherit their debug-mode from the thread that created them.

tdebug
Call tdebug/1 in all running threads.

\( tnodebug(\text{+ThreadId}) \)
Disable debugging thread ThreadId.

\( tnodebug \)
Disable debugging in all threads.

\( \text{tspy}(\text{:Spec}, \text{+ThreadId}) \)
Set a spy-point as spy/1 and enable the thread for debugging using tdebug/1. Note that a spy-point is a global flag on a predicate that is visible from all threads. Spy points are honoured in all threads that are in debug-mode and ignored in threads that are in nodebug mode.

\( \text{tspy}(\text{:Spec}) \)
Set a spy-point as spy/1 and enable debugging in all threads using tdebug/0. Note that removing spy-points can be done using nospy/1. Disabling spy-points in a specific thread is achieved by tnodebug/1.
8.5.2 Profiling threads

In the current implementation, at most one thread can be profiled at any moment. Any thread can call profile/1 to profile the execution of some part of its code. The predicate tprofile/1 allows for profiling the execution of another thread until the user stops collecting profile data.

\[ \text{tprofile(+ThreadId)} \]

Start collecting profile data in ThreadId and ask the user to hit \langle return \rangle to stop the profiler. See section 4.39 for details on the execution profiler.

8.6 Unbounded thread creation

(SWI-)Prolog threads are rather heavyweight objects, notably on 32-bit systems, because every thread uses a considerable amount of virtual address space. SWI-Prolog threads claim the stack limit in virtual address space for each of the runtime stacks, while on 32-bit systems this resource is generally limited somewhere between 1GB and 3.5 GB, depending on the operating system and operating configuration.

If SWI-Prolog starts a thread it copies the initial goal and starts a POSIX thread which allocates a new Prolog engine that starts proving the given goal. If allocation of the engine fails, typically due to lack of virtual memory space, the thread is still created with minimal (8 Kbyte) stacks and immediately calls its exit handlers. See the option at_exit(Goal). Although this mechanism allows for handling this type of error gracefully it is not safe to rely on it. Allocating an engine that nearly exhausts virtual address space may cause failures in normal memory allocation that can appear anywhere in Prolog or the foreign libraries used by it. Such errors typically kill the process with a fatal error.

Especially on 32-bit hardware, the design of the application must consider this issue and avoid ungraceful termination being conservative with the dynamic creation of new threads.

8.7 Multi-threaded mixed C and Prolog applications

All foreign-code linked to the multi-threading version of SWI-Prolog should be thread-safe (reentrant) or guarded in Prolog using with_mutex/2 from simultaneous access from multiple Prolog threads. If you want to write mixed multi-threaded C and Prolog application you should first familiarise yourself with writing multi-threaded applications in C (C++).

If you are using SWI-Prolog as an embedded engine in a multi-threaded application you can access the Prolog engine from multiple threads by creating an engine in each thread from which you call Prolog. Without creating an engine, a thread can only use functions that do not use the term_t type (for example PL_new_atom()).

The system supports two models. Section 8.7.1 describes the original one-to-one mapping. In this schema a native thread attaches a Prolog thread if it needs to call Prolog and detaches it when finished, as opposed to the model from section 8.7.2 where threads temporarily use a Prolog engine.

8.7.1 A Prolog thread for each native thread (one-to-one)

In the one-to-one model, the thread that called PL_initialise() has a Prolog engine attached. If another C-thread in the system wishes to call Prolog it must first attach an engine using PL_thread_attach_engine() and call PL_thread_destroy_engine() after all Prolog
work is finished. This model is especially suitable with long running threads that need to do Prolog
work regularly. See section 8.7.2 for the alternative many-to-many model.

```c
int PL_thread_self()
    Returns the integer Prolog identifier of the engine or -1 if the calling thread has no Prolog
    engine. This function is also provided in the single-threaded version of SWI-Prolog, where it
    returns -2.

int PL_unify_thread_id(term t, int i)
    Unify t with the Prolog thread identifier for thread i. Thread identifiers are normally returned
    from PL_thread_self(). Returns -1 if the thread does not exist or the unification result.

int PL_thread_attach_engine(const PL_thread_attr_t *attr)
    Creates a new Prolog engine in the calling thread. If the calling thread already has an engine
    the reference count of the engine is incremented. The attr argument can be NULL to create a
    thread with default attributes. Otherwise it is a pointer to a structure with the definition below.
    For any field with value ‘0’, the default is used. The cancel field may be filled with a pointer
to a function that is called when PL_cleanup() terminates the running Prolog engines. If
this function is not present or returns FALSE pthread_cancel() is used.

typedef struct
    { unsigned long local_size;  /* Stack sizes (K-bytes) */
      unsigned long global_size;
      unsigned long trail_size;
      unsigned long argument_size;
      char * alias;           /* alias name */
      int (*cancel)(int thread);
    } PL_thread_attr_t;
```

The structure may be destroyed after PL_thread_attach_engine() has returned. On suc-
cess it returns the Prolog identifier for the thread (as returned by PL_thread_self()). If an
error occurs, -1 is returned. If this Prolog is not compiled for multi-threading, -2 is returned.

```c
int PL_thread_destroy_engine()
    Destroy the Prolog engine in the calling thread. Only takes ef-
cfect if PL_thread_destroy_engine() is called as many times as
PL_thread_attach_engine() in this thread. Returns TRUE on success and FALSE
if the calling thread has no engine or this Prolog does not support threads.

Please note that construction and destruction of engines are relatively expensive operations.
Only destroy an engine if performance is not critical and memory is a critical resource.

int PL_thread_at_exit(void (*function)(void *), void *closure, int global)
    Register a handle to be called as the Prolog engine is destroyed. The handler function is called
with one void * argument holding closure. If global is TRUE, the handler is installed for all
threads. Globally installed handlers are executed after the thread-local handlers. If the handler
is installed local for the current thread only (global == FALSE) it is stored in the same FIFO
queue as used by thread_at_exit/1.
```
8.7.2 Pooling Prolog engines (many-to-many)

In this model Prolog engines live as entities that are independent from threads. If a thread needs to call Prolog it takes one of the engines from the pool and returns the engine when done. This model is suitable in the following identified cases:

- **Compatibility with the single-threaded version**
  In the single-threaded version, foreign threads must serialise access the one and only thread engine. Functions from this section allow sharing one engine among multiple threads.

- **Many native threads with infrequent Prolog work**
  Prolog threads are expensive in terms of memory and time to create and destroy them. Systems that use a large number of threads that only infrequently need to call Prolog, better take an engine from a pool and return it there.

- **Prolog status must be handed to another thread**
  This situation has been identified by Uwe Lesta when creating a .NET interface for SWI-Prolog. .NET distributes work for active internet connection over a pool of threads. If a Prolog engine contains state for a connection, it must be possible to detach the engine from a thread and re-attach it to another thread handling the same connection.

```c
PL_engine_t PL_create_engine(PL_thread_attr_t *attributes)
```
Create a new Prolog engine. *attributes* is described with PL_thread_attach_engine(). Any thread can make this call after PL_initialise() returned success. The returned engine is not attached to any thread and lives until PL_destroy_engine() is used on the returned handle.

In the single-threaded version this call always returns NULL, indicating failure.

```c
int PL_destroy_engine(PL_engine_t e)
```
Destroy the given engine. Destroying an engine is only allowed if the engine is not attached to any thread or attached to the calling thread. On success this function returns TRUE, on failure the return value is FALSE.

```c
int PL_set_engine(PL_engine_t engine, PL_engine_t *old)
```
Make the calling thread ready to use *engine*. If *old* is non-NULL the current engine associated with the calling thread is stored at the given location. If *engine* equals PL_ENGINE_MAIN the initial engine is attached to the calling thread. If *engine* is PL_ENGINE_CURRENT the engine is not changed. This can be used to query the current engine. This call returns PL_ENGINE_SET if the engine was switched successfully, PL_ENGINEINVAL if *engine* is not a valid engine handle and PL_ENGINE_INUSE if the engine is currently in use by another thread.

Engines can be changed at any time. For example, it is allowed to select an engine to initiate a Prolog goal, detach it and at a later moment execute the goal from another thread. Note however that the term_t, qid_t and fid_t types are interpreted relative to the engine for which they are created. Behaviour when passing one of these types from one engine to another is undefined.

In the single-threaded version this call only succeeds if *engine* refers to the main engine.
8.8. MULTITHREADING AND THE XPCE GRAPHICS SYSTEM

Engines in single-threaded SWI-Prolog

In theory it is possible to port the API of section 8.7.2 to the single-threaded version of SWI-Prolog. This allows C-programs to control multiple Prolog engines concurrently. This has not yet been realised.

8.8 Multithreading and the XPCE graphics system

GUI applications written in XPCE can benefit from the multi-threaded version of XPCE/SWI-Prolog if they need to do expensive computations that block to UI in the single-threaded version.

Due to various technical problems on both Windows and Unix/X11 threading is best exploited by handing long computations to their own thread.

The XPCE message passing system is guarded with a single mutex, which synchronises both access from Prolog and activation through the GUI. In MS-Windows, GUI events are processed by the thread that created the window in which the event occurred, whereas in Unix/X11 they are processed by the thread that dispatches messages.

Some tentative work is underway to improve the integration between XPCE and multi-threaded SWI-Prolog. There are two sets of support predicates. The first model assumes that XPCE is running in the main thread and background threads are used for computation. In the second model, XPCE event dispatching runs in the background, while the foreground thread is used for Prolog.

XPCE in the foreground

Using XPCE in the foreground simplifies debugging of the UI and generally provides the most comfortable development environment. The GUI creates new threads using thread_create/3 and, after work in the thread is completed, the sub-thread signals the main thread of the completion using in_pce_thread/1.

in_pce_thread(:Goal)

Assuming XPCE is running in the foreground thread, this call gives background threads the opportunity to make calls to the XPCE thread. A call to in_pce_thread/1 succeeds immediately, copying Goal to the XPCE thread. Goal is added to the XPCE event-queue and executed synchronous to normal user events like typing and clicking.

XPCE in the background

In this model a thread for running XPCE is created using pce_dispatch/1 and actions are sent to this thread using pce_call/1.

pce_dispatch(+Options)

Create a Prolog thread with the alias-name pce for XPCE event-handling. In the X11 version this call creates a thread that executes the X11 event-dispatch loop. In MS-Windows it creates a thread that executes a windows event-dispatch loop. The XPCE event-handling thread has the alias pce. Options specifies the thread-attributes as thread_create/3.

pce_call(:Goal)

Post Goal to the pce thread, executing it synchronous with the thread’s event-loop. The pce_call/1 predicate returns immediately without waiting. Note that Goal is copied to the pce thread.

For further information about XPCE in threaded applications, please visit http://gollem.science.uva.nl/twiki/pl/bin/view/Development/MultiThreadsXPCE
SWI-Prolog offers a powerful interface to C [Kernighan & Ritchie, 1978]. The main design objectives of the foreign language interface are flexibility and performance. A foreign predicate is a C-function that has the same number of arguments as the predicate represented. C-functions are provided to analyse the passed terms, convert them to basic C-types as well as to instantiate arguments using unification. Non-deterministic foreign predicates are supported, providing the foreign function with a handle to control backtracking.

C can call Prolog predicates, providing both a query interface and an interface to extract multiple solutions from a non-deterministic Prolog predicate. There is no limit to the nesting of Prolog calling C, calling Prolog, etc. It is also possible to write the ‘main’ in C and use Prolog as an embedded logical engine.

9.1 Overview of the Interface

A special include file called SWI-Prolog.h should be included with each C-source file that is to be loaded via the foreign interface. The installation process installs this file in the directory include in the SWI-Prolog home directory (?- current_prolog_flag(home, Home)). This C-header file defines various data types, macros and functions that can be used to communicate with SWI-Prolog. Functions and macros can be divided into the following categories:

- Analysing Prolog terms
- Constructing new terms
- Unifying terms
- Returning control information to Prolog
- Registering foreign predicates with Prolog
- Calling Prolog from C
- Recorded database interactions
- Global actions on Prolog (halt, break, abort, etc.)

9.2 Linking Foreign Modules

Foreign modules may be linked to Prolog in two ways. Using static linking, the extensions, a (short) file defining main() which attaches the extensions calls Prolog and the SWI-Prolog kernel distributed as a C-library are linked together to form a new executable. Using dynamic linking, the extensions
are linked to a shared library (.so file on most Unix systems) or dynamic-link library (.DLL file on Microsoft platforms) and loaded into the running Prolog process.¹.

### 9.2.1 What linking is provided?

The static linking schema can be used on all versions of SWI-Prolog. Whether or not dynamic linking is supported can be deduced from the Prolog flag `open_shared_object` (see `current_prolog_flag/2`). If this Prolog flag yields true, `open_shared_object/2` and related predicates are defined. See section 9.2.3 for a suitable high-level interface to these predicates.

### 9.2.2 What kind of loading should I be using?

All described approaches have their advantages and disadvantages. Static linking is portable and allows for debugging on all platforms. It is relatively cumbersome and the libraries you need to pass to the linker may vary from system to system, though the utility program `swipl-ld` described in section 9.5 often hides these problems from the user.

Loading shared objects (DLL files on Windows) provides sharing and protection and is generally the best choice. If a saved-state is created using `qsave_program/[1,2]`, an initialization/1 directive may be used to load the appropriate library at startup.

Note that the definition of the foreign predicates is the same, regardless of the linking type used.

### 9.2.3 library(shlib): Utility library for loading foreign objects (DLLs, shared objects)

This section discusses the functionality of the (autoload) library(shlib), providing an interface to manage shared libraries. We describe the procedure for using a foreign resource (DLL in Windows and shared object in Unix) called `mylib`.

First, one must assemble the resource and make it compatible to SWI-Prolog. The details for this vary between platforms. The `plld(1)` utility can be used to deal with this in a portable manner. The typical commandline is:

```
plld -o mylib file.{c,o,cc,C} ...
```

Make sure that one of the files provides a global function `install_mylib()` that initialises the module using calls to `PL_register_foreign()`. Here is a simple example file `mylib.c`, which creates a Windows MessageBox:

```c
#include <windows.h>
#include <SWI-Prolog.h>

static foreign_t
pl_say_hello(term_t to)
{ char *a;
```

¹The system also contains code to load .o files directly for some operating systems, notably Unix systems using the BSD a.out executable format. As the number of Unix platforms supporting this gets quickly smaller and this interface is difficult to port and slow, it is no longer described in this manual. The best alternatively would be to use the dld package on machines do not have shared libraries
if ( PL_get_atom_chars(to, &a) )
    { MessageBox(NULL, a, "DLL test", MB_OK|MB_TASKMODAL);
      PL_succeed;
    }
PL_fail;
}

install_t
install_mylib()
{ PL_register_foreign("say_hello", 1, pl_say_hello, 0);
}

Now write a file mylib.pl:

:- module(mylib, [ say_hello/1 ]).
:- use_foreign_library(foreign(mylib)).

The file mylib.pl can be loaded as a normal Prolog file and provides the predicate defined in C.

\[
\text{load\_foreign\_library}(\text{:FileSpec})
\]
\[\text{[det]}\]
\[
\text{load\_foreign\_library}(\text{:FileSpec}, +\text{Entry:atom})
\]
\[\text{[det]}\]
Load a \textit{shared object} or \textit{DLL}. After loading the \textit{Entry} function is called without arguments.

The default entry function is composed from =install=, followed by the file base-name. E.g.,
the load-call below calls the function install_mylib(). If the platform prefixes extern
functions with =_=, this prefix is added before calling.

\[
\text{...}
\]
\[
\text{load\_foreign\_library(foreign(mylib))},
\]
\[
\text{...}
\]

\textit{FileSpec} is a specification for \texttt{absolute\_file\_name/3}. If searching
the file fails, the plain name is passed to the OS to try
the default method of the OS for locating foreign objects. The
default definition of \texttt{file\_search\_path/2} searches \texttt{<prolog home>/lib/<arch>} on Unix and
\texttt{<prolog home>/bin} on Windows.

\textit{See also} \texttt{use\_foreign\_library/1,2} are intended for use in directives.

\[
\text{use\_foreign\_library(+FileSpec)}
\]
\[\text{[det]}\]
\[
\text{use\_foreign\_library(+FileSpec, +Entry:atom)}
\]
\[\text{[det]}\]
Load and install a foreign library as \texttt{load\_foreign\_library/1,2} and register the
installation using \texttt{initialization/2} with the option \texttt{now}. This is similar to using:
9.2. LINKING FOREIGN MODULES

but using the initialization/1 wrapper causes the library to be loaded after loading of the file in which it appears is completed, while use_foreign_library/1 loads the library immediately. I.e. the difference is only relevant if the remainder of the file uses functionality of the C-library.

unload_foreign_library(+FileSpec) [det]
unload_foreign_library(+FileSpec, +Exit:atom) [det]
Unload a shared object or DLL. After calling the Exit function, the shared object is removed from the process. The default exit function is composed from =uninstall=, followed by the file base-name.

current_foreign_library(?File, ?Public)
Query currently loaded shared libraries.

reload_foreign_libraries
Reload all foreign libraries loaded (after restore of a state created using qsave_program/2.

9.2.4 Low-level operations on shared libraries

The interface defined in this section allows the user to load shared libraries (.so files on most Unix systems, .dll files on Windows). This interface is portable to Windows as well as to Unix machines providing dlopen(2) (Solaris, Linux, FreeBSD, Irix and many more) or shl_open(2) (HP/UX). It is advised to use the predicates from section 9.2.3 in your application.

open_shared_object(+File, -Handle)
_file is the name of a shared object file (called dynamic load library in MS-Windows). This file is attached to the current process and Handle is unified with a handle to the library. Equivalent to open_shared_object(File, [], Handle). See also load_foreign_library/[1,2].

On errors, an exception shared_object(Action, Message) is raised. Message is the return value from dlerror().

open_shared_object(+File, -Handle, +Options)
As open_shared_object/2, but allows for additional flags to be passed. Options is a list of atoms. now implies the symbols are resolved immediately rather than lazy (default). global implies symbols of the loaded object are visible while loading other shared objects (by default they are local). Note that these flags may not be supported by your operating system. Check the documentation of dlopen() or equivalent on your operating system. Unsupported flags are silently ignored.

close_shared_object(+Handle)
Detach the shared object identified by Handle.

call_shared_object_function(+Handle, +Function)
Call the named function in the loaded shared library. The function is called without arguments and the return-value is ignored. Normally this function installs foreign language predicates using calls to PL_register_foreign().

:- initialization(load_foreign_library(foreign(mylib))).
9.2.5 Static Linking

Below is an outline of the files structure required for statically linking SWI-Prolog with foreign extensions. \ldots/pl refers to the SWI-Prolog home directory (see the Prolog flag home). \langle arch \rangle refers to the architecture identifier that may be obtained using the Prolog flag arch.

\ldots/pl/runtime/\langle arch \rangle/libswipl.a SWI-Library
\ldots/pl/include/SWI-Prolog.h Include file
\ldots/pl/include/SWI-Stream.h Stream I/O include file
\ldots/pl/include/SWI-Exports Export declarations (AIX only)
\ldots/pl/include/stub.c Extension stub

The definition of the foreign predicates is the same as for dynamic linking. Unlike with dynamic linking however, there is no initialisation function. Instead, the file \ldots/pl/include/stub.c may be copied to your project and modified to define the foreign extensions. Below is stub.c, modified to link the lowercase example described later in this chapter:

```c
#include <stdio.h>
#include <SWI-Prolog.h>

extern foreign_t pl_lowercase(term, term);

PL_extension predicates[] =
{
    /*{ "name", arity, function, PL_FA_<flags> },*/
    { "lowercase", 2, pl_lowercase, 0 },
    { NULL, 0, NULL, 0 } /* terminating line */
};

int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    PL_register_extensions(predicates);
    if ( !PL_initialise(argc, argv) )
        PL_halt(1);
    PL_install_readline(); /* delete if not required */
    PL_halt(PL_toplevel() ? 0 : 1);
}
```

Now, a new executable may be created by compiling this file and linking it to libpl.a from the runtime directory and the libraries required by both the extensions and the SWI-Prolog kernel. This may be done by hand, or using the swipl-ld utility described in sec:ref:plld. If the linking is performed "by hand", the command-line option -dump-runtime-variables (see section 2.4) can be used to obtain the required paths, libraries and linking options to link the new executable.
9.3 Interface Data types

9.3.1 Type \texttt{term\_t}: a reference to a Prolog term

The principal data-type is \texttt{term\_t}. Type \texttt{term\_t} is what Quintus calls \texttt{QP\_term\_ref}. This name indicates better what the type represents: it is a \textit{handle} for a term rather than the term itself. Terms can only be represented and manipulated using this type, as this is the only safe way to ensure the Prolog kernel is aware of all terms referenced by foreign code and thus allows the kernel to perform garbage-collection and/or stack-shifts while foreign code is active, for example during a callback from C.

A term reference is a C unsigned long, representing the offset of a variable on the Prolog environment-stack. A foreign function is passed term references for the predicate-arguments, one for each argument. If references for intermediate results are needed, such references may be created using \texttt{PL\_new\_term\_ref()} or \texttt{PL\_new\_term\_refs()}. These references normally live till the foreign function returns control back to Prolog. Their scope can be explicitly limited using \texttt{PL\_open\_foreign\_frame()} and \texttt{PL\_close\_foreign\_frame()}/\texttt{PL\_discard\_foreign\_frame()}.

A \texttt{term\_t} always refers to a valid Prolog term (variable, atom, integer, float or compound term). A term lives either until backtracking takes us back to a point before the term was created, the garbage collector has collected the term or the term was created after a \texttt{PL\_open\_foreign\_frame()} and \texttt{PL\_discard\_foreign\_frame()} has been called.

The foreign-interface functions can either \textit{read}, \textit{unify} or \textit{write} to term-references. In the this document we use the following notation for arguments of type \texttt{term\_t}:

\begin{verbatim}
  \texttt{term\_t +t}  Accessed in read-mode. The `+' indicates the argument is `input'.
  \texttt{term\_t -t}  Accessed in write-mode.
  \texttt{term\_t ?t}  Accessed in unify-mode.
\end{verbatim}

Term references are obtained in any of the following ways.

- \textit{Passed as argument}
  The C-functions implementing foreign predicates are passed their arguments as term-references. These references may be read or unified. Writing to these variables causes undefined behaviour.

- \textit{Created by \texttt{PL\_new\_term\_ref()}}
  A term created by \texttt{PL\_new\_term\_ref()} is normally used to build temporary terms or be written by one of the interface functions. For example, \texttt{PL\_get\_arg()} writes a reference to the term-argument in its last argument.

- \textit{Created by \texttt{PL\_new\_term\_refs(int n)}}
  This function returns a set of term refs with the same characteristics as \texttt{PL\_new\_term\_ref()}. See \texttt{PL\_open\_query()}.

- \textit{Created by \texttt{PL\_copy\_term\_ref(term\_t t)}}
  Creates a new term-reference to the same term as the argument. The term may be written to. See figure 9.2.

Term-references can safely be copied to other C-variables of type \texttt{term\_t}, but all copies will always refer to the same term.
term_t PL_new_term_ref()

Return a fresh reference to a term. The reference is allocated on the local stack. Allocating a term-reference may trigger a stack-shift on machines that cannot use sparse-memory management for allocation the Prolog stacks. The returned reference describes a variable.

term_t PL_new_term_refs(int n)

Return n new term references. The first term-reference is returned. The others are \( t+1, t+2, \) etc. There are two reasons for using this function. PL_open_query() expects the arguments as a set of consecutive term references and very time-critical code requiring a number of term-references can be written as:

```c
pl_mypredicate(term_t a0, term_t a1)
{ term_t t0 = PL_new_term_refs(2);
  term_t t1 = t0+1;
  ...
}
```

void PL_copy_term_ref(term_t from)

Create a new term reference and make it point initially to the same term as from. This function is commonly used to copy a predicate argument to a term reference that may be written.

void PL_reset_term_refs(term_t after)

Destroy all term references that have been created after after, including after itself. Any reference to the invalidated term references after this call results in undefined behaviour.

Note that returning from the foreign context to Prolog will reclaim all references used in the foreign context. This call is only necessary if references are created inside a loop that never exits back to Prolog. See also PL_open_foreign_frame(), PL_close_foreign_frame() and PL_discard_foreign_frame().

**Interaction with the garbage collector and stack-shifter**

Prolog implements two mechanisms for avoiding stack overflow: garbage collection and stack expansion. On machines that allow for it, Prolog will use virtual memory management to detect stack overflow and expand the runtime stacks. On other machines Prolog will reallocate the stacks and update all pointers to them. To do so, Prolog needs to know which data is referenced by C-code. As all Prolog data known by C is referenced through term references (term_t), Prolog has all information necessary to perform its memory management without special precautions from the C-programmer.

**9.3.2 Other foreign interface types**

**atom_t** An atom in Prolog’s internal representation. Atoms are pointers to an opaque structure. They are a unique representation for represented text, which implies that atom \( A \) represents the same text as atom \( B \) if-and-only-if \( A \) and \( B \) are the same pointer.

Atoms are the central representation for textual constants in Prolog. The transformation of C a character string to an atom implies a hash-table lookup. If the same atom is needed often, it is advised to store its reference in a global variable to avoid repeated lookup.
functor_t  A functor is the internal representation of a name/arity pair. They are used to find the name and arity of a compound term as well as to construct new compound terms. Like atoms they live for the whole Prolog session and are unique.

predicate_t  Handle to a Prolog predicate. Predicate handles live forever (although they can loose their definition).

qid_t  Query Identifier. Used by PL_open_query() / PL_next_solution() / PL_close_query() to handle backtracking from C.

fid_t  Frame Identifier. Used by PL_open_foreign_frame() / PL_close_foreign_frame().

module_t  A module is a unique handle to a Prolog module. Modules are used only to call predicates in a specific module.

foreign_t  Return type for a C-function implementing a Prolog predicate.

control_t  Passed as additional argument to non-deterministic foreign functions. See PL_retry*() and PL_foreign_context*().

install_t  Type for the install() and uninstall() functions of shared or dynamic link libraries. See secretshlib.

int64_t  Actually part of the C99 standard rather than Prolog. As of version 5.5.6, Prolog integers are 64-bit on all hardware. The C99 type int64_t is defined in the stdint.h standard header and provides platform independent 64-bit integers. Portable code accessing Prolog should use this type to exchange integer values. Please note that PL_get_long() can return FALSE on Prolog integers outside the long domain. Robust code should not assume any of the integer fetching functions to succeed if the Prolog term is know to be an integer.

9.4 The Foreign Include File

9.4.1 Argument Passing and Control

If Prolog encounters a foreign predicate at run time it will call a function specified in the predicate definition of the foreign predicate. The arguments 1, . . . , (arity) pass the Prolog arguments to the goal as Prolog terms. Foreign functions should be declared of type foreign_t. Deterministic foreign functions have two alternatives to return control back to Prolog:

(return) foreign_t PL_succeed()
Succeed deterministically. PL_succeed is defined as return TRUE.

(return) foreign_t PL_fail()
Fail and start Prolog backtracking. PL_fail is defined as return FALSE.

Non-deterministic Foreign Predicates

By default foreign predicates are deterministic. Using the PL_FA_NONDETERMINISTIC attribute (see PL_register_foreign()) it is possible to register a predicate as a non-deterministic predicate. Writing non-deterministic foreign predicates is slightly more complicated as the foreign function
needs context information for generating the next solution. Note that the same foreign function should be prepared to be simultaneously active in more than one goal. Suppose the natural_number_below_n/2 is a non-deterministic foreign predicate, backtracking over all natural numbers lower than the first argument. Now consider the following predicate:

\[
\text{quotient_below_n}(Q, N) :-
\text{natural_number_below_n}(N, N1),
\text{natural_number_below_n}(N, N2),
Q =:= N1 / N2, !.
\]

In this predicate the function natural_number_below_n/2 simultaneously generates solutions for both its invocations.

Non-deterministic foreign functions should be prepared to handle three different calls from Prolog:

- **Initial call** (\texttt{PL\_FIRST\_CALL})
  Prolog has just created a frame for the foreign function and asks it to produce the first answer.

- **Redo call** (\texttt{PL\_REDO})
  The previous invocation of the foreign function associated with the current goal indicated it was possible to backtrack. The foreign function should produce the next solution.

- **Terminate call** (\texttt{PL\_PRUNED})
  The choice point left by the foreign function has been destroyed by a cut. The foreign function is given the opportunity to clean the environment.

Both the context information and the type of call is provided by an argument of type \texttt{control\_t} appended to the argument list for deterministic foreign functions. The macro \texttt{PL\_foreign\_control()} extracts the type of call from the control argument. The foreign function can pass a context handle using the \texttt{PL\_retry\_*()} macros and extract the handle from the extra argument using the \texttt{PL\_foreign\_context\_*()} macro.

\texttt{(return) foreign\_t PL\_retry(long)}

The foreign function succeeds while leaving a choice point. On backtracking over this goal the foreign function will be called again, but the control argument now indicates it is a ‘Redo’ call and the macro \texttt{PL\_foreign\_context()} returns the handle passed via \texttt{PL\_retry()}. This handle is a 30 bits signed value (two bits are used for status indication). Defined as \texttt{return PL\_retry\_t(n)}. See also \texttt{PL\_succeed()}.

\texttt{(return) foreign\_t PL\_retry\_address(void *)}

As \texttt{PL\_retry()}, but ensures an address as returned by malloc() is correctly recovered by \texttt{PL\_foreign\_context\_address()}. Defined as \texttt{return PL\_retry\_address\_t(n)}. See also \texttt{PL\_succeed()}.

\texttt{int PL\_foreign\_control(control\_t)}

Extracts the type of call from the control argument. The return values are described above. Note that the function should be prepared to handle the \texttt{PL\_PRUNED} case and should be aware that the other arguments are not valid in this case.
typedef struct /* define a context structure */
{
    ...
} context;

foreign_t
my_function(term_t a0, term_t a1, control_t handle)
{
    struct context * ctxt;

    switch( PL_foreign_control(handle) )
    {
        case PL_FIRST_CALL:
            ctxt = malloc(sizeof(struct context));
            ...
            PL_retry_address(ctxt);
            break;
        case PL_REDO:
            ctxt = PL_foreign_context_address(handle);
            ...
            PL_retry_address(ctxt);
            break;
        case PL_PRUNED:
            ctxt = PL_foreign_context_address(handle);
            ...
            free(ctxt);
            PL_succeed;
            break;
    }
}

Figure 9.1: Skeleton for non-deterministic foreign functions

long PL_foreign_context(control_t)
Extracts the context from the context argument. In the call type is PL_FIRST_CALL the context value is 0L. Otherwise it is the value returned by the last PL_retry() associated with this goal (both if the call type is PL_REDO as PL_PRUNED).

void * PL_foreign_context_address(control_t)
Extracts an address as passed in by PL_retry_address().

Note: If a non-deterministic foreign function returns using PL_succeed or PL_fail, Prolog assumes the foreign function has cleaned its environment. No call with control argument PL_PRUNED will follow.

The code of figure 9.1 shows a skeleton for a non-deterministic foreign predicate definition.

9.4.2 Atoms and functors

The following functions provide for communication using atoms and functors.

atom_t PL_new_atom(const char *)
Return an atom handle for the given C-string. This function always succeeds. The returned handle is valid as long as the atom is referenced (see section 9.4.2).
const char* PL_atom_chars(atom t atom)
    Return a C-string for the text represented by the given atom. The returned text will not be
    changed by Prolog. It is not allowed to modify the contents, not even ‘temporary’ as the
    string may reside in read-only memory. The returned string becomes invalid if the atom is
    garbage-collected (see section 9.4.2). Foreign functions that require the text from an atom
    passed in a term_t normally use PL_get_atom_chars() or PL_get_atom_nchars().

functor_t PL_new_functor(atom t name, int arity)
    Returns a functor identifier, a handle for the name/arity pair. The returned handle is valid for
    the entire Prolog session.

atom_t PL_functor_name(functor_t f)
    Return an atom representing the name of the given functor.

int PL_functor arity(functor_t f)
    Return the arity of the given functor.

Atoms and atom-garbage collection

With the introduction of atom-garbage collection in version 3.3.0, atoms no longer live as long as the
process. Instead, their lifetime is guaranteed only as long as they are referenced. In the single-threaded
version, atom garbage collections are only invoked at the call-port. In the multi-threaded version (see
section 8), they appear asynchronously, except for the invoking thread.

For dealing with atom garbage collection, two additional functions are provided:

void PL_register_atom(atom t atom)
    Increment the reference count of the atom by one. PL_new_atom() performs this automatically,
    returning an atom with a reference count of at least one.²

void PL_unregister_atom(atom t atom)
    Decrement the reference count of the atom. If the reference-count drops below zero, an asser-
    tion error is raised.

Please note that the following two calls are different with respect to atom garbage collection:

```c
PL_unify_atom_chars(t, "text");
PL_unify_atom(t, PL_new_atom("text"));
```

The latter increments the reference count of the atom text, which effectively ensures the atom will
never be collected. It is advised to use the *_chars() or *_nchars() functions whenever applicable.

9.4.3 Analysing Terms via the Foreign Interface

Each argument of a foreign function (except for the control argument) is of type term_t, an opaque
handle to a Prolog term. Three groups of functions are available for the analysis of terms. The first
just validates the type, like the Prolog predicates var/1, atom/1, etc and are called PL_is_*().

The second group attempts to translate the argument into a C primitive type. These predicates take a
term_t and a pointer to the appropriate C-type and return TRUE or FALSE depending on successful
or unsuccessful translation. If the translation fails, the pointed-to data is never modified.

²Otherwise asynchronous atom garbage collection might destroy the atom before it is used.
9.4. THE FOREIGN INCLUDE FILE

Testing the type of a term

```c
int PL_term_type(term_t)
{
    Obtain the type of a term, which should be a term returned by one of the other interface predicates or passed as an argument. The function returns the type of the Prolog term. The type identifiers are listed below. Note that the extraction functions PL_get*() also validate the type and thus the two sections below are equivalent.

```c
    if ( PL_is_atom(t) )
    {
        char *s;
        PL_get_atom_chars(t, &s);
        ...
    }
    
or
    char *s;
    if ( PL_get_atom_chars(t, &s) )
    {
        ...
    }
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PL_VARIABLE</td>
<td>An unbound variable. The value of term as such is a unique identifier for the variable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL_ATOM</td>
<td>A Prolog atom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL_STRING</td>
<td>A Prolog string.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL_INTEGER</td>
<td>A Prolog integer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL_FLOAT</td>
<td>A Prolog floating point number.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL_TERM</td>
<td>A compound term. Note that a list is a compound term ./2.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The functions PL_is(type) are an alternative to PL_term_type(). The test PL_is_variable(term) is equivalent to PL_term_type(term) == PL_VARIABLE, but the first is considerably faster. On the other hand, using a switch over PL_term_type() is faster and more readable then using an if-then-else using the functions below. All these functions return either TRUE or FALSE.

```c
int PL_is_variable(term_t)
{
    Returns non-zero if term is a variable.
}

int PL_is_ground(term_t)
{
    Returns non-zero if term is a ground term. See also ground/1. This function is cycle-safe.
}

int PL_is_atom(term_t)
{
    Returns non-zero if term is an atom.
}

int PL_is_string(term_t)
{
    Returns non-zero if term is a string.
}
int _PL_is_integer(term t)
   Returns non-zero if term is an integer.

int _PL_is_float(term t)
   Returns non-zero if term is a float.

int _PL_is_compound(term t)
   Returns non-zero if term is a compound term.

int _PL_is_functor(term f, functor f)
   Returns non-zero if term is compound and its functor is functor. This test is equivalent to _PL_get_functor(), followed by testing the functor, but easier to write and faster.

int _PL_is_list(term t)
   Returns non-zero if term is a compound term with functor . /2 or the atom []. See also _PL_is_pair() and _PL_skip_list().

int _PL_is_pair(term t)
   Returns non-zero if term is a compound term with functor . /2. See also _PL_is_list() and _PL_skip_list().

int _PL_is_atomic(term t)
   Returns non-zero if term is atomic (not variable or compound).

int _PL_is_number(term t)
   Returns non-zero if term is an integer or float.

int _PL_is_acyclic(term t)
   Returns non-zero if term is acyclic (i.e. a finite tree).

Reading data from a term

The functions _PL_get_*() read information from a Prolog term. Most of them take two arguments. The first is the input term and the second is a pointer to the output value or a term-reference.

int _PL_get_atom(term t +t, atom t *a)
   If t is an atom, store the unique atom identifier over a. See also _PL_atom_chars() and _PL_new_atom(). If there is no need to access the data (characters) of an atom, it is advised to manipulate atoms using their handle. As the atom is referenced by t, it will live at least as long as t does. If longer live-time is required, the atom should be locked using _PL_register_atom().

int _PL_get_atom_chars(term t +t, char **s)
   If t is an atom, store a pointer to a 0-terminated C-string in s. It is explicitly not allowed to modify the contents of this string. Some built-in atoms may have the string allocated in read-only memory, so ‘temporary manipulation’ can cause an error.

int _PL_get_string_chars(term t +t, char **s, int *len)
   If t is a string object, store a pointer to a 0-terminated C-string in s and the length of the string in len. Note that this pointer is invalidated by backtracking, garbage-collection and stack-shifts, so generally the only save operations are to pass it immediately to a C-function that doesn’t involve Prolog.
int PL_get_chars(term t, char **s, unsigned flags)
Convert the argument term t to a 0-terminated C-string. flags is a bitwise disjunction from
two groups of constants. The first specifies which term-types should converted and the second
how the argument is stored. Below is a specification of these constants. BUF_RING implies,
if the data is not static (as from an atom), the data is copied to the next buffer from a ring of
16 buffers. This is a convenient way of converting multiple arguments passed to a foreign
predicate to C-strings. If BUF_MALLOC is used, the data must be freed using PL_free() when not needed any longer.

With the introduction of wide-characters (see section 2.17.1), not all atoms can be converted into
a char*. This function fails if t is of the wrong type, but also if the text cannot be represented.
See the REP_* flags below for details.

| CVT_ATOM     | Convert if term is an atom                  |
| CVT_STRING   | Convert if term is a string                 |
| CVT_LIST     | Convert if term is a list of integers between 1 and 255 |
| CVT_INTEGER  | Convert if term is an integer (using %d)     |
| CVT_FLOAT    | Convert if term is a float (using %f)        |
| CVT_NUMBER   | Convert if term is an integer or float       |
| CVT_ATOMIC   | Convert if term is atomic                   |
| CVT_VARIABLE | Convert variable to print-name              |
| CVT_WRITE    | Convert any term that is not converted by any of the other flags using write/1. If no BUF_* is provided, BUF_RING is implied. As CVT_WRITE, but use write_canonical/2. Convert if term is any of the above, except for CVT_VARIABLE and CVT_WRITE |
| CVT_WRITE_CANONICAL |                             |
| CVT_ALL      | Convert if term is any of the above, except for CVT_VARIABLE and CVT_WRITE |
| CVT_EXCEPTION| If conversion fails due to a type error, raise a Prolog type error exception in addition to failure |
| BUF_DISCARDABLE | Data must copied immediately          |
| BUF_RING     | Data is stored in a ring of buffers         |
| BUF_MALLOC   | Data is copied to a new buffer returned by PL_malloc(3). When no longer needed the user must call PL_free() on the data. |
| REP_ISO_LATIN_1 | (0, default). Text is in ISO Latin-1 encoding and the call fails if text cannot be represented. |
| REP_UTF8     | Convert the text to a UTF-8 string. This works for all text. Convert to default locale-defined 8-bit string. Success depends on the locale. Conversion is done using the wchar_t() C-library function. |
| REP_MB       | |

int PL_get_list_chars(+term t l, char **s, unsigned flags)
Same as PL_get_chars(l, s, CVT_LIST—flags), provided flags contains no of the CVT_* flags.

int PL_get_integer(+term t, int *i)
If t is a Prolog integer, assign its value over i. On 32-bit machines, this is the same as
PL_get_long(), but avoids a warning from the compiler. See also PL_get_long().
int `PL_get_long`(term_t t, long *i)
   If `t` is a Prolog integer that can be represented as a long, assign its value over `i`. If `t` is an integer that cannot be represented by a C long, this function returns FALSE. If `t` is a floating point number that can be represented as a long, this function succeeds as well. See also `PL_get_int64()`

int `PL_get_int64`(term_t t, int64_t *i)
   If `t` is a Prolog integer or float that can be represented as an `int64_t`, assign its value over `i`. Currently all Prolog integers can be represented using this type, but this might change if SWI-Prolog introduces unbounded integers.

int `PL_get_intptr`(term_t t, intptr_t *i)
   Get an integer that is at least as wide as a as a pointer. On most platforms this is the same as `PL_get_long()`, but on Win64 pointers are 8 bytes and longs only 4. Unlike `PL_get_pointer()`, the value is not modified.

int `PL_get_bool`(term_t t, int *val)
   If `t` has the value `true` or `false`, set `val` to the C constant TRUE or FALSE and return success. otherwise return failure.

int `PL_get_pointer`(term_t t, void **ptr)
   In the current system, pointers are represented by Prolog integers, but need some manipulation to make sure they do not get truncated due to the limited Prolog integer range. `PL_put_pointer()` handles this without truncating.

int `PL_get_float`(term_t t, double *f)
   If `t` is a float or integer, its value is assigned over `f`.

int `PL_get_functor`(term_t t, functor_t *f)
   If `t` is compound or an atom, the Prolog representation of the name-arity pair will be assigned over `f`. See also `PL_get_name arity()` and `PL_is_functor()`.

int `PL_get_name arity`(term_t t, atom_t *name, int *arity)
   If `t` is compound or an atom, the functor-name will be assigned over `name` and the arity over `arity`. See also `PL_get_functor()` and `PL_is_functor()`.

int `PL_get_module`(term_t t, module_t *module)
   If `t` is an atom, the system will lookup or create the corresponding module and assign an opaque pointer to it over `module`.

int `PL_get_arg`(int index, term_t t, term_t *a)
   If `t` is compound and index is between 1 and arity (including), assign `a` with a term-reference to the argument.

int `PL_get_arg`(int index, term_t t, term_t *a)
   Same as `PL_get_arg()`, but no checking is performed, nor whether `t` is actually a term, nor whether `index` is a valid argument-index.
Exchanging text using length and string

All internal text-representation of SWI-Prolog is represented using char * plus length and allow for 0-bytes in them. The foreign library supports this by implementing a *_nchars() function for each applicable *_chars() function. Below we briefly present the signatures of these functions. For full documentation consult the *_chars() function.

```c
int PL_get_atom_nchars(term_t t, size_t *len, char **s)

int PL_get_list_nchars(term_t t, size_t *len, char **s)

int PL_get_nchars(term_t t, size_t *len, char **s, unsigned int flags)

int PL_put_atom_nchars(term_t t, size_t len, const char *s)

int PL_put_string_nchars(term_t t, size_t len, const char *s)

int PL_put_list_ncodes(term_t t, size_t len, const char *s)

int PL_put_list_nchars(term_t t, size_t len, const char *s)

int PL_unify_atom_nchars(term_t t, size_t len, const char *s)

int PL_unify_string_nchars(term_t t, size_t len, const char *s)

int PL_unify_list_ncodes(term_t t, size_t len, const char *s)

int PL_unify_list_nchars(term_t t, size_t len, const char *s)
```

In addition, the following functions are available for creating and inspecting atoms:

```c
atom_t PL_new_atom_nchars(size_t len, const char *s)

const char * PL_atom_nchars(atom_t a, size_t *len)
```

Create a new atom as PL_new_atom(), but from length and characters.

Extract text and length of an atom.
Wide character versions

Support for exchange of wide character strings is still under consideration. The functions dealing with 8-bit character strings return failure when operating on a wide character atom or Prolog string object. The functions below can extract and unify both 8-bit and wide atoms and string objects. Wide character strings are represented as C arrays of objects of the type `pl wchar_t`, which is guaranteed to be the same as `wchar_t` on platforms supporting this type. For example, on MS-Windows, this represents 16-bit UCS2 characters, while using the GNU C library (glibc) this represents 32-bit UCS4 characters.

```c
atom_t PL_new_atom_wchars(size_t len, const pl wchar_t *s)
    Create atom from wide-character string as PL_new_atom_nchars() does for ISO-Latin-1 strings. If s only contains ISO-Latin-1 characters a normal byte-array atom is created.

pl wchar_t* PL_atom_wchars(atom_t atom, int *len)
    Extract characters from a wide-character atom. Fails (returns NULL) if atom is not a wide-character atom. This is the wide-character version of PL_atom_nchars(). Note that only one of these functions succeeds on a particular atom. Especially, after creating an atom with PL_new_atom_wchars(), extracting the text using PL_atom_wchars() will fail if the atom only contains ISO-Latin-1 characters.

int PL_get_wchars(term_t t, size_t *len, pl wchar_t **s, unsigned flags)
    Wide-character version of PL_get_chars(). The flags argument is the same as for PL_get_chars().

int PL_unify_wchars(term_t t, int type, size_t len, const pl wchar_t *s)
    Unify t with a textual representation of the C wide character array s. The argtype argument defines the Prolog representation and is one of PL_ATOM, PL_STRING, PL_CODE_LIST or PL_CHAR_LIST.

int PL_unify_wchars_diff(term_t +t, term_t -tail, int type, size_t len, const pl wchar_t *s)
    Difference list version of PL_unify_wchars(), only supporting the types PL_CODE_LIST and PL_CHAR_LIST. It serves two purposes. It allows for returning very long lists from data read from a stream without the need for a resizing buffer in C. Also, the use of difference lists is often practical for further processing in Prolog. Examples can be found in packages/clib/readutil.c from the source distribution.
```

Reading a list

The functions from this section are intended to read a Prolog list from C. Suppose we expect a list of atoms, the following code will print the atoms, each on a line:

```c
foreign_t
pl_write_atoms(term_t l)
{ term_t head = PL_new_term_ref();    /* variable for the elements */
  term_t list = PL_copy_term_ref(l);   /* copy as we need to write */

  while( PL_get_list(list, head, list) )
  { char *s;
```
if ( PL_get_atom_chars(head, &s) )
    sprintf("%s\n", s);
else
    PL_fail;
}
return PL_get_nil(list); /* test end for [] */

int PL_get_list(term_t *l, term_t *h, term_t *t)
If \( l \) is a list and not \( [] \) assign a term-reference to the head to \( h \) and to the tail to \( t \).

int PL_get_head(term_t *l, term_t *h)
If \( l \) is a list and not \( [] \) assign a term-reference to the head to \( h \).

int PL_get_tail(term_t *l, term_t *t)
If \( l \) is a list and not \( [] \) assign a term-reference to the tail to \( t \).

int PL_get_nil(term_t *l)
Succeeds if \( l \) represents the atom \( [] \).

int PL_skip_list(term_t *list, term_t *tail, size_t *len)
This is a multi-purpose function to deal with lists. It allows for finding the length of a list, checking whether something is a list, etc. The reference \( tail \) is set to point to the end of the list, \( len \) is filled with the number of list-cells skipped and the return-value indicates the status of the list:

**PL_LIST**
The list is a ‘proper’ list: one that ends in \( [] \) and \( tail \) is filled with \( [] \)

**PL_PARTIAL_LIST**
The list is ‘partial’ list: one that ends in a variable and \( tail \) is a reference to this variable.

**PL_CYCLIC_TERM**
The list is cyclic (e.g. \( X = [a—X] \)). \( tail \) points to an arbitrary cell of the list and \( len \) is at most twice the cycle-length of the list.

**PL_NOT_A_LIST**
The term \( list \) is not a list at all. \( tail \) is bound to the non-list term and \( len \) is set to the number of list-cells skipped.

It is allowed to pass 0 for \( tail \) and NULL for \( len \).

**An example: defining write/1 in C**

Figure 9.2 shows a simplified definition of write/1 to illustrate the described functions. This simplified version does not deal with operators. It is called display/1, because it mimics closely the behaviour of this Edinburgh predicate.
foreign_t
pl_display(term_t t)
{ functor_t functor;
  int arity, len, n;
  char *s;

  switch( PL_term_type(t) )
  { case PL_VARIABLE:
    case PL_ATOM:
    case PL_INTEGER:
    case PL_FLOAT:
      PL_get_chars(t, &s, CVT_ALL);
      Sprintf("%s", s);
      break;
    case PL_STRING:
      PL_get_string_chars(t, &s, &len);
      Sprintf("\"%s\"", s);
      break;
    case PL_TERM:
      { term_t a = PL_new_term_ref();

        PL_get_name_arity(t, &name, &arity);
        Sprintf("%s(", PL_atom_chars(name));
        for(n=1; n<=arity; n++)
        { PL_get_arg(n, t, a);
          if ( n > 1 )
            Sprintf("", ");
          pl_display(a);
        }
        Sprintf("\); pl_display(a);
      }
      Sprintf("\n");
      break;
    default:
      PL_fail;  /* should not happen */
  }

  PL_succeed;
}
9.4.4 Constructing Terms

Terms can be constructed using functions from the PL_put_*() and PL_cons_*() families. This approach builds the term ‘inside-out’, starting at the leaves and subsequently creating compound terms. Alternatively, terms may be created ‘top-down’, first creating a compound holding only variables and subsequently unifying the arguments. This section discusses functions for the first approach. This approach is generally used for creating arguments for PL_call() and PL_open_query.

```c
void PL_put_variable(term_t* t)
    // Put a fresh variable in the term, resetting the term-reference to its initial state.

void PL_put_atom(term_t* t, atom_t* a)
    // Put an atom in the term reference from a handle. See also PL_new_atom() and PL_atom_chars().

int PL_put_atom_chars(term_t* t, const char* chars)
    // Put an atom in the term-reference constructed from the 0-terminated string. The string itself
    // will never be referenced by Prolog after this function.

int PL_put_string_chars(term_t* t, const char* chars)
    // Put a zero-terminated string in the term-reference. The data will be copied. See also
    // PL_string_nchars().

int PL_put_string_nchars(term_t* t, size_t len, const char* chars)
    // Put a string, represented by a length/start pointer pair in the term-reference. The data will be
    // copied. This interface can deal with 0-bytes in the string. See also section 9.4.20.

int PL_put_list_chars(term_t* t, const char* chars)
    // Put a list of ASCII values in the term-reference.

int PL_put_integer(term_t* t, long i)
    // Put a Prolog integer in the term reference.

int PL_put_int64(term_t* t, int64_t i)
    // Put a Prolog integer in the term reference.

int PL_put_pointer(term_t* t, void* ptr)
    // Put a Prolog integer in the term-reference. Provided ptr is in the ‘malloc()-area’,
    // PL_get_pointer() will get the pointer back.

int PL_put_float(term_t* t, double f)
    // Put a floating-point value in the term-reference.

int PL_put_functor(term_t* t, functor_t* functor)
    // Create a new compound term from functor and bind t to this term. All arguments of the term
    // will be variables. To create a term with instantiated arguments, either instantiate the arguments
    // using the PL_unify_*() functions or use PL_cons_functor().

int PL_put_list(term_t* l)
    // Same as PL_put_functor(l, PL_new_functor(PL_new_atom(".") , 2)).
```

3Older versions created a variable on the global stack.
void `PL_put_nil(term_t -l)`

Same as `PL_put_atom_chars(""][")`. 

void `PL_put_term(term_t -t1, term_t +t2)`

Make `t1` point to the same term as `t2`. 

int `PL_cons_functor(term_t -h, functor_t f, ...)`

Create a term, whose arguments are filled from variable argument list holding the same number of `term_t` objects as the arity of the functor. To create the term `animal(gnu, 50)`, use:

```c
{ term_t a1 = PL_new_term_ref();
  term_t a2 = PL_new_term_ref();
  term_t t = PL_new_term_ref();
  functor_t animal2;

  /* animal2 is a constant that may be bound to a global variable and re-used */
  animal2 = PL_new_functor(PL_new_atom("animal"), 2);

  PL_put_atom_chars(a1, "gnu");
  PL_put_integer(a2, 50);
  PL_cons_functor(t, animal2, a1, a2);
}
```

After this sequence, the term-references `a1` and `a2` may be used for other purposes.

int `PL_cons_functor_v(term_t -h, functor_t f, term_t a0)`

Creates a compound term like `PL_cons_functor()`, but `a0` is an array of `term_t` references as returned by `PL_new_term_refs()`. The length of this array should match the number of arguments required by the functor.

int `PL_cons_list(term_t -l, term_t +h, term_t +t)`

Create a list (cons-) cell in `l` from the head and tail. The code below creates a list of atoms from a `char **`. The list is built tail-to-head. The `PL_unify_*()` functions can be used to build a list head-to-tail.

```c
void put_list(term_t l, int n, char **words)
{ term_t a = PL_new_term_ref();

  PL_put_nil(l);
  while( --n >= 0 )
  { PL_put_atom_chars(a, words[n]);
    PL_cons_list(l, a, l);
  }
}
```
Note that \( l \) can be redefined within a \texttt{PL_cons_list} call as shown here because operationally its old value is consumed before its new value is set.

### 9.4.5 Unifying data

The functions of this sections \textit{unify} terms with other terms or translated C-data structures. Except for \texttt{PL_unify()}, the functions of this section are specific to SWI-Prolog. They have been introduced because they shorten the code for returning data to Prolog and at the same time make this more efficient by avoiding the need to allocate temporary term-references and reduce the number of calls to the Prolog API. Consider the case where we want a foreign function to return the host name of the machine Prolog is running on. Using the \texttt{PL_get_*()} and \texttt{PL_put_*()} functions, the code becomes:

```c
foreign_t
pl_hostname(term_t name)
{ char buf[100];

    if ( gethostname(buf, sizeof(buf)) )
    { term_t tmp = PL_new_term_ref();

        PL_put_atom_chars(tmp, buf);
        return PL_unify(name, tmp);
    }

    PL_fail;
}
```

Using \texttt{PL_unify_atom_chars()}, this becomes:

```c
foreign_t
pl_hostname(term_t name)
{ char buf[100];

    if ( gethostname(buf, sizeof(buf)) )
    return PL_unify_atom_chars(name, buf);

    PL_fail;
}
```

Note that unification functions that perform multiple bindings may leave part of the bindings in case of failure. See \texttt{PL_unify()} for details.

```c
int PL_unify(term_t \ ?t1, term_t \ ?t2)
Unify two Prolog terms and return TRUE on success.

Care is needed if \texttt{PL_unify()} returns \texttt{FAIL} and the foreign function does not immediately return to Prolog with \texttt{FAIL}. Unification may perform multiple changes to either \( t1 \) or \( t2 \). A
failing unification may have created bindings before failure is detected. *Already created bindings are not undone.* For example, calling `PL_unify()` on `a(X, a)` and `a(c, b)` binds `X` to `c` and fails when trying to unify `a` to `b`. If control remains in C or even if we want to return success to Prolog, we *must* undo such bindings. This is achieved using `PL_open_foreign_frame()` and `PL_rewind_foreign_frame()`, as show in the snippet below.

```c
{ fid_t fid = PL_open_foreign_frame();

    ...
    if ( !PL_unify(t1, t2) )
        PL_rewind_foreign_frame(fid);
    ...

    PL_close_foreign_frame(fid);
}
```

In addition, `PL_unify()` may have failed on an exception, typically a resource (stack) overflow. This can be tested using `PL_exception()`, passing 0 (zero) for the query-id argument. Foreign functions that encounter an exception must return `FAIL` to Prolog as soon as possible or call `PL_clear_exception()` if they wish to ignore the exception.

```c
int PL_unify_atom(term_t ?t, atom_t a)
    Unify `t` with the atom `a` and return non-zero on success.

int PL_unify_bool(term_t ?t, int a)
    Unify `t` with either `true` or `false`.

int PL_unify_chars(term_t ?t, int flags, size_t len, const char *chars)
    New function to deal with unification of `chars` with various encodings to a Prolog representation. The `flags` argument is a bitwise or specifying the Prolog target type and the encoding of `chars`. Prolog types is one of PL_ATOM, PL_STRING, PL_CODE_LIST or PL_CHAR_LIST. Representations is one of REP_ISO_LATIN_1, REP_UTF8 or REP_MB. See `PL_get_chars()` for a definition of the representation types. If `len` is −1 `chars` must be 0-terminated and the length is computed from `chars` using `strlen()`.

    If `flags` includes PL_DIFF_LIST and type is one of PL_CODE_LIST or PL_CHAR_LIST, the text is converted to a difference list. The tail of the difference list is `t + 1`.

int PL_unify_atom_chars(term_t ?t, const char *chars)
    Unify `t` with an atom created from `chars` and return non-zero on success.

int PL_unify_list_chars(term_t ?t, const char *chars)
    Unify `t` with a list of ASCII characters constructed from `chars`.

void PL_unify_string_chars(term_t ?t, const char *chars)
    Unify `t` with a Prolog string object created from the zero-terminated string `chars`. The data will be copied. See also `PL_unify_string_nchars()`.

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**SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual**
9.4. THE FOREIGN INCLUDE FILE

void \texttt{PL\_unify\_string\_nchars}(term \_t ?t, size \_t len, const char \_*chars)

Unify \texttt{t} with a Prolog string object created from the string created from the \texttt{len/chars} pair. The data will be copied. This interface can deal with 0-bytes in the string. See also section 9.4.20.

int \texttt{PL\_unify\_integer}(term \_t ?t, long \_n)

Unify \texttt{t} with a Prolog integer from \texttt{n}.

int \texttt{PL\_unify\_int64}(term \_t ?t, int64 \_t n)

Unify \texttt{t} with a Prolog integer from \texttt{n}.

int \texttt{PL\_unify\_float}(term \_t ?t, double \_f)

Unify \texttt{t} with a Prolog float from \texttt{f}.

int \texttt{PL\_unify\_pointer}(term \_t ?t, void \_*ptr)

Unify \texttt{t} with a Prolog integer describing the pointer. See also \texttt{PL\_put\_pointer()} and \texttt{PL\_get\_pointer()}.

int \texttt{PL\_unify\_functor}(term \_t ?t, functor \_t f)

If \texttt{t} is a compound term with the given functor, just succeed. If it is unbound, create a term and bind the variable, else fails. Note that this function does not create a term if the argument is already instantiated.

int \texttt{PL\_unify\_list}(term \_t ?l, term \_t \_h, term \_t \_t)

Unify \texttt{l} with a list-cell (./2). If successful, write a reference to the head of the list to \texttt{h} and a reference to the tail of the list into \texttt{t}. This reference may be used for subsequent calls to this function. Suppose we want to return a list of atoms from a char **. We could use the example described by \texttt{PL\_put\_list()}, followed by a call to \texttt{PL\_unify()}, or we can use the code below. If the predicate argument is unbound, the difference is minimal (the code based on \texttt{PL\_put\_list()} is probably slightly faster). If the argument is bound, the code below may fail before reaching the end of the word-list, but even if the unification succeeds, this code avoids a duplicate (garbage) list and a deep unification.

```c
foreign_t
pl_get_environ(term_t env)
{
    term_t l = PL_copy_term_ref(env);
    term_t a = PL_new_term_ref();
    extern char **environ;
    char **e;

    for(e = environ; *e; e++)
    {
        if ( !PL_unify_list(l, a, l) ||
            !PL_unify_atom_chars(a, *e) )
            PL_fail;
    }

    return PL_unify_nil(l);
}
```
int **PL_unify_nil(term_t ?t)
    Unify t with the atom [].

int **PL_unify_arg(int index, term_t ?t, term_t ?a)
    Unifies the index-th argument (1-based) of t with a.

int **PL_unify_term(term_t ?t, ...)
    Unify t with a (normally) compound term. The remaining arguments is a sequence of a type
    identifier, followed by the required arguments. This predicate is an extension to the Quintus
    and SICStus foreign interface from which the SWI-Prolog foreign interface has been derived,
    but has proved to be a powerful and comfortable way to create compound terms from C. Due to
    the vararg packing/unpacking and the required type-switching this interface is slightly slower
    than using the primitives. Please note that some bad C-compilers have fairly low limits on the
    number of arguments that may be passed to a function.

Special attention is required when passing numbers. C ‘promotes’ any integral smaller than
int to int. I.e. the types char, short and int are all passed as int. In addition, on most
32-bit platforms int and long are the same. Up-to version 4.0.5, only PL_INTEGER could be
specified which was taken from the stack as long. Such code fails when passing small integral
types on machines where int is smaller than long. It is advised to use PL_SHORT, PL_INT
or PL_LONG as appropriate. Similar, C compilers promote float to double and therefore
PL_FLOAT and PL_DOUBLE are synonyms.

The type identifiers are:

PL_VARIABLE none
    No op. Used in arguments of PL_FUNCTOR.

PL_BOOL int
    Unify the argument with true or false.

PL_ATOM atom_t
    Unify the argument with an atom, as in PL_unify_atom().

PL_CHARS const char *
    Unify the argument with an atom, constructed from the C char *, as in
    PL_unify_atom_chars().

PL_NCHARS size_t, const char *
    Unify the argument with an atom, constructed from length and char* as in
    PL_unify_atom_nchars().

PL_UTF8_CHARS const char *
    Create an atom from a UTF-8 string.

PL_UTF8_STRING const char *
    Create a packed string object from a UTF-8 string.

PL_MBCHARS const char *
    Create an atom from a multi-byte string in the current locale.

PL_MBCODES const char *
    Create a list of character codes from a multi-byte string in the current locale.

PL_MBSTRING const char *
    Create a packed string object from a multi-byte string in the current locale.
9.4. THE FOREIGN INCLUDE FILE

PL_NWCHARS size_t, const wchar_t *
Create an atom from a length and a wide character pointer.

PL_NWCODES size_t, const wchar_t *
Create an list of character codes from a length and a wide character pointer.

PL_NWSTRING size_t, const wchar_t *
Create a packed string object from a length and a wide character pointer.

PL_SHORT short
Unify the argument with an integer, as in PL_unify_integer(). As short is promoted to int, PL_SHORT is a synonym for PL_INT.

PL_INTEGER long
Unify the argument with an integer, as in PL_unify_integer().

PL_INT int
Unify the argument with an integer, as in PL_unify_integer().

PL_LONG long
Unify the argument with an integer, as in PL_unify_integer().

PL_INT64 int64_t
Unify the argument with a 64-bit integer, as in PL_unify_int64().

PL_INTPTR intptr_t
Unify the argument with an integer with the same width as a pointer. On most machines this is the same as PL_LONG. but on 64-bit MS-Windows pointers are 64-bit while longs are only 32-bits.

PL_DOUBLE double
Unify the argument with a float, as in PL_unify_float(). Note that, as the argument is passed using the C vararg conventions, a float must be casted to a double explicitly.

PL_FLOAT double
Unify the argument with a float, as in PL_unify_float().

PL_POINTER void *
Unify the argument with a pointer, as in PL_unify_pointer().

PL_STRING const char *
Unify the argument with a string object, as in PL_unify_string_chars().

PL_TERM term_t
Unify a subterm. Note this may the return value of a PL_new_term_ref() call to get access to a variable.

PL_FUNCTOR functor_t, ...
Unify the argument with a compound term. This specification should be followed by exactly as many specifications as the number of arguments of the compound term.

PL_FUNCTOR_CHARS const char *name, int arity, ...
Create a functor from the given name and arity and then behave as PL_FUNCTOR.

PL_LIST int length, ... Create a list of the indicated length. The following arguments contain the elements of the list.
For example, to unify an argument with the term \texttt{language(dutch)}, the following skeleton may be used:

```c
static functor_t FUNCTOR_language1;

static void init_constants()
{ FUNCTOR_language1 = PL_new_functor(PL_new_atom("language"), 1);
}

foreign_t pl_get_lang(term_t r)
{ return PL_unify_term(r,
   PL_FUNCTOR, FUNCTOR_language1,
   PL_CHARS, "dutch");
}

install_t install()
{ PL_register_foreign("get_lang", 1, pl_get_lang, 0);
   init_constants();
}
```

int \texttt{PL\_chars\_to\_term(const char *chars, term\_t t)}
Parse the string \texttt{chars} and put the resulting Prolog term into \texttt{t}. \texttt{chars} may or may not be closed using a Prolog full-stop (i.e., a dot followed by a blank). Returns \texttt{FALSE} if a syntax error was encountered and \texttt{TRUE} after successful completion. In addition to returning \texttt{FALSE}, the exception-term is returned in \texttt{t} on a syntax error. See also \texttt{term\_to\_atom/2}.

The following example build a goal-term from a string and calls it.

```c
int call_chars(const char *goal)
{ fid_t fid = PL_open_foreign_frame();
   term_t g = PL_new_term_ref();
   BOOL rval;

   if ( PL_chars_to_term(goal, g) )
      rval = PL_call(goal, NULL);
   else
      rval = FALSE;

   PL_discard_foreign_frame(fid);
   return rval;
}
...
9.4. THE FOREIGN INCLUDE FILE

```c

char * PL_quote(int chr, const char *string)
Return a quoted version of `string`. If `chr` is `'\''`, the result is a quoted atom. If `chr` is `'"'`, the result is a string. The result string is stored in the same ring of buffers as described with the BUF_RING argument of PL_get_chars();

In the current implementation, the string is surrounded by `chr` and any occurrence of `chr` is doubled. In the future the behaviour will depend on the character_escapes Prolog flag.

9.4.6 Convience functions to generate Prolog exceptions

The typical implementation of a foreign predicate first uses the PL_get_*() functions to extract C datatypes from the Prolog terms. Failure of any of these functions is normally because the Prolog term is of the wrong type. The *ex() family of functions are wrappers around (mostly) the PL_get_*() functions, such that we can write code in the style below and get proper exceptions if an argument is uninstantiated or of the wrong type.

```c
/** set_size(+Name:atom, +Width:int, +Height:int) is det.

static foreign_t
set_size(term_t name, term_t width, term_t height)
{ char *n;
  int w, h;

  if ( !PL_get_chars(name, &n, CVT_ATOM|CVT_EXCEPTION) ||
      !PL_get_integer_ex(with, &w) ||
      !PL_get_integer_ex(height, &h) )
    return FALSE;

  ...
}

int PL_get_atom_ex(term_t t, atom_t *a)
; As PL_get_atom(), but raises a type or instantiation error if t is not an atom.

int PL_get_integer_ex(term_t t, int *i)
; As PL_get_integer(), but raises a type or instantiation error if t is not an integer or a representation error if the Prolog integer does not fit in a C int.

int PL_get_long_ex(term_t t, long *i)
; As PL_get_long(), but raises a type or instantiation error if t is not an atom or a representation error if the Prolog integer does not fit in a C long.
```
int PL_get_int64_ex(term_t t, int64_t *i)
    ; As PL_get.int64(), but raises a type or instantiation error if t is not an atom or a representation error if the Prolog integer does not fit in a C int64_t.

int PL_get_intptr_ex(term_t t, intptr_t *i)
    ; As PL_get.intptr(), but raises a type or instantiation error if t is not an atom or a representation error if the Prolog integer does not fit in a C intptr_t.

int PL_get_size_ex(term_t t, size_t *i)
    ; As PL_get.size(), but raises a type or instantiation error if t is not an atom or a representation error if the Prolog integer does not fit in a C size_t.

int PL_get_bool_ex(term_t t, int *i)
    ; As PL_get.atom_ex(), but raises a type or instantiation error if t is not an atom.

int PL_get_float_ex(term_t t, double *f)
    ; As PL_get.atom_ex(), but raises a type or instantiation error if t is not an atom.

int PL_get_char_ex(term_t t, int *p, int eof)
    ; Get a character code from t, where t is either an integer or an atom with length one. If eof is TRUE and t is -1, p is filled with -1. Raises an appropriate error if the conversion is not possible.

int PL_get_pointer_ex(term_t t, void **addrp)
    ; As PL_get.pointer(), but raises a type or instantiation error if t is not a pointer.

int PL_get_list_ex(term_t l, term_t h, term_t t)
    ; As PL_get_list(), but raises a type or instantiation error if t is not a list.

int PL_get_nil_ex(term_t l)
    ; As PL_get.nil(), but raises a type or instantiation error if t is not the empty list.

int PL_unify_list_ex(term_t l, term_t h, term_t t)
    ; As PL_unify_list(), but raises a type error if t is not a variable, list-cell or the empty list.

int PL_unify_nil_ex(term_t l)
    ; As PL_unify.nil(), but raises a type error if t is not a variable, list-cell or the empty list.

int PL_unify_bool_ex(term_t t, int val)
    ; As PL_unify.bool(), but raises a type error if t is not a variable, or a boolean.

The second family of functions in this section simplifies the generation of ISO compatible error terms. Any foreign function that calls this function must return to Prolog with the return code of the error function or the constant FALSE. If available, these error functions add the name of the calling predicate to the error context. See also PL_raise_exception().

int PL_instantiation_error(term_t culprit)
    Raise instantiation_error. Culprit is ignored, but should be bound to the term that is not a variable. See instantiation_error/1.

int PL_representation_error(const char *resource)
    Raise representation_error(resource). See representation_error/1.
9.4. THE FOREIGN INCLUDE FILE

int PL_type_error(const char *expected, term_t culprit)
    Raise type_error(expected, culprit). See type_error/2.

int PL_domain_error(const char *expected, term_t culprit)
    Raise domain_error(expected, culprit). See domain_error/2.

int PL_existence_error(const char *type, term_t culprit)
    Raise existence_error(type, culprit). See type_error/2.

int PL_permission_error(const char *operation, const char *type, term_t culprit)
    Raise permission_error(operation, type, culprit). See permission_error/3.

9.4.7 BLOBS: Using atoms to store arbitrary binary data

SWI-Prolog atoms as well as strings can represent arbitrary binary data of arbitrary length. This
facility is attractive for storing foreign data such as images in an atom. An atom is a unique handle to
this data and the atom garbage collector is able to destroy atoms that are no longer referenced by the
Prolog engine. This property of atoms makes them attractive as a handle to foreign resources, such as
Java atoms, Microsoft’s COM objects, etc., providing safe combined garbage collection.

To exploit these features safely and in an organised manner the SWI-Prolog foreign interface
allows for creating ‘atoms’ with additional type information. The type is represented by a structure
holding C function pointers that tell Prolog how to handle releasing the atom, writing it, sorting it,
etc. Two atoms created with different types can represent the same sequence of bytes. Atoms are first
ordered on the rank number of the type and then on the result of the compare() function. Rank
numbers are assigned when the type is registered.

Defining a BLOB type

The type PL_blob_t represents a structure with the layout displayed above. The structure contains
additional fields at the ...for internal bookkeeping as well as future extension.

```c
typedef struct PL_blob_t
{
    unsigned long magic;    / * PL_BLOB_MAGIC */
    unsigned long flags;    / * Bitwise or of PL_BLOB_* */
    char * name;            / * name of the type */
    int (*release)(atom_t a);
    int (*compare)(atom_t a, atom_t b);
    int (*write)(I STREAM *s, atom_t a, int flags);
    void (*acquire)(atom_t a);
...
} PL_blob_t;
```

For each type exactly one such structure should be allocated. Its first field must be initialised to
PL_BLOB_MAGIC. The flags is a bitwise or of the following constants:

**PL_BLOB_TEXT**

If specified the blob is assumed to contain text and is considered a normal Prolog atom.
PL_BLOB_UNIQUE
If specified the system ensures that the blob-handle is a unique reference for a blob with the given type, length and content. If this flag is not specified each lookup creates a new blob.

PL_BLOB_NOCOPY
By default the content of the blob is copied. Using this flag the blob references the external data directly. The user must ensure the provided pointer is valid as long as the atom lives. If PL_BLOB_UNIQUE is also specified uniqueness is determined by comparing the pointer rather than the data pointed at.

The name field represents the type name as available to Prolog. See also current_blob/2. The other field are function pointers that must be initialised to proper functions or NULL to get the default behaviour of built-in atoms. Below are the defined member functions:

```c
void acquire(atom_t a)
   Called if a new blob of this type is created through PL_put_blob() or PL_unify_blob(). This callback may be used together with the release hook to deal with reference counted external objects.

int release(atom_t a)
   The blob (atom) a is about to be released. This function can retrieve the data of the blob using PL_blob_data(). If it returns FALSE the atom garbage collector will not reclaim the atom.

int compare(atom_t a, atom_t b)
   Compare the blobs a and b, both of which are of the type associated to this blob-type. Return values are, as memcmp(), < 0 if a is less then b, = 0 if both are equal and > 0 otherwise.

int write(IOSTREAM *s, atom_t a, int flags)
   Write the content of the blob a to the stream s and respecting the flags. The flags are a bitwise or of zero or more of the PL_WRT_* flags defined in SWI-Prolog.h. This prototype is available if the undocumented SWI-Stream.h is included before SWI-Prolog.h.

   If this function is not provided, write/1 emits the content of the blob for blobs of type PL_BLOB_TEXT or a string of the format <$hex data> for binary blobs.

   If a blob type is registered from a loadable object (shared object or DLL) the blob-type must be deregistered before the object may be released.

int PL_unregister_blob_type(PL_blob_t *type)
   Unlink the blob type from the registered type and transform the type of possible living blobs to unregistered, avoiding further reference to the type structure, functions referred by it as well as the data. This function returns TRUE if no blobs of this type existed and FALSE otherwise. PL_unregister_blob_type() is intended for the uninstall() hook of foreign modules, avoiding further references to the module.
```

Accessing blobs

The blob access functions are similar to the atom accessing functions. Blobs being atoms, the atom functions operate on blobs and visa versa. For clarity and possible future compatibility issues however it is not advised to rely on this.
9.4. THE FOREIGN INCLUDE FILE

int PL_is_blob(term_t t, PL_blob_t **type)
Succeeds if t refers to a blob, in which case type is filled with the type of the blob.

int PL_unify_blob(term_t t, void *blob, size_t len, PL_blob_t *type)
Unify t to a new blob constructed from the given data and associated to the given type. See also PL_unify_atom_nchars().

int PL_put_blob(term_t t, void *blob, size_t len, PL_blob_t *type)
Store the described blob in t. The return value indicates whether a new blob was allocated (FALSE) or the blob is a reference to an existing blob (TRUE). Reporting new/existing can be used to deal with external objects having their own reference counts. If the return is TRUE this reference count must be incremented and it must be decremented on blob destruction callback. See also PL_put_atom_nchars().

int PL_get_blob(term_t t, void **blob, size_t *len, PL_blob_t **type)
If t holds a blob or atom get the data and type and return TRUE. Otherwise return FALSE. Each result pointer may be NULL, in which case the requested information is ignored.

void * PL_blob_data(atom_t a, size_t *len, PL_blob_t **type)
Get the data and type associated to a blob. This function is mainly used from the callback functions described in section 9.4.7.

9.4.8 Exchanging GMP numbers

If SWI-Prolog is linked with the GNU Multiple Precision Arithmetic Library (GMP, used by default), the foreign interface provides functions for exchanging numeric values to GMP types. To access these functions the header <gmp.h> must be included before <SWI-Prolog.h>. Foreign code using GMP linked to SWI-Prolog asks for some considerations.

- SWI-Prolog normally rebinds the GMP allocation functions using mp_set_memory_functions(). This means SWI-Prolog must be initialised before the foreign code touches any GMP function. You can call \funcref{PL_action}{PL_GMP_SET_ALLOC_FUNCTIONS, TRUE} to force Prolog’s GMP initialization without doing the rest of the Prolog initialization. If you do not want Prolog rebinding the GMP allocation, call \funcref{PL_action}{PL_GMP_SET_ALLOC_FUNCTIONS, FALSE} before initializing Prolog.

- On Windows, each DLL has its own memory pool. To make exchange of GMP numbers between Prolog and foreign code possible you must either let Prolog rebind the allocation functions (default) or you must recompile SWI-Prolog to link to a DLL version of the GMP library.

Here is an example exploiting the function mpz_nextprime():

```c
#include <gmp.h>
#include <SWI-Prolog.h>

static foreign_t
next_prime(term_t n, term_t prime)
{ mpz_t mpz;
```
```c
int rc;

mpz_init(mpz);
if ( PL_get_mpz(n, mpz) )
{
    mpz_nextprime(mpz, mpz);
    rc = PL_unify_mpz(prime, mpz);
} else
    rc = FALSE;

mpz_clear(mpz);
return rc;
}

install_t
install()
{
    PL_register_foreign("next_prime", 2, next_prime, 0);
}
```

```c
int PL_get_mpz(term_t t, mpz_t mpz)
{
    if (t represents an integer mpz is filled with the value and the function returns TRUE. Otherwise
mpz is untouched and the function returns FALSE. Note that mpz must have been initialised
before calling this function and must be cleared using mpz_clear() to reclaim any storage
associated with it.

int PL_get_mpq(term_t t, mpq_t mpq)
{
    if (t is an integer or rational number (term rdiv/2) mpq is filled with the normalise rational
number and the function returns TRUE. Otherwise mpq is untouched and the function returns
FALSE. Note that mpq must have been initialised before calling this function and must be
cleared using mpq_clear() to reclaim any storage associated with it.

int PL_unify_mpz(term_t t, mpz_t mpz)
{
    Unify t with the integer value represented by mpz and return TRUE on success. The mpz
argument is not changed.

int PL_unify_mpq(term_t t, mpq_t mpq)
{
    Unify t with a rational number represented by mpq and return TRUE on success. Note that t is
unified with an integer if the denominator is 1. The mpq argument is not changed.

9.4.9 Calling Prolog from C

The Prolog engine can be called from C. There are two interfaces for this. For the first, a term is
created that could be used as an argument to call/1 and next PL_call() is used to call Prolog.
This system is simple, but does not allow to inspect the different answers to a non-deterministic goal
and is relatively slow as the runtime system needs to find the predicate. The other interface is based on
PL_open_query(), PL_next_solution() and PL_cut_query() or PL_close_query().
This mechanism is more powerful, but also more complicated to use.
```
Predicate references

This section discusses the functions used to communicate about predicates. Though a Prolog predicate may defined or not, redefined, etc., a Prolog predicate has a handle that is not destroyed, nor moved. This handle is known by the type `predicate_t`.

```c
predicate_t PL_pred(functor_t f, module_t m)
    Return a handle to a predicate for the specified name/arity in the given module. This function always succeeds, creating a handle for an undefined predicate if no handle was available. If the module argument m is NULL, the current context module is used.
```

```c
predicate_t PL_predicate(const char *name, int arity, const char* module)
    Same as PL_pred(), but provides a more convenient interface to the C-programmer.
```

```c
void PL_predicate_info(predicate_t p, atom_t *n, int *a, module_t *m)
    Return information on the predicate p. The name is stored over n, the arity over a, while m receives the definition module. Note that the latter need not be the same as specified with PL_predicate(). If the predicate is imported into the module given to PL_predicate(), this function will return the module where the predicate is defined. Any of the arguments n, a and m can be NULL.
```

Initiating a query from C

This section discusses the functions for creating and manipulating queries from C. Note that a foreign context can have at most one active query. This implies it is allowed to make strictly nested calls between C and Prolog (Prolog calls C, calls Prolog, calls C, etc., but it is not allowed to open multiple queries and start generating solutions for each of them by calling PL_next_solution(). Be sure to call PL_cut_query() or PL_close_query() on any query you opened before opening the next or returning control back to Prolog.

```c
qid_t PL_open_query(module_t ctx, int flags, predicate_t p, term_t +t0)
    Opens a query and returns an identifier for it. ctx is the context module of the goal. When NULL, the context module of the calling context will be used, or user if there is no calling context (as may happen in embedded systems). Note that the context module only matters for meta-predicates. See meta_predicate/1, context_module/1 and module_transparent/1. The p argument specifies the predicate, and should be the result of a call to PL_pred() or PL_predicate(). Note that it is allowed to store this handle as global data and reuse it for future queries. The term-reference t0 is the first of a vector of term-references as returned by PL_new_termRefs(n).
```

The `flags` arguments provides some additional options concerning debugging and exception handling. It is a bitwise or of the following values:

```c
PL_Q_NORMAL
    Normal operation. The debugger inherits its settings from the environment. If an exception occurs that is not handled in Prolog, a message is printed and the tracer is started to debug the error.4
```

---

4Do not pass the integer 0 for normal operation, as this is interpreted as `PL_Q_NODEBUG` for backward compatibility reasons.
PLQ_NODEBUG
Switch off the debugger while executing the goal. This option is used by many calls
to hook-predicates to avoid tracing the hooks. An example is print/1 calling
portray/1 from foreign code.

PLQ_CATCH_EXCEPTION
If an exception is raised while executing the goal, do not report it, but make it available
for PL_exception().

PLQ_PASS_EXCEPTION
As PLQ_CATCH_EXCEPTION, but do not invalidate the exception-term while calling
PL_close_query(). This option is experimental.

PL_open_query() can return a query-identifier ‘0’ if there is not enough space on the en-
vironment stack. This function succeeds, even if the referenced predicate is not defined. In
this case, running the query using PL_next_solution() will return an existence_error. See
PL_exception().

The example below opens a query to the predicate is_a/2 to find the ancestor of ‘me’. The
reference to the predicate is valid for the duration of the process and may be cached by the
client.

```c
char *ancestor(const char *me)
{
    term_t a0 = PL_new_term_refs(2);
    static predicate_t p;

    if (!p)
        p = PL_predicate("is_a", 2, "database");

    PL_put_atom_chars(a0, me);
    PL_open_query(NULL, PL_Q_NORMAL, p, a0);
    ...
}
```

int PL_next_solution(qid_t qid)
Generate the first (next) solution for the given query. The return value is TRUE if a solution
was found, or FALSE to indicate the query could not be proven. This function may be called
repeatedly until it fails to generate all solutions to the query.

void PL_cut_query(qid)
Discards the query, but does not delete any of the data created by the query. It just invalidate
qid, allowing for a new call to PL_open_query() in this context.

void PL_close_query(qid)
As PL_cut_query(), but all data and bindings created by the query are destroyed.

int PL_call_predicate(module_t m, int flags, predicate_t pred, term_t +t0)
Shorthand for PL_open_query(), PL_next_solution(), PL_cut_query(), generating a single solution. The arguments are the same as for PL_open_query(), the return value
is the same as PL_next_solution().
9.4. THE FOREIGN INCLUDE FILE

int PL_call(term_t, module_t)
Call term just like the Prolog predicate once/1. Term is called in the specified module, or in
the context module if module_t = NULL. Returns TRUE if the call succeeds, FALSE otherwise.
Figure 9.3 shows an example to obtain the number of defined atoms. All checks are omitted to
improve readability.

9.4.10 Discarding Data

The Prolog data created and term-references needed to setup the call and/or analyse the result can in
most cases be discarded right after the call. PL_close_query() allows for destructing the data,
while leaving the term-references. The calls below may be used to destroy term-references and data.
See figure 9.3 for an example.

fid_t PL_open_foreign_frame()
Created a foreign frame, holding a mark that allows the system to undo bindings and destroy
data created after it as well as providing the environment for creating term-references. This
function is called by the kernel before calling a foreign predicate.

void PL_close_foreign_frame(fid_t id)
Discard all term-references created after the frame was opened. All other Prolog data is re-
tained. This function is called by the kernel whenever a foreign function returns control back
to Prolog.

void PL_discard_foreign_frame(fid_t id)
Same as PL_close_foreign_frame(), but also undo all bindings made since the open and
destroy all Prolog data.

void PL_rewind_foreign_frame(fid_t id)
Undo all bindings and discard all term-references created since the frame was created, but does
not pop the frame. I.e. the same frame can be rewinded multiple times, and must eventually be
closed or discarded.

It is obligatory to call either of the two closing functions to discard a foreign frame. Foreign
frames may be nested.

9.4.11 Foreign Code and Modules

Modules are identified via a unique handle. The following functions are available to query and ma-
nipulate modules.

module_t PL_context()
Return the module identifier of the context module of the currently active foreign predicate.

int PL_strip_module(term_t +raw, module_t *m, term_t -plain)
Utility function. If raw is a term, possibly holding the module construct ⟨module⟩:⟨rest⟩ this
function will make plain a reference to ⟨rest⟩ and fill module * with ⟨module⟩. For further
nested module constructs the inner most module is returned via module *. If raw is not a
module construct arg will simply be put in plain. If module * is NULL it will be set to the
context module. Otherwise it will be left untouched. The following example shows how to
obtain the plain term and module if the default module is the user module:

...
```c
int count_atoms()
{
    fid_t fid = PL_open_foreign_frame();
    term_t goal = PL_new_term_ref();
    term_t a1 = PL_new_term_ref();
    term_t a2 = PL_new_term_ref();
    functor_t s2 = PL_new_functor(PL_new_atom("statistics"), 2);
    int atoms;

    PL_put_atom_chars(a1, "atoms");
    PL_cons_functor(goal, s2, a1, a2);
    PL_call(goal, NULL); /* call it in current module */

    PL_get_integer(a2, &atoms);
    PL_discard_foreign_frame(fid);

    return atoms;
}
```

Figure 9.3: Calling Prolog

{ module m = PL_new_module(PL_new_atom("user"));
    term_t plain = PL_new_term_ref();

    PL_strip_module(term, &m, plain);
    ...
}

atom_t \textbf{PL\_module\_name}(\textit{module} )

Return the name of \textit{module} as an atom.

module_t \textbf{PL\_new\_module}(\textit{atom name} )

Find an existing or create a new module with name specified by the atom \textit{name}.

### 9.4.12 Prolog exceptions in foreign code

This section discusses \textbf{PL\_exception()}, \textbf{PL\_throw()} and \textbf{PL\_raise\_exception()}, the interface functions to detect and generate Prolog exceptions from C-code. \textbf{PL\_throw()} and \textbf{PL\_raise\_exception()} from the C-interface to raise an exception from foreign code. \textbf{PL\_throw()} exploits the C-function longjmp() to return immediately to the innermost \textbf{PL\_next\_solution()}. \textbf{PL\_raise\_exception()} registers the exception term and returns \textbf{FALSE}. If a foreign predicate returns \textbf{FALSE}, while an exception-term is registered a Prolog exception will be raised by the virtual machine.
Calling these functions outside the context of a function implementing a foreign predicate results in undefined behaviour.

`PL_exception()` may be used after a call to `PL_next_solution()` fails, and returns a term reference to an exception term if an exception was raised, and 0 otherwise.

If a C-function, implementing a predicate calls Prolog and detects an exception using `PL_exception()`, it can handle this exception, or return with the exception. Some caution is required though. It is not allowed to call `PL_close_query()` or `PL_discard_foreign_frame()` afterwards, as this will invalidate the exception term. Below is the code that calls a Prolog defined arithmetic function (see `arithmetic_function/1`).

If `PL_next_solution()` succeeds, the result is analysed and translated to a number, after which the query is closed and all Prolog data created after `PL_open_foreign_frame()` is destroyed. On the other hand, if `PL_next_solution()` fails and if an exception was raised, just pass it. Otherwise generate an exception (`PL_error()` is an internal call for building the standard error terms and calling `PL_raise_exception()`). After this, the Prolog environment should be discarded using `PL_cut_query()` and `PL_close_foreign_frame()` to avoid invalidating the exception term.

```c
static int
prologFunction(ArithFunction f, term_t av, Number r)
{
  int arity = f->proc->definition->functor->arity;
  fid_t fid = PL_open_foreign_frame();
  qid_t qid;
  int rval;

  qid = PL_open_query(NULL, PL_Q_NORMAL, f->proc, av);

  if ( PL_next_solution(qid) )
  {
    rval = valueExpression(av+arity-1, r);
    PL_close_query(qid);
    PL_discard_foreign_frame(fid);
  } else
  {
    term_t except;
    if ( (except = PL_exception(qid)) )
    {
      rval = PL_throw(except); /* pass exception */
    } else
    {
      char *name = stringAtom(f->proc->definition->functor->name);

      /* generate exception */
      rval = PL_error(name, arity-1, NULL, ERR_FAILED, f->proc);
    }

    PL_cut_query(qid); /* donot destroy data */
    PL_close_foreign_frame(fid); /* same */
  }

  return rval;
}
```

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
int PL_raise_exception(term_t exception)
    Generate an exception (as throw/1) and return FALSE. Below is an example returning an exception from foreign predicate:

    foreign_t
    pl_hello(term_t to)
    { char *s;

        if ( PL_get_atom_chars(to, &s) )
        { printf("Hello \\
        Hello \"%s\"\n", s);

            PL_succeed;
        } else
        { term_t except = PL_new_term_ref();

            PL_unify_term(except,
                PL_FUNCTOR_CHARS, "type_error", 2,
                PL_CHARS, "atom",
                PL_TERM, to);

            return PL_raise_exception(except);
        }
    }

int PL_throw(term_t exception)
    Similar to PL_raise_exception(), but returns using the C longjmp() function to the innermost PL_next_solution().

term_t PL_exception(qid_t qid)
    If PL_next_solution() fails, this can be due to normal failure of the Prolog call, or because an exception was raised using throw/1. This function returns a handle to the exception term if an exception was raised, or 0 if the Prolog goal simply failed. If there is an exception, PL_exception() allocates a term-handle using PL_new_term_ref() that is used to return the exception term.5

    Additionally, \func{PL_exception}{0} returns the pending exception in the current query or 0 if no exception is pending. This can be used to check the error-status after a failing call to e.g., one of the unification functions.

5This interface differs in two ways from Quintus. The calling predicates simply signal failure if an exception was raised, and a term referenced is returned, rather passed and filled with the error term. Exceptions can only be handled using the PL_next_solution() interface, as a handle to the query is required.
9.4. THE FOREIGN INCLUDE FILE

PL_clear_exception void(T)

effs Prolog that the encountered exception must be ignored. This function must be called if
control remains in C after an previous API calls fails with an exception.6

9.4.13 Catching Signals (Software Interrupts)

SWI-Prolog offers both a C and Prolog interface to deal with software interrupts (signals). The Prolog
mapping is defined in section 4.10. This subsection deals with handling signals from C.

If a signal is not used by Prolog and the handler does not call Prolog in any way, the native signal
interface routines may be used.

Some versions of SWI-Prolog, notably running on popular Unix platforms, handle SIG_SEGV
for guarding the Prolog stacks. If the application wishes to handle this signal too, it should use
PL_signal() to install its handler after initialising Prolog. SWI-Prolog will pass SIG_SEGV to the
user code if it detected the signal is not related to a Prolog stack overflow.

Any handler that wishes to call one of the Prolog interface functions should call PL_signal() for its installation.

void (*)() PL_signal(sig, func)

This function is equivalent to the BSD-Unix signal() function, regardless of the platform used.
The signal handler is blocked while the signal routine is active, and automatically reactivated
after the handler returns.

After a signal handler is registered using this function, the native signal interface redirects the
signal to a generic signal handler inside SWI-Prolog. This generic handler validates the en-
vironment, creates a suitable environment for calling the interface functions described in this
chapter and finally calls the registered user-handler.

By default, signals are handled asynchronously (i.e. at the time they arrive). It is inherently
dangerous to call extensive code fragments, and especially exception related code from asyn-
chronous handlers. The interface allows for synchronous handling of signals. In this case
the native OS handler just schedules the signal using PL_raise(), which is checked by
PL_handle_signals() at the call- and redo-port. This behaviour is realised by or-ing sig
with the constant PL_SIGSYNC.7

Signal handling routines may raise exceptions using PL_raise_exception(). The use of
PL_throw() is not safe. If a synchronous handler raises an exception, the exception is delayed
to the next call to PL_handle_signals();

int PL_raise(int sig)

Register sig for synchronous handling by Prolog. Synchronous signals are handled at the
call-port or if foreign code calls PL_handle_signals(). See also thread_signal/2.

int PL_handle_signals(void)

Handle any signals pending from PL_raise(). PL_handle_signals() is called at each
pass through the call- and redo-port at a safe point. Exceptions raised by the handler using
PL_raise_exception() are properly passed to the environment.

---

6 This feature is non-portable. Other Prolog systems (e.g., YAP) has no facilities to ignore raised exceptions and the
design of YAP’s exception handling does not support such a facility

7 A better default would be to use synchronous handling, but this interface preserves backward compatibility.
The user may call this function inside long-running foreign functions to handle scheduled interrupts. This routine returns the number of signals handled. If a handler raises an exception, the return value is -1 and the calling routine should return with FALSE as soon as possible.

```c
int PL_get_signum_ex(term t, int *sig)
```

Extract a signal specification from a Prolog term and store as integer signal number in sig. The specification is an integer, lowercase signal name without SIG or the full signal name. These refer to the same: 9, kill and SIGKILL. Leaves a typed, domain or instantiation error if the conversion fails.

### 9.4.14 Miscellaneous

#### Term Comparison

```c
int PL_compare(term t1, term t2)
```

Compares two terms using the standard order of terms and returns -1, 0 or 1. See also compare/3.

```c
int PL_same_compound(term t1, term t2)
```

Yields TRUE if t1 and t2 refer to physically the same compound term and FALSE otherwise.

### Recorded database

In some applications it is useful to store and retrieve Prolog terms from C-code. For example, the XPCE graphical environment does this for storing arbitrary Prolog data as slot-data of XPCE objects.

Please note that the returned handles have no meaning at the Prolog level and the recorded terms are not visible from Prolog. The functions PL_recorded() and PL_erase() are the only functions that can operate on the stored term.

Two groups of functions are provided. The first group (PL_record() and friends) store Prolog terms on the Prolog heap for retrieval during the same session. These functions are also used by recorda/3 and friends. The recorded database may be used to communicate Prolog terms between threads.

```c
record_t PL_record(term t +t)
```

Record the term t into the Prolog database as recorda/3 and return an opaque handle to the term. The returned handle remains valid until PL_erase() is called on it. PL_recorded() is used to copy recorded terms back to the Prolog stack.

```c
int PL_recorded(record_t record, term t -t)
```

Copy a recorded term back to the Prolog stack. The same record may be used to copy multiple instances at any time to the Prolog stack. Returns TRUE on success, and FALSE if there is not enough space on the stack to accomodate the term. See also PL_record() and PL_erase().

```c
void PL_erase(record_t record)
```

Remove the recorded term from the Prolog database, reclaiming all associated memory resources.

The second group (headed by PL_record_external()) provides the same functionality, but the returned data has properties that enable storing the data on an external device. It has been designed
to make it possible to store Prolog terms fast in a compact in an external database. Here are the main features:

- **Independent of session**
  Records can be communicated to another Prolog session and made visible using PL_recorded_external().

- **Binary**
  The representation is binary for maximum performance. The returned data may contain 0-bytes.

- **Byte-order independent**
  The representation can be transferred between machines with different byte-order.

- **No alignment restrictions**
  There are no memory alignment restrictions and copies of the record can thus be moved freely. For example, it is possible to use this representation to exchange terms using shared memory between different Prolog processes.

- **Compact**
  It is assumed that a smaller memory footprint will eventually outperform slightly faster representations.

- **Stable**
  The format is designed for future enhancements without breaking compatibility with older records.

```c
char * PL_recorded_external(term t +t, size_t *len)
```

Record the term \( t \) into the Prolog database as recorda/3 and return an opaque handle to the term. The returned handle remains valid until PL_erase_external() is called on it.

It is allowed to copy the data and use PL_recorded_external() on the copy. The user is responsible for the memory management of the copy. After copying, the original may be discarded using PL_erase_external().

PL_recorded_external() is used to copy such recorded terms back to the Prolog stack.

```c
int PL_recorded_external(const char *record, term t -t)
```

Copy a recorded term back to the Prolog stack. The same record may be used to copy multiple instances at any time to the Prolog stack. See also PL_record_external() and PL_erase_external().

```c
int PL_erase_external(char *record)
```

Remove the recorded term from the Prolog database, reclaiming all associated memory resources.

**Getting file names**

The function PL_get_file_name() provides access to Prolog filenames and its file-search mechanism described with absolute_file_name/3. Its existence is motivated to realise a uniform interface to deal with file-properties, search, naming conventions etc. from foreign code.
int PL_get_file_name(term_t spec, char **name, int flags)
   Translate a Prolog term into a file name. The name is stored in the static buffer ring described
   with PL_get_chars() option BUF_RING. Conversion from the internal UNICODE encoding is done using standard C library functions. flags is a bit-mask controlling the conversion
   process. Options are:

   PL_FILE_ABSOLUTE
       Return an absolute path to the requested file.

   PL_FILE_OSPATH
       Return a the name using the hosting OS conventions. On MS-Windows, \ is used to
       separate directories rather than the canonical /.

   PL_FILE_SEARCH
       Invoke absolute_file_name/3. This implies rules from file_search_path/2
       are used.

   PL_FILE_EXIST
       Demand the path to refer to an existing entity.

   PL_FILE_READ
       Demand read-access on the result.

   PL_FILE_WRITE
       Demand write-access on the result.

   PL_FILE_EXECUTE
       Demand execute-access on the result.

   PL_FILE_NOERRORS
       Do not raise any exceptions.

int PL_get_file_nameW(term_t spec, wchar_t **name, int flags)
   Same as PL_get_file_name(), but returns the filename as a wide-character string. This
   is intended for Windows to access the Unicode version of the Win32 API. Note that the
   flag PL_FILE_OSPATH must be provided to fetch a file name in OS native (e.g., C:\x\y)
   notation.

9.4.15 Errors and warnings

PL_warning() prints a standard Prolog warning message to the standard error (user_error)
stream. Please note that new code should consider using PL_raise_exception() to raise a Prolog
exception. See also section 4.9.

int PL_warning(format, a1, ...)
   Print an error message starting with ‘[WARNING: ’, followed by the output from format,
   followed by a ‘]’ and a newline. Then start the tracer. format and the arguments are the same
   as for printf(2). Always returns FALSE.

9.4.16 Environment Control from Foreign Code

int PL_action(int, ...)
   Perform some action on the Prolog system. int describes the action, Remaining arguments
   depend on the requested action. The actions are listed in table 9.1.
9.4. THE FOREIGN INCLUDE FILE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PL ACTION TRACE</th>
<th>Start Prolog tracer (trace/0). Requires no arguments.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PL ACTION DEBUG</td>
<td>Switch on Prolog debug mode (debug/0). Requires no arguments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL ACTION BACKTRACE</td>
<td>Print backtrace on current output stream. The argument (an int) is the number of frames printed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL ACTION HALT</td>
<td>Halt Prolog execution. This action should be called rather than Unix exit() to give Prolog the opportunity to clean up. This call does not return. The argument (an int) is the exit code. See halt/1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL ACTION ABORT</td>
<td>Generate a Prolog abort (abort/0). This call does not return. Requires no arguments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL ACTION BREAK</td>
<td>Create a standard Prolog break environment (break/0). Returns after the user types the end-of-file character. Requires no arguments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL ACTION_GUIAPP</td>
<td>Win32: Used to indicate the kernel that the application is a GUI application if the argument is not 0 and a console application if the argument is 0. If a fatal error occurs, the system uses a windows messagebox to report this on a GUI application and simply prints the error and exits otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL ACTION WRITE</td>
<td>Write the argument, a char * to the current output stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL ACTION_FLUSH</td>
<td>Flush the current output stream. Requires no arguments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL ACTION_ATTACH_CONSOLE</td>
<td>Attach a console to a thread if it does not have one. See attach console/0.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL GMP SETALLOC_FUNCTIONS</td>
<td>Takes and integer argument. If TRUE, the GMP allocation are immediately bound to the Prolog functions. If FALSE, SWI-Prolog will never rebind the GMP allocation functions. See mp_set_memory_functions() in the GMP documentation. The action returns FALSE if there is no GMP support or GMP is already initialised.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9.1: PL_action() options
### 9.4.17 Querying Prolog

```c
long PL_query(int)
```

Obtain status information on the Prolog system. The actual argument type depends on the information required. `int` describes what information is wanted.\(^8\) The options are given in table 9.2.

### 9.4.18 Registering Foreign Predicates

```c
int PL_register_foreign_in_module(const char *module, const char *name, int arity, foreign_t (*function)(), int flags)
```

Register a C-function to implement a Prolog predicate. After this call returns successfully a predicate with name `name` (a char *) and arity `arity` (a C int) is created in module `module`. If `module` is `NULL`, the predicate is created in the module of the calling context or if no context is present in the module `user`.

When called in Prolog, Prolog will call `function`. `flags` forms bitwise or’ed list of options for the installation. These are:

- `PL_FA_NOTRACE`: Predicate cannot be seen in the tracer
- `PL_FA_TRANSPARENT`: Predicate is module transparent
- `PL_FA_NONDETERMINISTIC`: Predicate is non-deterministic. See also `PL_retry()`.
- `PL_FA_VARARGS`: Use alternative calling convention.

Predicates may be registered either before or after `PL_initialise()`. When registered before initialisation the registration is recorded and executed after installing the system predicates and before loading the saved state.

Default calling (i.e. without `PL_FA_VARARGS`) `function` is passed the same number of term_t

\(^8\)Returning pointers and integers as a long is bad style. The signature of this function should be changed.

---

**Table 9.2: PL_query() options**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PL_QUERY_ARGC</td>
<td>Return an integer holding the number of arguments given to Prolog from Unix.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL_QUERY_ARGV</td>
<td>Return a char ** holding the argument vector given to Prolog from Unix.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL_QUERY_SYMBOLFILE</td>
<td>Return a char * holding the current symbol file of the running process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL_MAX_INTEGER</td>
<td>Return a long, representing the maximal integer value represented by a Prolog integer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL_MIN_INTEGER</td>
<td>Return a long, representing the minimal integer value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL_QUERY_VERSION</td>
<td>Return a long, representing the version as 10,000 × M + 100 × m + p, where M is the major, m the minor version number and p the patch-level. For example, 20717 means 2.7.17.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL_QUERY_ENCODING</td>
<td>Return the default stream encoding of Prolog (of type IOENC).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL_QUERY_USER_CPU</td>
<td>Get amount of user CPU time of the process in milliseconds.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
arguments as the arity of the predicate and, if the predicate is non-deterministic, an extra argument of type control_t (see section 9.4.1). If PL_FA_VARARGS is provided, function is called with three arguments. The first argument is a term_t handle to the first argument. Further arguments can be reached by adding the offset (see also PL_new_term_refs()). The second argument is the arity, which defines the number of valid term-references in the argument vector. The last argument is used for non-deterministic calls. It is currently undocumented and should be defined of type void*.

Here is an example:

```c
static foreign_t
atom_checksum(term_t a0, int arity, void* context)
{
    char *s;

    if ( PL_get_atom_chars(a0, &s) )
    {
        int sum;

        for(sum=0; *s; s++)
            sum += *s&0xff;

        return PL_unify_integer(a0+1, sum&0xff);
    }

    return FALSE;
}

install_t
install()
{
    PL_register_foreign("atom_checksum", 2, atom_checksum, PL_FA_VARARGS);
}
```

```c
int PL_register_foreign(const char *name, int arity, foreign_t (*function)(), int flags)
Same as PL_register_foreign_in_module(), passing NULL for the module.
```

```c
void PL_register_extensions_in_module(const char *module, PL_extension *e)
Register a series of predicates from an array of definitions of the type PL_extension in the given module. If module is NULL, the predicate is created in the module of the calling context or if no context is present in the module user. The PL_extension type is defined as

```c
typedef struct PL_extension
{
    char *predicate_name; /* Name of the predicate */
    short arity; /* Arity of the predicate */
    pl_function_t function; /* Implementing functions */
    short flags; /* Or of PL_FA_... */
} PL_extension;
```

For details, see PL_register_foreign_in_module(). Here is an example of its usage:
static PL_extension predicates[] = {
    { "foo", 1, pl_foo, 0 },
    { "bar", 2, pl_bar, PL_FA_NONDETERMINISTIC },
    { NULL, 0, NULL, 0 }
};

main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    PL_register_extensions_in_module("user", predicates);
    if ( !PL_initialise(argc, argv) )
        PL_halt(1);
    ...
}

void PL_register_extensions( PL_extension *e)
{
    Same as PL_register_extensions_in_module() using NULL for the module argument.
}

9.4.19 Foreign Code Hooks

For various specific applications some hooks re provided.

PL_dispatch_hook_t PL_dispatch_hook(PL_dispatch_hook_t)
{
    If this hook is not NULL, this function is called when reading from the terminal. It is supposed
to dispatch events when SWI-Prolog is connected to a window environment. It can return
two values: PL_DISPATCH_INPUT indicates Prolog input is available on file descriptor 0
or PL_DISPATCH_TIMEOUT to indicate a timeout. The old hook is returned. The type
PL_dispatch_hook_t is defined as:

typedef int (*PL_dispatch_hook_t)(void);

void PL_abort_hook(PL_abort_hook_t)
{
    Install a hook when abort/0 is executed. SWI-Prolog abort/0 is implemented using C
setjmp()/longjmp() construct. The hooks are executed in the reverse order of their registra-
tion after the longjmp() took place and before the Prolog top-level is reinvoked. The type
PL_abort_hook_t is defined as:

typedef void (*PL_abort_hook_t)(void);

int PL_abort_unhook(PL_abort_hook_t)
{
    Remove a hook installed with PL_abort_hook(). Returns FALSE if no such hook is found,
    TRUE otherwise.
void `PL_on_halt(void (*f)(int, void *), void *closure)`
Register the function $f$ to be called if SWI-Prolog is halted. The function is called with two arguments: the exit code of the process (0 if this cannot be determined on your operating system) and the `closure` argument passed to the `PL_on_halt()` call. See also `at_halt/1`.

`PL_agc_hook_t PL_agc_hook(PL_agc_hook_t new)`
Register a hook with the atom-garbage collector (see `garbage_collect_atoms/0` that is called on any atom that is reclaimed. The old hook is returned. If no hook is currently defined, `NULL` is returned. The argument of the called hook is the atom that is to be garbage collected. The return value is an `int`. If the return value is zero, the atom is not reclaimed. The hook may invoke any Prolog predicate.

The example below defines a foreign library for printing the garbage collected atoms for debugging purposes.

```c
#include <SWI-Stream.h>
#include <SWI-Prolog.h>

static int atom_hook(atom_t a)
{
    Sdprintf("AGC: deleting %s\n", PL_atom_chars(a));

    return TRUE;
}

static PL_agc_hook_t old;
install_t install()
{
    old = PL_agc_hook(atom_hook);
}

install_t uninstall()
{
    PL_agc_hook(old);
}
```

### 9.4.20 Storing foreign data

This section provides some hints for handling foreign data in Prolog. With foreign data, we refer to data that is used by foreign language predicates and needs to be passed around in Prolog. Excluding combinations, there are three principal options for storing such data:

- **Natural Prolog data**
  E.g. using the representation one would choose if there was no foreign interface required.

- **Opaque packed Prolog data**
  Data can also be represented in a foreign structure and stored on the Prolog stacks using
PL_put_string_nchars() and retrieved using PL_get_string_chars(). It is generally good practice to wrap the string in a compound term with arity 1, so Prolog can identify the type. portray/1 rules may be used to streamline printing such terms during development.

- **Natural foreign data, passing a pointer**
  An alternative is to pass a pointer to the foreign data. Again, this functor may be wrapped in a compound term.

The choice may be guided using the following distinctions

- **Is the data opaque to Prolog**
  With ‘opaque’ data, we refer to data handled in foreign functions, passed around in Prolog, but of which Prolog never examines the contents of the data itself. If the data is opaque to Prolog, the chosen representation does not depend on simple analysis by Prolog, and the selection will be driven solely by simplicity of the interface and performance (both in time and space).

- **How big is the data**
  Is efficient encoding required? For example, a boolean array may be expressed as a compound term, holding integers each of which contains a number of bits, or as a list of true and false.

- **What is the nature of the data**
  For examples in C, constants are often expressed using ‘enum’ or #define’d integer values. If prolog needs to handle this data, atoms are a more logical choice. Whether or not this mapping is used depends on whether Prolog needs to interpret the data, how important debugging is and how important performance is.

- **What is the lifetime of the data**
  We can distinguish three cases.

  1. The lifetime is dictated by the accessibility of the data on the Prolog stacks. Their is no way by which the foreign code when the data becomes ‘garbage’, and the data thus needs to be represented on the Prolog stacks using Prolog data-types. (2).

  2. The data lives on the ‘heap’ and is explicitly allocated and deallocated. In this case, representing the data using native foreign representation and passing a pointer to it is a sensible choice.

  3. The data lives as during the lifetime of a foreign predicate. If the predicate is deterministic, foreign automatic variables are suitable. if the predicate is non-deterministic, the data may be allocated using malloc() and a pointer may be passed. See section 9.4.1.

**Examples for storing foreign data**

In this section, we will outline some examples, covering typical cases. In the first example, we will deal with extending Prolog’s data representation with integer-sets, represented as bit-vectors. Finally, we discuss the outline of the DDE interface.

**Integer sets** with not-too-far-apart upper- and lower-bounds can be represented using bit-vectors. Common set operations, such as union, intersection, etc. are reduced to simple and’ing and or’ing the bit-vectors. This can be done using Prolog’s unbounded integers.
For really demanding applications, foreign representation will perform better, especially time-wise. Bit-vectors are naturally expressed using string objects. If the string is wrapped in `bitvector/1`, lower-bound of the vector is 0, and the upper-bound is not defined, an implementation for getting and putting the sets as well as the union predicate for it is below.

```c
#include <SWI-Prolog.h>

#define max(a, b) ((a) > (b) ? (a) : (b))
#define min(a, b) ((a) < (b) ? (a) : (b))

static functor_t FUNCTOR_bitvector1;

static int
get_bitvector(term_t in, int *len, unsigned char **data)
{ if ( PL_is_functor(in, FUNCTOR_bitvector1) )
{ term_t a = PL_new_term_ref();

    PL_get_arg(1, in, a);
    return PL_get_string(a, (char **)data, len);
}

    PL_fail;
}

static int
unify_bitvector(term_t out, int len, const unsigned char *data)
{ if ( PL_unify_functor(out, FUNCTOR_bitvector1) )
{ term_t a = PL_new_term_ref();

    PL_get_arg(1, out, a);
    return PL_unify_string_nchars(a, len, (const char *)data);
}

    PL_fail;
}

static foreign_t
pl_bitvector_union(term_t t1, term_t t2, term_t u)
{ unsigned char *s1, *s2;
    int l1, l2;

    if ( get_bitvector(t1, &l1, &s1) &&
        get_bitvector(t2, &l2, &s2) )
{ int l = max(l1, l2);
    unsigned char *s3 = alloca(l);
`
The DDE interface (see section 4.41) represents another common usage of the foreign interface: providing communication to new operating system features. The DDE interface requires knowledge about active DDE server and client channels. These channels contain various foreign data-types. Such an interface is normally achieved using an open/close protocol that creates and destroys a handle. The handle is a reference to a foreign data-structure containing the relevant information.

There are a couple of possibilities for representing the handle. The choice depends on responsibilities and debugging facilities. The simplest approach is to use PL_unify_pointer() and PL_get_pointer(). This approach is fast and easy, but has the drawbacks of (untyped) pointers: there is no reliable way to detect the validity of the pointer, not to verify it is pointing to a structure of the desired type. The pointer may be wrapped into a compound term with arity 1 (i.e., dde_channel((Pointer))), making the type-problem less serious.

Alternatively (used in the DDE interface), the interface code can maintain a (preferably variable length) array of pointers and return the index in this array. This provides better protection. Especially for debugging purposes, wrapping the handle in a compound is a good suggestion.
9.4.21 Embedding SWI-Prolog in other applications

With embedded Prolog we refer to the situation where the ‘main’ program is not the Prolog application. Prolog is sometimes embedded in C, C++, Java or other languages to provide logic based services in a larger application. Embedding loads the Prolog engine as a library to the external language. Prolog itself only provides for embedding in the C-language (compatible with C++). Embedding in Java is achieved using JPL using a C-glue between the Java and Prolog C-interfaces.

The most simple embedded program is below. The interface function \( \text{PL initialise()} \) must be called before any of the other SWI-Prolog foreign language functions described in this chapter, except for PL initialise_hook(), PL new_atom(), PL new functor() and PL register foreign(). PL initialise() interprets all the command-line arguments, except for the \(-t\) toplevel flag that is interpreted by PL toplevel().

```c
int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    #ifdef READLINE /* Remove if you don’t want readline */
        PL initialise_hook(install_readline);
    #endif

    if ( !PL initialise(argc, argv) )
        PL halt(1);

    PL halt(PL toplevel() ? 0 : 1);
}
```

```c
int PL initialise(int argc, char **argv)

Initialises the SWI-Prolog heap and stacks, restores the Prolog state, loads the system and personal initialisation files, runs the at initialization/1 hooks and finally runs the \(-g\) goal hook.

Special consideration is required for \( \text{argv[0]} \). On Unix, this argument passes the part of the command-line that is used to locate the executable. Prolog uses this to find the file holding the running executable. The Windows version uses this to find a module of the running executable. If the specified module cannot be found, it tries the module libpl.dll, containing the Prolog runtime kernel. In all these cases, the resulting file is used for two purposes

- See whether a Prolog saved-state is appended to the file. If this is the case, this state will be loaded instead of the default boot.prc file from the SWI-Prolog home directory. See also qsave program/[1,2] and section 9.5.
- Find the Prolog home directory. This process is described in detail in section 9.6.

PL initialise() returns 1 if all initialisation succeeded and 0 otherwise.\(^9\)

In most cases, \( \text{argc} \) and \( \text{argv} \) will be passed from the main program. It is allowed to create your own argument vector, provided \( \text{argv[0]} \) is constructed according to the rules above. For example:

\(^9\)BUG: Various fatal errors may cause PL initialise to call PL halt(1), preventing it from returning at all.
int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    char *av[10];
    int ac = 0;

    av[ac++] = argv[0];
    av[ac++] = "-x";
    av[ac++] = "mystate";
    av[ac]   = NULL;

    if ( !PL_initialise(ac, av) )
        PL_halt(1);
    ...
}

Please note that the passed argument vector may be referred from Prolog at any time and should therefore be valid as long as the Prolog engine is used.

A good setup in Windows is to add SWI-Prolog’s bin directory to your PATH and either pass a module holding a saved-state, or "libpl.dll" as argv[0]. If the Prolog state is attached to a DLL (see the -dll option of swipl-ld, pass the name of this DLL.

int PL_is_initialised(int *argc, char ***argv)
    Test whether the Prolog engine is already initialised. Returns FALSE if Prolog is not initialised and TRUE otherwise. If the engine is initialised and argc is not NULL, the argument count used with PL_initialise() is stored in argc. Same for the argument vector argv.

void PL_install_readline()
    Installs the GNU-readline line-editor. Embedded applications that do not use the Prolog toplevel should normally delete this line, shrinking the Prolog kernel significantly. Note that the Windows version does not use GNU readline.

int PL_toplevel()
    Runs the goal of the -t toplevel switch (default prolog/0) and returns 1 if successful, 0 otherwise.

int PL_cleanup(int status)
    This function performs the reverse of PL_initialise(). It runs the PL_on_halt() and at_halt/1 handlers, closes all streams (except for the ‘standard I/O’ streams which are flushed only), deallocates all memory and restores all signal handlers. The status argument is passed to the various termination hooks and indicates the exit-status.

    The function returns TRUE if successful and FALSE otherwise. Currently, FALSE is returned when an attempt is made to call PL_cleanup() recursively or if PL_cleanup() is not called from the main-thread.

    In theory, this function allows deleting and restarting the Prolog system in the same process. In practice, SWI-Prolog’s cleanup process is far from complete and trying to revive the system using PL_initialise() will leak memory in the best case. It can also crash the application.
In this state, there is little practical use for this function. If you want to use Prolog temporary consider running it in a separate process. If you want to be able to reset Prolog your options are (again) a separate process, modules or threads.

```c
void PL_cleanup_fork()
```

Close file descriptors associated to Prolog streams except for 0,1 and 2. Stop intervaltimer that may be running on behalf of `profile/1`. The call is intended to be used in combination with `fork()`:

```c
if ( (pid=fork()) == 0 )
{ PL_cleanup_fork();
  <some exec variation>
}
```

The call behaves the same on Windows, though there is probably no meaningful application.

```c
int PL_halt(int status)
```

Cleanup the Prolog environment using `PL_cleanup()` and calls `exit()` with the status argument. As `PL_cleanup()` can only be called from the main thread, this function returns `FALSE` when called from another thread as the main one.\(^\text{10}\)

### Threading, Signals and embedded Prolog

This section applies to Unix-based environments that have signals or multi-threading. The Windows version is compiled for multi-threading and Windows lacks proper signals.

We can distinguish two classes of embedded executables. There are small C/C++-programs that act as an interfacing layer around Prolog. Most of these programs can be replaced using the normal Prolog executable extended with a dynamically loaded foreign extension and in most cases this is the preferred route. In other cases, Prolog is embedded in a complex application that—like Prolog—wants to control the process environment. A good example is Java. Embedding Prolog is generally the only way to get these environments together in one process image. Java applications however are by nature multi-threaded and appear to do signal-handling (software interrupts).

On Unix systems, SWI-Prolog uses three signals:

**SIGUSR1** is used to synchronise atom- and clause garbage collection. The handler is installed at the start of GC and reverted to the old setting after completing.

**SIGUSR2** has an empty signal handler. This signal is sent to a thread after sending a thread-signal (see `thread_signal/2`). It causes blocking system calls to return with `EINTR`, which gives them to opportunity to react on thread-signals.

**SIGINT** is used by the toplevel to activate the tracer (typically bound to control-C). The first control-C posts a request for starting the tracer in a safe synchronous fashion. If control-C is hit again before the safe route is executed, it prompts the user whether or not a forced interrupt is desired.

The `--nosignals` option can be used to inhibit processing of **SIGINT**. The other signals are vital for the functioning of SWI-Prolog. If they conflict with other applications, signal handling of either component must be modified. The SWI-Prolog signals are defined in `pl-thread.h` of the source-distribution.

\(^\text{10}\)BUG: Eventually it may become possible to call `PL_halt()` from any thread.
9.5 Linking embedded applications using swipl-ld

The utility program swipl-ld (Win32: swipl-ld.exe) may be used to link a combination of C-files and Prolog files into a stand-alone executable. swipl-ld automates most of what is described in the previous sections.

In the normal usage, a copy is made of the default embedding template \ldots/pl/include/stub.c. The main() routine is modified to suit your application. PL initialise() must be passed the program-name (argv[0]) (Win32: the executing program can be obtained using GetModuleFileName()). The other elements of the command-line may be modified. Next, swipl-ld is typically invoked as:

```
swipl-ld -o output stubfile.c [other-c-or-o-files] [plfiles]
```

swipl-ld will first split the options into various groups for both the C-compiler and the Prolog compiler. Next, it will add various default options to the C-compiler and call it to create an executable holding the user’s C-code and the Prolog kernel. Then, it will call the SWI-Prolog compiler to create a saved state from the provided Prolog files and finally, it will attach this saved state to the created emulator to create the requested executable.

Below, it is described how the options are split and which additional options are passed.

- **-help**
  Print brief synopsis.

- **-pl prolog**
  Select the prolog to use. This prolog is used for two purposes: get the home-directory as well as the compiler/linker options and create a saved state of the Prolog code.

- **-ld linker**
  Linker used to link the raw executable. Default is to use the C-compiler (Win32: link.exe).

- **-cc C-compiler**
  Compiler for .c files found on the command-line. Default is the compiler used to build SWI-Prolog accessible through the Prolog flag c_cc (Win32: cl.exe).

- **-c++ C++-compiler**
  Compiler for C++ sources (extensions .cpp, .cxx, .cc or .C) files found on the command-line. Default is c++ or g++ if the C-compiler is gcc (Win32: cl.exe).

- **-nostate**
  Just relink the kernel, do not add any Prolog code to the new kernel. This is used to create a new kernel holding additional foreign predicates on machines that do not support the shared-library (DLL) interface, or if building the state cannot be handled by the default procedure used by swipl-ld. In the latter case the state is created separately and appended to the kernel using cat ⟨kernel⟩ ⟨state⟩ > ⟨out⟩ (Win32: copy /b ⟨kernel⟩+⟨state⟩ ⟨out⟩)

- **-shared**
  Link C, C++ or object files into a shared object (DLL) that can be loaded by the load_foreign_library/1 predicate. If used with -c it sets the proper options to compile a C or C++ file ready for linking into a shared object.
9.5. LINKING EMBEDDED APPLICATIONS USING SWIPL-LD

-dll
   Windows only. Embed SWI-Prolog into a DLL rather than an executable.

-c
   Compile C or C++ source-files into object files. This turns swipl-ld into a replacement for
   the C or C++ compiler where proper options such as the location of the include directory are
   passed automatically to the compiler.

-E
   Invoke the C preprocessor. Used to make swipl-ld a replacement for the C or C++ compiler.

-pl-options,...
   Additional options passed to Prolog when creating the saved state. The first character immedi-
   ately following pl-options is used as separator and translated to spaces when the argument
   is built. Example: -pl-options,-F,xpce passed -F xpce as additional flags to Prolog.

-ld-options,...
   Passes options to the linker, similar to -pl-options.

-cc-options,...
   Passes options to the C/C++ compiler, similar to -pl-options.

-v
   Select verbose operation, showing the various programs and their options.

-o outfile
   Reserved to specify the final output file.

-l library
   Specifies a library for the C-compiler. By default, -lswipl (Win32: libpl.lib) and the libraries
   needed by the Prolog kernel are given.

-L library-directory
   Specifies a library directory for the C-compiler. By default the directory containing the Prolog
   C-library for the current architecture is passed.

-g | -I include-directory | -D definition
   These options are passed to the C-compiler. By default, the include directory containing
   SWI-Prolog.h is passed. swipl-ld adds two additional * -Ddef flags:

-D__SWI_PROLOG__
   Indicates the code is to be connected to SWI-Prolog.

-D__SWI_EMBEDDED__
   Indicates the creation of an embedded program.

*.o | *.c | *.C | *.cxx | *.cpp
   Passed as input files to the C-compiler

*.pl | *.qlf
   Passed as input files to the Prolog compiler to create the saved-state.

*  
   I.e. all other options. These are passed as linker options to the C-compiler.
9.5.1 A simple example

The following is a very simple example going through all the steps outlined above. It provides an arithmetic expression evaluator. We will call the application `calc` and define it in the files `calc.c` and `calc.pl`. The Prolog file is simple:

```prolog
calc(Atom) :-
    term_to_atom(Expr, Atom),
    A is Expr,
    write(A),
    nl.
```

The C-part of the application parses the command-line options, initialises the Prolog engine, locates the `calc/1` predicate and calls it. The coder is in figure 9.4.

The application is now created using the following command-line:

```bash
% swipl-ld -o calc calc.c calc.pl
```

The following indicates the usage of the application:

```bash
% calc pi/2
1.5708
```

9.6 The Prolog ‘home’ directory

Executables embedding SWI-Prolog should be able to find the ‘home’ directory of the development environment unless a self-contained saved-state has been added to the executable (see `qsave_program/1,2` and section 9.5).

If Prolog starts up, it will try to locate the development environment. To do so, it will try the following steps until one succeeds.

1. If the `--home=DIR` is provided, use this.
2. If the environment variable `SWI_HOME_DIR` is defined and points to an existing directory, use this.
3. If the environment variable `SWIPL` is defined and points to an existing directory, use this.
4. Locate the primary executable or (Windows only) a component (module) thereof and check whether the parent directory of the directory holding this file contains the file swipl. If so, this file contains the (relative) path to the home directory. If this directory exists, use this. This is the normal mechanism used by the binary distribution.
5. If the precompiled path exists, use it. This is only useful for a source installation.

If all fails and there is no state attached to the executable or provided Windows module (see `PL_initialise()`), SWI-Prolog gives up. If a state is attached, the current working directory is used.

The `file_search_path/2` alias `swi` is set to point to the home directory located.
```c
#include <stdio.h>
#include <SWI-Prolog.h>

#define MAXLINE 1024

int
main(int argc, char **argv)
{
  char expression[MAXLINE];
  char *e = expression;
  char *program = argv[0];
  char *plav[2];
  int n;

  /* combine all the arguments in a single string */
  for(n=1; n<argc; n++)
  {
    if ( n != 1 )
      *e++ = ' ';  
    strcpy(e, argv[n]);
    e += strlen(e);
  }

  /* make the argument vector for Prolog */
  plav[0] = program;
  plav[1] = NULL;

  /* initialise Prolog */
  if ( !PL_initialise(1, plav) )
    PL_halt(1);

  /* Lookup calc/1 and make the arguments and call */

  { predicate_t pred = PL_predicate("calc", 1, "user");
    term_t h0 = PL_new_term_refs(1);
    int rval;

    PL_put_atom_chars(h0, expression);
    rval = PL_call_predicate(NULL, PL_Q_NORMAL, pred, h0);

    PL_halt(rval ? 0 : 1);
  }

  return 0;
}
```

Figure 9.4: C-source for the calc application
9.7 Example of Using the Foreign Interface

Below is an example showing all stages of the declaration of a foreign predicate that transforms atoms possibly holding uppercase letters into an atom only holding lower case letters. Figure 9.5 shows the C-source file, figure 9.6 illustrates compiling and loading of foreign code.

```c
/* Include file depends on local installation */
#include <SWI-Prolog.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <ctype.h>

foreign_t
pl_lowercase(term_t u, term_t l)
{
  char *copy;
  char *s, *q;
  int rval;

  if ( !PL_get_atom_chars(u, &s) )
    return PL_warning("lowercase/2: instantiation fault");
  copy = malloc(strlen(s)+1);

  for( q=copy; *s; q++, s++ )
    *q = (isupper(*s) ? tolower(*s) : *s);
  *q = '\0';

  rval = PL_unify_atom_chars(l, copy);
  free(copy);

  return rval;
}

install_t
install()
{
  PL_register_foreign("lowercase", 2, pl_lowercase, 0);
}
```

Figure 9.5: Lowercase source file
% gcc -I/usr/local/lib/pl-\plversion/include -fpic -c lowercase.c
% gcc -shared -o lowercase.so lowercase.o
% swipl
Welcome to SWI-Prolog (Version \plversion)
...

1 ?- load_foreign_library(lowercase).
Yes
2 ?- lowercase(‘Hello World!’, L).
L = ‘hello world!’
Yes

Figure 9.6: Compiling the C-source and loading the object file
9.8 Notes on Using Foreign Code

9.8.1 Memory Allocation

SWI-Prolog’s heap memory allocation is based on the malloc(3) library routines. The stacks are allocated using mmap() on most Unix machines and using VirtualAlloc() on windows. SWI-Prolog provides the functions below as a wrapper around malloc(). Allocation errors in these functions trap SWI-Prolog’s fatal-error handler, in which case PL_malloc() or PL_realloc() do not return.

Portable applications must use PL_free() to release strings returned by PL_get_chars() using the BUF_MALLOC argument. Portable applications may use both PL_malloc() and friends or malloc() and friends but should not mix these two sets of functions on the same memory.\(^{11}\)

```c
void * PL_malloc(size_t bytes)
Allocate bytes of memory. On failure SWI-Prolog’s fatal error handler is called and PL_malloc() does not return. Memory allocated using these functions must use PL_realloc() and PL_free() rather than realloc() and free().

void * PL_realloc(void *mem, size_t size)
Change the size of the allocated chunk, possibly moving it. The mem argument must be obtained from a previous PL_malloc() or PL_realloc() call.

void PL_free(void *mem)
Release memory. The mem argument must be obtained from a previous PL_malloc() or PL_realloc() call.
```

9.8.2 Compatibility between Prolog versions

Great care is taken to ensure binary compatibility of foreign extensions between different Prolog versions. Only much less frequently used stream interface has been responsible for binary incompatibilities.

Source-code that relies on new features of the foreign interface can use the macro PLVERSION to find the version of SWI-Prolog.h and PL_query() using the option PL_QUERY_VERSION to find the version of the attached Prolog system. Both follow the same numbering schema explained with PL_query().

9.8.3 Debugging and profiling foreign code (valgrind)

This section is only relevant for Unix users on platforms supported by valgrind. Valgrind is an excellent binary intrumentation platform. Unlike many other instrumentation platforms, valgrind can deal with code loaded through dlopen().

The callgrind tool can be used to profile foreign code loaded under SWI-Prolog. Compile the foreign library adding -g option to gcc or swipl-ld. By setting the environment variable VALGRIND to yes, SWI-Prolog will not release loaded shared objects using dlclose(). This trick is required to get source information on the loaded library. Without, valgrind claims that the shared object has no debugging information.\(^{12}\) Here is the complete sequence using bash as login shell:

\(^{11}\)These functions were introduced in SWI-Prolog 5.0.9 to realise guaranteed portability. Foreign code that must be compatible with older versions can check the PLVERSION macro.

\(^{12}\)Tested using valgrind version 3.2.3 on x64.
9.8. NOTES ON USING FOREIGN CODE

% VALGRIND=yes valgrind --tool=callgrind pl <args>
<prolog interaction>
% kcachegrind callgrind.out.<pid>

### 9.8.4 Name Conflicts in C modules

In the current version of the system all public C functions of SWI-Prolog are in the symbol table. This can lead to name clashes with foreign code. Someday I should write a program to strip all these symbols from the symbol table (why does Unix not have that?). For now I can only suggest to give your function another name. You can do this using the C preprocessor. If—for example—your foreign package uses a function warning(), which happens to exist in SWI-Prolog as well, the following macro should fix the problem.

```c
#define warning warning_
```

Note that shared libraries do not have this problem as the shared library loader will only look for symbols in the main executable for symbols that are not defined in the library itself.

### 9.8.5 Compatibility of the Foreign Interface

The term-reference mechanism was first used by Quintus Prolog version 3. SICStus Prolog version 3 is strongly based on the Quintus interface. The described SWI-Prolog interface is similar to using the Quintus or SICStus interfaces, defining all foreign-predicate arguments of type +term. SWI-Prolog explicitly uses type functor_t, while Quintus and SICStus uses ⟨name⟩ and ⟨arity⟩. As the names of the functions differ from Prolog to Prolog, a simple macro layer dealing with the names can also deal with this detail. For example:

```c
#define QP_put_functor(t, n, a) PL_put_functor(t, PL_new_functor(n, a))
```

The PL_unify.*() functions are lacking from the Quintus and SICStus interface. They can easily be emulated or the put/unify approach should be used to write compatible code.

The PL_open_foreign_frame()/PL_close_foreign_frame() combination is lacking from both other Prologs. SICStus has PL_new_term_ref(0), followed by PL_reset_term_ref() that allows for discarding term references.

The Prolog interface for the graphical user interface package XPCE shares about 90% of the code using a simple macro layer to deal with different naming and calling conventions of the interfaces.
Generating Runtime Applications

This chapter describes the features of SWI-Prolog for delivering applications that can run without the development version of the system installed.

A SWI-Prolog runtime executable is a file consisting of two parts. The first part is the emulator, which is machine dependent. The second part is the resource archive, which contains the compiled program in a machine-independent format, startup options and possibly user-defined resources, see resource/3 and open_resource/3.

These two parts can be connected in various different ways. The most common way for distributed runtime applications is to concatenate the two parts. This can be achieved using external commands (Unix: cat, Windows: copy), or using the stand_alone option to qsave_program/2. The second option is to attach a startup script in front of the resource that starts the emulator with the proper options. This is the default under Unix. Finally, an emulator can be told to use a specified resource file using the –x command-line switch.

qsave_program(+File, +ListOfOptions)

Saves the current state of the program to the file File. The result is a resource archive containing a saved-state that expresses all Prolog data from the running program and all user-defined resources. Depending on the stand_alone option, the resource is headed by the emulator, a Unix shell-script or nothing.

ListOfOptions is a list of ⟨Key⟩ = ⟨Value⟩ or ⟨Key⟩(⟨Value⟩) pairs. The available keys are described in table 10.1.

Before writing the data to file, qsave_program/2 will run autoload/0 to all required autoloading the system can discover. See autoload/0.

Provided the application does not require any of the Prolog libraries to be loaded at runtime, the only file from the SWI-Prolog development environment required is the emulator itself. The emulator may be built in two flavours. The default is the development emulator. The runtime emulator is similar, but lacks the tracer.

If the option stand_alone(true) is present, the emulator is the first part of the state. If the emulator is started it will test whether a boot-file (state) is attached to the emulator itself and load this state. Provided the application has all libraries loaded, the resulting executable is completely independent of the runtime environment or location where it was build.

See also section 2.10.2.

qsave_program(+File)

Equivalent to qsave_program(File, []).

autoload

Check the current Prolog program for predicates that are referred to, are undefined and have a definition in the Prolog library. Load the appropriate libraries.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>local</td>
<td>-L</td>
<td>K-bytes</td>
<td>Size (Limit) of local stack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>global</td>
<td>-G</td>
<td>K-bytes</td>
<td>Size (Limit) of global stack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trail</td>
<td>-T</td>
<td>K-bytes</td>
<td>Size (Limit) of trail stack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>argument</td>
<td>-A</td>
<td>K-bytes</td>
<td>Size (Limit) of argument stack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goal</td>
<td>-g</td>
<td>atom</td>
<td>Initialisation goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toplevel</td>
<td>-t</td>
<td>atom</td>
<td>Prolog top-level goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>init_file</td>
<td>-f</td>
<td>atom</td>
<td>Personal initialisation file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class</td>
<td></td>
<td>atom</td>
<td>If runtime, only read resources from the state (default). If kernel, lock all predicates as system predicates If development, save the predicates in their current state and keep reading resources from their source (if present). See also resource/3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>autoload</td>
<td></td>
<td>bool</td>
<td>If true, run autoload/0 first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>map</td>
<td></td>
<td>file</td>
<td>File to write info on dump</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>op</td>
<td></td>
<td>save/standard</td>
<td>Save operator declarations?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stand_alone</td>
<td></td>
<td>bool</td>
<td>Include the emulator in the state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emulator</td>
<td></td>
<td>file</td>
<td>Emulator attached to the (stand-alone) executable. Default is the running emulator.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10.1: \(<Key\> = <Value\> pairs for qsave_program/2

This predicate is used by qsave_program/[1,2] to ensure the saved state will not depend on one of the libraries. The predicate autoload/0 will find all direct references to predicates. It does not find predicates referenced via meta-predicates. The predicate log/2 is defined in the library(quintus) to provide a quintus compatible means to compute the natural logarithm of a number. The following program will behave correctly if its state is executed in an environment where the library(quintus) is not available:

```prolog
logtable(From, To) :-
    From > To, !.
logtable(From, To) :-
    log(From, Value),
    format('˜d˜t˜8|˜2f˜n’, [From, Value]),
    F is From + 1,
    logtable(F, To).
```

However, the following implementation refers to log/2 through the meta-predicate maplist/3. Autoload will not be able to find the reference. This problem may be fixed either by loading the module library(quintus) explicitly or use require/1 to tell the system that the predicate log/2 is required by this module.

```prolog
logtable(From, To) :-
    findall(X, between(From, To, X), Xlist),
```
volatile +Name/Arity, . . .

Declare that the clauses of specified predicates should not be saved to the program. The volatile declaration is normally used to avoid that the clauses of dynamic predicates that represent data for the current session is saved in the state file.

10.1 Limitations of qsave_program

There are three areas that require special attention when using qsave_program/[1,2].

- If the program is an embedded Prolog application or uses the foreign language interface, care has to be taken to restore the appropriate foreign context. See section 10.2 for details.

- If the program uses directives (:- goal, lines) that perform other actions then setting predicate attributes (dynamic, volatile, etc.) or loading files (consult, etc.), the directive may need to be prefixed with initialization/1.

- Database references as returned by clause/3, recorded/3, etc. are not preserved and may thus not be part of the database when saved.

10.2 Runtimes and Foreign Code

Some applications may need to use the foreign language interface. Object code is by definition machine-dependent and thus cannot be part of the saved program file.

To complicate the matter even further there are various ways of loading foreign code:

- Using the library(shlib) predicates
  This is the preferred way of dealing with foreign code. It loads quickly and ensures an acceptable level of independence between the versions of the emulator and the foreign code loaded. It works on Unix machines supporting shared libraries and library functions to load them. Most modern Unixes, as well as Win32 (Windows 95/NT) satisfy this constraint.

- Static linking
  This mechanism works on all machines, but generally requires the same C-compiler and linker to be used for the external code as is used to build SWI-Prolog itself.

To make a runtime executable that can run on multiple platforms one must make runtime checks to find the correct way of linking. Suppose we have a source-file myextension.c defining the installation function install().

```prolog
maplist(log, Xlist, SineList),
write_table(Xlist, SineList).

write_table([], []).
write_table([I|IT], [V|VT]) :-
    format('~d~t8|~2f~n', [I, V]),
    write_table(IT, VT).
```
If this file is compiled into a shared library, load_foreign_library/1 will load this library and call the installation function to initialise the foreign code. If it is loaded as a static extension, define install() as the predicate install/0:

```prolog
static foreign_t
pl_install()
{
    install();
    PL_succeed;
}

PL_extension PL_extensions [] =
{
    /* { "name", arity, function, PL_FA_<flags> }, */ 
    { "install", 0, pl_install, 0 },
    { NULL, 0, NULL, 0 } /* terminating line */
};
```

Now, use the following Prolog code to load the foreign library:

```prolog
load_foreign_extensions :-
    current_predicate(install, install), !, % static loaded install.
load_foreign_extensions :- % shared library
    load_foreign_library(foreign(myextension)).
:- initialization load_foreign_extensions.
```

The path alias foreign is defined by file_search_path/2. By default it searches the directories ⟨home⟩/lib/(arch) and ⟨home⟩/lib. The application can specify additional rules for file_search_path/2.

10.3 Using program resources

A resource is very similar to a file. Resources however can be represented in two different formats: on files, as well as part of the resource archive of a saved-state (see qsave_program/2).

A resource has a name and a class. The source data of the resource is a file. Resources are declared by declaring the predicate resource/3. They are accessed using the predicate open_resource/3.

Before going into details, let us start with an example. Short texts can easily be expressed in Prolog source code, but long texts are cumbersome. Assume our application defines a command 'help' that prints a helptext to the screen. We put the content of the helptext into a file called help.txt. The following code implements our help command such that help.txt is incorporated into the runtime executable.
The predicate `help/0` opens the resource as a Prolog stream. If we are executing this from the development environment, this will actually return a stream to the file `help.txt` itself. When executed from the saved-state, the stream will actually be a stream opened on the program resource file, taking care of the offset and length of the resource.

10.3.1 Predicates Definitions

`resource(+Name, +Class, +FileSpec)`

This predicate is defined as a dynamic predicate in the module `user`. Clauses for it may be defined in any module, including the user module. `Name` is the name of the resource (an atom). A resource name may contain any character, except for `$` and `:`, which are reserved for internal usage by the resource library. `Class` describes the what kind of object is stored in the resource. In the current implementation, it is just an atom. `FileSpec` is a file specification that may exploit `file_search_path/2` (see `absolute_file_name/2`).

Normally, resources are defined as unit clauses (facts), but the definition of this predicate also allows for rules. For proper generation of the saved state, it must be possible to enumerate the available resources by calling this predicate with all its arguments unbound.

Dynamic rules are useful to turn all files in a certain directory into resources, without specifying a resources for each file. For example, assume the `file_search_path/2 icons` refers to the resource directory containing icon-files. The following definition makes all these images available as resources:

```
resource(Name, image, icons(XpmName)) :-
  atom(Name), !,
  file_name_extension(Name, xpm, XpmName).
resource(Name, image, XpmFile) :-
  var(Name),
  absolute_file_name(icons(.), [type(directory)], Dir)
  concat(Dir, '/*.xpm', Pattern),
  expand_file_name(Pattern, XpmFiles),
  member(XpmFile, XpmFiles).
```

`open_resource(+Name, ?Class, -Stream)`

Opens the resource specified by `Name` and `Class`. If the latter is a variable, it will be unified to the class of the first resource found that has the specified `Name`. If successful, `Stream` becomes a handle to a binary input stream, providing access to the content of the resource.

The predicate `open_resource/3` first checks `resource/3`. When successful it will open the returned resource source-file. Otherwise it will look in the programs resource database.
When creating a saved-state, the system normally saves the resource contents into the resource archive, but does not save the resource clauses. This way, the development environment uses the files (and modifications to the resource/3 declarations and/or files containing resource info thus immediately affect the running environment, while the runtime system quickly accesses the system resources.

### 10.3.2 The swipl-rc program

The utility program swipl-rc can be used to examine and manipulate the contents of a SWI-Prolog resource file. The options are inspired by the Unix ar program. The basic command is:

```
% swipl-rc option resource-file member ...
```

The options are described below.

**l**  
List contents of the archive.

**x**  
Extract named (or all) members of the archive into the current directory.

**a**  
Add files to the archive. If the archive already contains a member with the same name, the contents is replaced. Anywhere in the sequence of members, the options `--class=class` and `--encoding=encoding` may appear. They affect the class and encoding of subsequent files. The initial class is `data` and encoding `none`.

**d**  
Delete named members from the archive.

This command is also described in the `pl(1)` Unix manual page.

### 10.4 Finding Application files

If your application uses files that are not part of the saved program such as database files, configuration files, etc., the runtime version has to be able to locate these files. The `file_search_path/2` mechanism in combination with the `-palias` command-line argument is the preferred way to locate runtime files. The first step is to define an alias for the top-level directory of your application. We will call this directory `gnatdir` in our examples.

A good place for storing data associated with SWI-Prolog runtime systems is below the emulator’s home-directory. `swi` is a predefined alias for this directory. The following is a useful default definition for the search path.

```
user:file_search_path(gnatdir, swi(gnat)).
```

The application should locate all files using `absolute_file_name`. Suppose `gnatdir` contains a file `config.pl` to define local configuration. Then use the code below to load this file:
configure_gnat :-
    ( absolute_file_name(gnatdir('config.pl'), ConfigFile)
      -> consult(ConfigFile)
      ; format(user_error, 'gnat: Cannot locate config.pl`\n'),
        halt(1)
    ).

10.4.1 Passing a path to the application

Suppose the system administrator has installed the SWI-Prolog runtime environment in /usr/local/lib/rt-pl-3.2.0. A user wants to install gnat, but gnat will look for its configuration in /usr/local/lib/rt-pl-3.2.0/gnat where the user cannot write.

The user decides to install the gnat runtime files in /users/bob/lib/gnat. For one-time usage, the user may decide to start gnat using the command:

% gnat -p gnatdir=/users/bob/lib/gnat
The SWI-Prolog library

This chapter documents the SWI-Prolog library. As SWI-Prolog provides auto-loading, there is little difference between library predicates and built-in predicates. Part of the library is therefore documented in the rest of the manual. Library predicates differ from built-in predicates in the following ways.

- User-definition of a built-in leads to a permission-error, while using the name of a library predicate is allowed.
- If autoloading is disabled explicitly or because trapping unknown predicates is disabled (see `unknown/2` and `current_prolog_flag/2`), library predicates must be loaded explicitly.
- Using libraries reduce the footprint of applications that don’t need them.

The documentation of the library is just started. Material from the standard packages should be moved here, some material from other parts of the manual should be moved too and various libraries are not documented at all.

A.1 library(aggregate): Aggregation operators on backtrackable predicates

Compatibility  Quintus, SICStus 4. The `forall/2` is a SWI-Prolog built-in and `term_variables/3` is a SWI-Prolog with a different definition.

To be done
- Analysing the aggregation template and compiling a predicate for the list aggregation can be done at compile time.
- `aggregate_all/3` can be rewritten to run in constant space using non-backtrackable assignment on a term.

This library provides aggregating operators over the solutions of a predicate. The operations are a generalisation of the `bagof/3`, `setof/3` and `findall/3` built-in predicates. The defined aggregation operations are counting, computing the sum, minimum, maximum, a bag of solutions and a set of solutions. We first give a simple example, computing the country with the smallest area:

```prolog
smallest_country(Name, Area) :-
    aggregate(min(A, N), country(N, A), min(Area, Name)).
```

There are four aggregation predicates, distinguished on two properties.
aggregate vs. aggregate_all  The aggregate predicates use `setof/3 (aggregate/4)` or `bagof/3 (aggregate/3)`, dealing with existential qualified variables `(Var ^ Goal)` and providing multiple solutions for the remaining free variables in Goal. The `aggregate_all/3` predicate uses `findall/3`, implicitly qualifying all free variables and providing exactly one solution, while `aggregate_all/4` uses `sort/2` over solutions and Distinguish (see below) generated using `findall/3`.

The Distinguish argument  The versions with 4 arguments provide a Distinguish argument that allow for keeping duplicate bindings of a variable in the result. For example, if we wish to compute the total population of all countries we do not want to lose results because two countries have the same population. Therefore we use:

```prolog
aggregate(sum(P), Name, country(Name, P), Total)
```

All aggregation predicates support the following operator below in Template. In addition, they allow for an arbitrary named compound term where each of the arguments is a term from the list below. I.e. the term `r(min(X), max(X))` computes both the minimum and maximum binding for X.

- **count**
  Count number of solutions. Same as `sum(1)`.

- **sum(Expr)**
  Sum of Expr for all solutions.

- **min(Expr)**
  Minimum of Expr for all solutions.

- **min(Expr, Witness)**
  A term `min(Min, Witness)`, where Min is the minimal version of Expr over all Solution and Witness is any other template applied to Solution that produced Min. If multiple solutions provide the same minimum, Witness corresponds to the first solution.

- **max(Expr)**
  Maximum of Expr for all solutions.

- **max(Expr, Witness)**
  As `min(Expr, Witness)`, but producing the maximum result.

- **set(X)**
  An ordered set with all solutions for X.

- **bag(X)**
  A list of all solutions for X.

**Acknowledgements**

*The development of this library was sponsored by SecuritEase,* [http://www.securitease.com](http://www.securitease.com)
A.1. LIBRARY(AGGREGATE): AGGREGATION OPERATORS ON BACKTRACKABLE
PREDICATES

\texttt{aggregate(+Template, :Goal, -Result)}
\[\text{nondet}\]
Aggregate bindings in \texttt{Goal} according to \texttt{Template}. The \texttt{aggregate/3} version performs \texttt{bagof/3} on \texttt{Goal}.

\texttt{aggregate(+Template, +Discriminator, :Goal, -Result)}
\[\text{nondet}\]
Aggregate bindings in \texttt{Goal} according to \texttt{Template}. The \texttt{aggregate/3} version performs \texttt{setof/3} on \texttt{Goal}.

\texttt{aggregate\_all(+Template, :Goal, -Result)}
\[\text{semidet}\]
Aggregate bindings in \texttt{Goal} according to \texttt{Template}. The \texttt{aggregate\_all/3} version performs \texttt{findall/3} on \texttt{Goal}.

\texttt{aggregate\_all(+Template, +Discriminator, :Goal, -Result)}
\[\text{semidet}\]
Aggregate bindings in \texttt{Goal} according to \texttt{Template}. The \texttt{aggregate\_all/3} version performs \texttt{findall/3} followed by \texttt{sort/2} on \texttt{Goal}.

\texttt{foreach(Generator, :Goal)}
True if the conjunction of instances of \texttt{Goal} using the bindings from \texttt{Generator} is true. Unlike \texttt{forall/2}, which runs a failure-driven loop that proves \texttt{Goal} for each solution of \texttt{Generator}, \texttt{foreach} creates a conjunction. Each member of the conjunction is a copy of \texttt{Goal}, where the variables it shares with \texttt{Generator} are filled with the values from the corresponding solution.

The implementation executes \texttt{forall/2} if \texttt{Goal} does not contain any variables that are not shared with \texttt{Generator}.

Here is an example:

\begin{verbatim}
?- foreach(between(1,4,X), dif(X,Y)), Y = 5.
Y = 5
?- foreach(between(1,4,X), dif(X,Y)), Y = 3.
No
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{bug} \texttt{Goal} is copied repeatedly, which may cause problems if attributed variables are involved.

\texttt{free\_variables(Generator, +Template, +VarList0, -VarList)}
\[\text{det}\]
In order to handle variables properly, we have to find all the universally quantified variables in the \texttt{Generator}. All variables as yet unbound are universally quantified, unless

1. they occur in the template
2. they are bound by \texttt{X \^ P}, \texttt{setof}, or \texttt{bagof}

\texttt{free\_variables(Generator, Template, OldList, NewList)} finds this set, using \texttt{OldList} as an accumulator.

\textbf{author}
- Richard O'Keefe
- Jan Wielemaker (made some SWI-Prolog enhancements)

\textbf{license} \texttt{Public domain (from DEC10 library).}

\textbf{To be done}
- Distinguish between control-structures and data terms.
- Exploit our built-in \texttt{term\_variables/2} at some places?
A.2 library(apply): Apply predicates on a list

See also
- apply_macros.pl provides compile-time expansion for part of this library.

To be done  Add include/4, include/5, exclude/4, exclude/5

This module defines meta-predicates that apply a predicate on all members of a list.

\textbf{include}(:Goal, +List1, ?List2) \hspace{1cm} \text{[det]}
Filter elements for which \textit{Goal} succeed. True if \textit{List2} contains those elements Xi of \textit{List1} for which call(\textit{Goal}, Xi) succeeds.

\textbf{exclude}(:Goal, +List1, ?List2) \hspace{1cm} \text{[det]}
Filter elements for which \textit{Goal} fails. True if \textit{List2} contains those elements Xi of \textit{List1} for which call(\textit{Goal}, Xi) fails.

\textbf{partition}(:Pred, +List, ?Included, ?Excluded) \hspace{1cm} \text{[det]}
Filter elements of \textit{List} according to \textit{Pred}. True if \textit{Included} contains all elements for which call(\textit{Pred}, X) succeeds and \textit{Excluded} contains the remaining elements.

\textbf{partition}(:Pred, +List, ?Less, ?Equal, ?Greater) \hspace{1cm} \text{[semidet]}
Filter list according to \textit{Pred} in three sets. For each element Xi of \textit{List}, its destination is determined by call(\textit{Pred}, Xi, Place), where Place must be unified to one of \textless, = or \textgreater. \textit{Pred} must be deterministic.

\textbf{maplist}(:Goal, ?List)
True if \textit{Goal} can successfully be applied on all elements of \textit{List}. Arguments are reordered to gain performance as well as to make the predicate deterministic under normal circumstances.

\textbf{maplist}(:Goal, ?List1, ?List2)
True if \textit{Goal} can successfully be applied to all successive pairs of elements of \textit{List1} and \textit{List2}.

\textbf{maplist}(:Goal, ?List1, ?List2, ?List3)
True if \textit{Goal} can successfully be applied to all successive triples of elements of \textit{List1}..\textit{List3}.

\textbf{maplist}(:Goal, ?List1, ?List2, ?List3, List4)
True if \textit{Goal} can successfully be applied to all successive quadruples of elements of \textit{List1}..\textit{List4}

A.3 assoc: Association lists

Authors: Richard A. O’Keefe, L.Damas, V.S.Costa and Markus Triska

Elements of an association list have 2 components: A (unique) \textit{key} and a \textit{value}. Keys should be ground, values need not be. An association list can be used to fetch elements via their keys and to enumerate its elements in ascending order of their keys. The \textit{assoc} module uses AVL trees to implement association lists. This makes inserting, changing and fetching a single element an O(log(N)) (where N denotes the number of elements in the list) expected time (and worst-case time) operation.
assoc_to_list(+Assoc, -List)

List is a list of Key-Value pairs corresponding to the associations in Assoc in ascending order of keys.

assoc_to_keys(+Assoc, -List)

List is a list of Keys corresponding to the associations in Assoc in ascending order.

assoc_to_values(+Assoc, -List)

List is a list of Values corresponding to the associations in Assoc in ascending order of the keys they are associated to.

empty_assoc(-Assoc)

Assoc is unified with an empty association list.

gen_assoc(?Key, +Assoc, ?Value)

Enumerate matching elements of Assoc in ascending order of their keys via backtracking.

get_assoc(+Key, +Assoc, ?Value)

Value is the value associated with Key in the association list Assoc.

get_assoc(+Key, +Assoc, ?Old, ?NewAssoc, ?New)

NewAssoc is an association list identical to Assoc except that the value associated with Key is New instead of Old.

list_to_assoc(+List, ?Assoc)

Assoc is an association list corresponding to the Key-Value pairs in List.

map_assoc(:Goal, +Assoc)

Goal(V) is true for every value V in Assoc.

map_assoc(:Goal, +AssocIn, ?AssocOut)

AssocOut is AssocIn with Goal applied to all corresponding pairs of values.

max_assoc(+Assoc, ?Key, ?Value)

Key and Value are key and value of the element with the largest key in Assoc.

min_assoc(+Assoc, ?Key, ?Value)

Key and Value are key and value of the element with the smallest key in Assoc.

ord_list_to_assoc(+List, ?Assoc)

Assoc is an association list corresponding to the Key-Value pairs in List, which must occur in ascending order of their keys.

put_assoc(+Key, +Assoc, +Value, ?NewAssoc)

NewAssoc is an association list identical to Assoc except that Key is associated with Value. This can be used to insert and change associations.
A.4 \texttt{broadcast}: Broadcast and receive event notifications

The \texttt{broadcast} library was invented to realise GUI applications consisting of stand-alone components that use the Prolog database for storing the application data. Figure A.1 illustrates the flow of information using this design.

The broadcasting service provides two services. Using the ‘shout’ service, an unknown number of agents may listen to the message and act. The broadcaster is not (directly) aware of the implications. Using the ‘request’ service, listening agents are asked for an answer one-by-one and the broadcaster is allowed to reject answers using normal Prolog failure.

Shouting is often used to inform about changes made to a common database. Other messages can be “save yourself” or “show this”.

Requesting is used to get information while the broadcaster is not aware who might be able to answer the question. For example “who is showing $X$?”.

\texttt{broadcast(+Term)}

Broadcast $\textit{Term}$. There are no limitations to $\textit{Term}$, though being a global service, it is good practice to use a descriptive and unique principal functor. All associated goals are started and regardless of their success or failure, \texttt{broadcast/1} always succeeds. Exceptions are passed.

\texttt{broadcast_request(+Term)}

Unlike \texttt{broadcast/1}, this predicate stops if an associated goal succeeds. Backtracking causes it to try other listeners. A broadcast request is used to fetch information without knowing the identity of the agent providing it. C.f. “Is there someone who knows the age of John?” could be asked using

\begin{verbatim}
...,
    broadcast_request(age_of('John', Age)),
\end{verbatim}

If there is an agent (\textit{listener}) that registered an ‘age-of’ service and knows about the age of ‘John’ this question will be answered.
A.4. BROADCAST: BROADCAST AND RECEIVE EVENT NOTIFICATIONS

listen(+Template, :Goal)
Register a listen channel. Whenever a term unifying Template is broadcasted, call Goal. The following example traps all broadcasted messages as a variable unifies to any message. It is commonly used to debug usage of the library.

?- listen(Term, (writeln(Term), fail)).
?- broadcast(hello(world)).
hello(world)
Yes

listen(+Listener, +Template, :Goal)
Declare Listener as the owner of the channel. Unlike a channel opened using listen/2, channels that have an owner can terminate the channel. This is commonly used if an object is listening to broadcast messages. In the example below we define a ‘name-item’ displaying the name of an identifier represented by the predicate name_of/2.

:- pce_begin_class(name_item, text_item).
variable(id, any, get, "Id visualised").

initialise(NI, Id:any) :-
    name_of(Id, Name),
    send_super(NI, initialise, name, Name,
        message(NI, set_name, @arg1)),
    send(NI, slot, id, Id),
    listen(NI, name_of(Id, Name),
        send(NI, selection, Name)).
unlink(NI) :-
    unlisten(NI),
    send_super(NI, unlink).
set_name(NI, Name:name) :-
    get(NI, id, Id),
    retractall(name_of(Id, _)),
    assert(name_of(Id, Name)),
    broadcast(name_of(Id, Name)).
:- pce_end_class.

unlisten(+Listener)
Deregister all entries created with listen/3 whose Listener unify.

unlisten(+Listener, +Template)
Deregister all entries created with listen/3 whose Listener and Template unify.
unlisten(+Listener, +Template, :Goal)
Deregister all entries created with listen/3 whose Listener, Template and Goal unify.

listening(?Listener, ?Template, ?Goal)
Examine the current listeners. This predicate is useful for debugging purposes.

A.5 library(charsio): I/O on Lists of Character Codes

Compatibility The naming of this library is not in line with the ISO standard. We believe that the SWI-Prolog native predicates form a more elegant alternative for this library.

This module emulates the Quintus/SICStus library charsio.pl for reading and writing from/to lists of character codes. Most of these predicates are straight calls into similar SWI-Prolog primitives. Some can even be replaced by ISO standard predicates.

format_to_chars(+Format, +Args, -Codes) [det]
Use format/2 to write to a list of character codes.

write_to_chars(+Term, -Codes)
Codes is a list of character codes produced by write/1 on Term.

write_to_chars(+Term, -Codes, ?Tail)
Codes is a difference-list of character codes produced by write/1 on Term.

atom_to_chars(+Atom, -Codes) [det]
Convert Atom into a list of character codes.

deprecated Use ISO atom_codes/2.

atom_to_chars(+Atom, -Codes, ?Tail) [det]
Convert Atom into a difference-list of character codes.

number_to_chars(+Number, -Codes) [det]
Convert Atom into a list of character codes.

deprecated Use ISO number_codes/2.

number_to_chars(+Atom, -Codes, ?Tail) [det]
Convert Number into a difference-list of character codes.

read_from_chars(+Codes, -Term) [det]
Read Codes into Term.

Compatibility The SWI-Prolog version does not require Codes to end in a full-stop.

read_term_from_chars(+Codes, -Term, +Options) [det]
Read Codes into Term. Options are processed by read_term/3.
A.6. CHECK: ELEMENTARY COMPLETENESS CHECKS

Compatibility sicstus

open_chars_stream(+Codes, -Stream) [det]

Open Codes as an input stream.

bug Depends on autoloading library(memfile). As many applications do not need this predicate we do not want to make the entire library dependent on autoloading.

with_output_to_chars(:Goal, Codes) [det]

Run Goal with as once/1. Output written to current_output is collected in Codes.

with_output_to_chars(:Goal, -Codes, ?Tail) [det]

Run Goal with as once/1. Output written to current_output is collected in Codes\Tail.

with_output_to_chars(:Goal, -Stream, -Codes, ?Tail) [det]

As with_output_to_chars/2, but Stream is unified with the temporary stream.

A.6 check: Elementary completeness checks

This library defines the predicate check/0 and a few friends that allow for a quick-and-dirty cross-referencing.

check

Performs the three checking passes implemented by list_undefined/0, list_autoload/0 and list_redefined/0. Please check the definition of these predicates for details.

The typical usage of this predicate is right after loading your program to get a quick overview on the completeness and possible conflicts in your program.

list_undefined

Scans the database for predicates that have no definition. A predicate is considered defined if it has clauses, is declared using dynamic/1 or multifile/1. As a program is compiled calls are translated to predicates. If the called predicate is not yet defined it is created as a predicate without definition. The same happens with runtime generated calls. This predicate lists all such undefined predicates that are referenced and not defined in the library. See also list_autoload/0. Below is an example from a real program and an illustration how to edit the referencing predicate using edit/1.

?- list_undefined.
Warning: The predicates below are not defined. If these are defined Warning: at runtime using assert/1, use :- dynamic Name/Arity.
Warning:
Warning: rdf_edit:rdfe_retract/4, which is referenced by
Warning: 1-st clause of rdf_edit:undo/4
Warning: rdf_edit:rdfe_retract/3, which is referenced by
Warning: 1-st clause of rdf_edit:delete_object/1
Warning: 1-st clause of rdf_edit:delete_subject/1
Warning: 1-st clause of rdf_edit:delete_predicate/1
?- edit(rdf_edit:undo/4).

**list_autoload**

Lists all undefined (see `list_undefined/0`) predicates that have a definition in the library along with the file from which they will be autoloaded when accessed. See also `autoload/0`.

**list_redefined**

Lists predicates that are defined in the global module `user` as well as in a normal module. I.e. predicates for which the local definition overrules the global default definition.

### A.7 library(clpfd): Constraint Logic Programming over Finite Domains

**author** Markus Triska

Constraint programming is a declarative formalism that lets you describe conditions a solution must satisfy. This library provides CLP(FD), Constraint Logic Programming over Finite Domains. It can be used to model and solve various combinatorial problems such as planning, scheduling and allocation tasks.

Most predicates of this library are finite domain *constraints*, which are relations over integers. They generalise arithmetic evaluation of integer expressions in that propagation can proceed in all directions. This library also provides *enumeration predicates*, which let you systematically search for solutions on variables whose domains have become finite. A finite domain *expression* is one of:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>an integer</td>
<td>Given value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a variable</td>
<td>Unknown value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expr</td>
<td>Unary minus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expr + Expr</td>
<td>Addition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expr * Expr</td>
<td>Multiplication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expr - Expr</td>
<td>Subtraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expr ^ Expr</td>
<td>Exponentiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>min(Expr,Expr)</td>
<td>Minimum of two expressions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>max(Expr,Expr)</td>
<td>Maximum of two expressions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expr mod Expr</td>
<td>Modulo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abs(Expr)</td>
<td>Absolute value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expr / Expr</td>
<td>Integer division</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most important finite domain constraints are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constraint</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expr1 #&gt;= Expr2</td>
<td>Expr1 is larger than or equal to Expr2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expr1 #=&lt; Expr2</td>
<td>Expr1 is smaller than or equal to Expr2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expr1 ≠ Expr2</td>
<td>Expr1 equals Expr2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expr1 = Expr2</td>
<td>Expr1 is not equal to Expr2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expr1 #&gt; Expr2</td>
<td>Expr1 is strictly larger than Expr2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expr1 #&lt; Expr2</td>
<td>Expr1 is strictly smaller than Expr2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The constraints \( \text{in}/2, \#	ext{/}/2, \#	ext{	extbackslash}/2, \#<_>/2, \#==>/2, \#>=/2 \) can be reified, which means reflecting their truth values into Boolean values represented by the integers 0 and 1. Let \( P \) and \( Q \) denote reifiable constraints or Boolean variables, then:

| \( P \) \( Q \) \( \) | True iff \( P \) is false
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| \( P \) \( \#\backslash\) \( Q \) | True iff \( P \) or \( Q \)
| \( P \) \( \#/\) \( Q \) | True iff both \( P \) and \( Q \)
| \( P \) \( \#<===\) \( Q \) | True iff \( P \) and \( Q \) are equivalent
| \( P \) \( \#==>\) \( Q \) | True iff \( P \) implies \( Q \)
| \( P \) \( \#<==\) \( Q \) | True iff \( Q \) implies \( P \)

The constraints of this table are reifiable as well. If a variable occurs at the place of a constraint that is being reified, it is implicitly constrained to the Boolean values 0 and 1. Therefore, the following queries all fail: \?- \#\backslash 2., ?- \#\#\backslash 2. etc.

Here is an example session with a few queries and their answers:

?- [library(clpfd)].
% library(clpfd) compiled into clpfd 0.06 sec, 3,308 bytes
true.
?- X \#> 3.
X in 4..sup.
?- X \#\= 20.
X in inf..19\/21..sup.
?- 2\*X \#= 10.
X = 5.
?- X\*X \#= 144.
X in -12\/12.
?- 4\*X + 2\*Y \#= 24, X + Y \#= 9, \[X,Y\] ins 0..sup.
X = 3,
Y = 6.
?- Vs = \[X,Y,Z\], Vs ins 1..3, all_different(Vs), X = 1, Y \#\= 2.
Vs = \[1, 3, 2\],
X = 1,
Y = 3,
Z = 2.
?- X \#= Y \#<==> B, X in 0..3, Y in 4..5.
B = 0,
X in 0..3,
Y in 4..5.
In each case (and as for all pure programs), the answer is declaratively equivalent to the original query, and in many cases the constraint solver has deduced additional domain restrictions.

A common usage of this library is to first post the desired constraints among the variables of a model, and then to use enumeration predicates to search for solutions. As an example of a constraint satisfaction problem, consider the cryptoarithmetic puzzle $\text{SEND} + \text{MORE} = \text{MONEY}$, where different letters denote distinct integers between 0 and 9. It can be modeled in CLP(FD) as follows:

```prolog
:- use_module(library(clpfd)).
puzzle([S,E,N,D] + [M,O,R,E] = [M,O,N,E,Y]) :-
    Vars = [S,E,N,D,M,O,R,Y],
    Vars ins 0..9,
    all_different(Vars),
    S*1000 + E*100 + N*10 + D +
    M*1000 + O*100 + R*10 + E #= 
    M*10000 + O*1000 + N*100 + E*10 + Y,
    M #\= 0, S #\= 0.
```

Sample query and its result:

```prolog
?- puzzle(As+Bs=Cs).
As = [9, _G10107, _G10110, _G10113],
Bs = [1, 0, _G10128, _G10107],
Cs = [1, 0, _G10110, _G10107, _G10152],
_G10107 in 4..7,
1000*9+91*_G10107+ -90*_G10110+_G10113+ -9000*1+ -900*0+10*_G10128+ -1*_G10152#=0,
all_different([_G10107, _G10110, _G10113, _G10128, _G10152, 0, 1, 9]),
_G10110 in 5..8,
_G10113 in 2..8,
_G10128 in 2..8,
_G10152 in 2..8.
```

Here, the constraint solver has deduced more stringent bounds for all variables. Keeping the modeling part separate from the search lets you view these residual goals, observe termination and determinism properties of the modeling part in isolation from the search, and more easily experiment with different search strategies. Labeling can then be used to search for solutions:

```prolog
?- puzzle(As+Bs=Cs), label(As).
As = [9, 5, 6, 7],
Bs = [1, 0, 8, 5],
Cs = [1, 0, 6, 5, 2] ;
false.
```

In this case, it suffices to label a subset of variables to find the puzzle’s unique solution, since the constraint solver is strong enough to reduce the domains of remaining variables to singleton sets. In general though, it is necessary to label all variables to obtain ground solutions.
You can also use CLP(FD) constraints as a more declarative alternative for ordinary integer arithmetic with `is/2`, `>/2` etc. For example:

```
:- use_module(library(clpfd)).

n_factorial(0, 1).
N1 #= N - 1, F #= N * F1, n_factorial(N1, F1).
```

This predicate can be used in all directions. For example:

```
?- n_factorial(47, F).
F = 25862324151168180642964355153611979969197632389120000000 ;
false.

?- n_factorial(N, 1).
N = 0 ;
N = 1 ;
false.

?- n_factorial(N, 3).
false.
```

To make the predicate terminate if any argument is instantiated, add the (implied) constraint `F #\= 0` before the recursive call. Otherwise, the query `n_factorial(N, 0)` is the only non-terminating case of this kind.

This library uses `goal_expansion/2` to rewrite constraints at compilation time. The expansion’s aim is to transparently bring the performance of CLP(FD) constraints close to that of conventional arithmetic predicates (`<>/2`, `=/2`, `is/2` etc.) when the constraints are used in modes that can also be handled by built-in arithmetic. To disable the expansion, set the flag `clpfd_goal_expansion` to false.

Use `call_residue_vars/2` and `copy_term/3` to inspect residual goals and the constraints in which a variable is involved. This library also provides `reflection` predicates (like `fd_dom/2`, `fd_size/2` etc.) with which you can inspect a variable’s current domain. These predicates can be useful if you want to implement your own labeling strategies.

You can also define custom constraints. The mechanism to do this is not yet finalised, and we welcome suggestions and descriptions of use cases that are important to you. As an example of how it can be done currently, let us define a new custom constraint “`oneground(X,Y,Z)`”, where Z shall be 1 if at least one of X and Y is instantiated:

```
:- use_module(library(clpfd)).

:- multifile clpfd:run_propagator/2.

oneground(X, Y, Z) :-
    clpfd:make_propagator(oneground(X, Y, Z), Prop),
    clpfd:init_propagator(X, Prop),
```

```
clpfd:init_propagator(Y, Prop),
clpfd:trigger_once(Prop).

clpfd:run_propagator(oneground(X, Y, Z), MState) :-
    ( integer(X) -> clpfd:kill(MState), Z = 1
    ; integer(Y) -> clpfd:kill(MState), Z = 1
    ; true
    ).

First, clpfd:make_propagator/2 is used to transform a user-defined representation of the
new constraint to an internal form. With clpfd:init_propagator/2, this internal form is
then attached to X and Y. From now on, the propagator will be invoked whenever the domains
of X or Y are changed. Then, clpfd:trigger_once/1 is used to give the propagator its
first chance for propagation even though the variables’ domains have not yet changed. Finally,
clpfd:run_propagator/2 is extended to define the actual propagator. As explained, this pred-
icate is automatically called by the constraint solver. The first argument is the user-defined represen-
tation of the constraint as used in clpfd:make_propagator/2, and the second argument is a
mutable state that can be used to prevent further invocations of the propagator when the constraint has
become entailed, by using clpfd:kill/1. An example of using the new constraint:

?- oneground(X, Y, Z), Y = 5.
   Y = 5,
   Z = 1,
   X in inf..sup.

?Var in +Domain
   Var is an element of Domain. Domain is one of:
   
   Integer
      Singleton set consisting only of Integer.
   Lower .. Upper
      All integers I such that Lower <= I <= Upper. Lower must be an integer or the atom inf,
      which denotes negative infinity. Upper must be an integer or the atom sup, which denotes
      positive infinity.
   Domain1 \ Domain2
      The union of Domain1 and Domain2.

+Vars ins +Domain
   The variables in the list Vars are elements of Domain.

indomain(?Var)
   Bind Var to all feasible values of its domain on backtracking. The domain of Var must be finite.

label(+Vars)
   Equivalent to labeling([], Vars).
labeling(+Options, +Vars)
Labeling means systematically trying out values for the finite domain variables Vars until all of them are ground. The domain of each variable in Vars must be finite. Options is a list of options that let you exhibit some control over the search process. Several categories of options exist:

The variable selection strategy lets you specify which variable of Vars is labeled next and is one of:

leftmost
Label the variables in the order they occur in Vars. This is the default.

ff
First fail. Label the leftmost variable with smallest domain next, in order to detect infeasibility early. This is often a good strategy.

ffc
Of the variables with smallest domains, the leftmost one participating in most constraints is labeled next.

min
Label the leftmost variable whose lower bound is the lowest next.

max
Label the leftmost variable whose upper bound is the highest next.

The value order is one of:

up
Try the elements of the chosen variable’s domain in ascending order. This is the default.

down
Try the domain elements in descending order.

The branching strategy is one of:

step
For each variable X, a choice is made between \( X = V \) and \( X \neq V \), where \( V \) is determined by the value ordering options. This is the default.

enum
For each variable X, a choice is made between \( X = V_1 \), \( X = V_2 \) etc., for all values \( V_i \) of the domain of X. The order is determined by the value ordering options.

bisect
For each variable X, a choice is made between \( X \leq M \) and \( X > M \), where \( M \) is the midpoint of the domain of X.

At most one option of each category can be specified, and an option must not occur repeatedly.

The order of solutions can be influenced with:

min(Expr)
max(Expr)

This generates solutions in ascending/descending order with respect to the evaluation of the arithmetic expression Expr. Labeling Vars must make Expr ground. If several such options are specified, they are interpreted from left to right, e.g.:

?- [X,Y] ins 10..20, labeling([max(X),min(Y)],[X,Y]).

This generates solutions in descending order of X, and for each binding of X, solutions are generated in ascending order of Y. To obtain the incomplete behaviour that other systems exhibit with “maximize(Expr)” and “minimize(Expr)”, use once/1, e.g.:

once(labeling([max(Expr)], Vars))

Labeling is always complete, always terminates, and yields no redundant solutions.

all_different(+Vars)

Vars are pairwise distinct.

sum(+Vars, +Rel, ?Expr)

The sum of elements of the list Vars is in relation Rel to Expr, where Rel is #=, #\=, #<, #>, #=< or #>=. For example:

?- [A,B,C] ins 0..sup, sum([A,B,C], #=, 100).
A in 0..100,
A+B+C#=100,
B in 0..100,
C in 0..100.

scalar_product(+Cs, +Vs, +Rel, ?Expr)

Cs is a list of integers, Vs is a list of variables and integers. True if the scalar product of Cs and Vs is in relation Rel to Expr, where Rel is #=, #\=, #<, #>, #=< or #>=.

?X #>= ?Y
X is greater than or equal to Y.

?X #=< ?Y
X is less than or equal to Y.

?X #= ?Y
X equals Y.

?X #\= ?Y
X is not Y.

?X #> ?Y
X is greater than Y.
X is less than Y. In addition to its regular use in problems that require it, this constraint can also be useful to eliminate uninteresting symmetries from a problem. For example, all possible matches between pairs built from four players in total:

```prolog
?- Vs = [A,B,C,D], Vs ins 1..4, all_different(Vs), A #< B, C #< D, A #< C, findall(pair(A,B)-pair(C,D), label(Vs), Ms).
Ms = [pair(1, 2)-pair(3, 4), pair(1, 3)-pair(2, 4), pair(1, 4)-pair(2, 3)]
```

The reifiable constraint Q does not hold. For example, to obtain the complement of a domain:

```prolog
?- #\ X in -3..0\10..80.
X in inf..-4\1..9\81..sup.
```

P and Q are equivalent. For example:

```prolog
?- X #= 4 #<==> B, X #\= 4.
B = 0,
X in inf..3\5..sup.
```

The following example uses reified constraints to relate a list of finite domain variables to the number of occurrences of a given value:

```prolog
:- use_module(library(clpfd)).

vs_n_num(Vs, N, Num) :-
    maplist(eq_b(N), Vs, Bs),
    sum(Bs, #=, Num).

eq_b(X, Y, B) :- X #= Y #<==> B.
```

Sample queries and their results:

```prolog
?- Vs = [X,Y,Z], Vs ins 0..1, vs_n_num(Vs, 4, Num).
Vs = [X, Y, Z],
Num = 0,
X in 0..1,
Y in 0..1,
Z in 0..1.

?- vs_n_num([X,Y,Z], 2, 3).
X = 2,
Y = 2,
Z = 2.
```
?P #=> ?Q
  P implies Q.

?P #<== ?Q
  Q implies P.

?P #/
?Q
  P and Q hold.

?P #/\ ?Q
  P or Q holds. For example, the sum of natural numbers below 1000 that are multiples of 3 or 5:

```prolog
?- findall(N, (N mod 3 #= 0 #/ N mod 5 #= 0, N in 0..999, indomain(N)), Ns),
   sum(Ns, #=, Sum).
Ns = [0, 3, 5, 6, 9, 10, 12, 15, 18|...],
Sum = 233168.
```

**lex_chain(+Lists)**

Lists are lexicographically non-decreasing.

**tuples_in(+Tuples, +Relation)**

Relation must be a list of lists of integers. The elements of the list Tuples are constrained to be elements of Relation. Arbitrary finite relations, such as compatibility tables, can be modeled in this way. For example, if 1 is compatible with 2 and 5, and 4 is compatible with 0 and 3:

```prolog
?- tuples_in([X,Y], [[1,2],[1,5],[4,0],[4,3]]), X = 4.
   X = 4,
   Y in 0\3.
```

As another example, consider a train schedule represented as a list of quadruples, denoting departure and arrival places and times for each train. In the following program, Ps is a feasible journey of length 3 from A to D via trains that are part of the given schedule.

```prolog
:- use_module(library(clpfd)).

trains([1,2,0,1], [2,3,4,5], [2,3,0,1], [3,4,5,6], [3,4,2,3], [3,4,8,9]).

threepath(A, D, Ps) :-
  Ps = [[A,B,_T0,T1],[B,C,T2,T3],[C,D,T4,_T5]],
  T2 #> T1,
  T4 #> T3,
  trains(Ts),
  tuples_in(Ps, Ts).
```

In this example, the unique solution is found without labeling:

```prolog
?- threepath(1, 4, Ps).
P = [[1, 2, 0, 1], [2, 3, 4, 5], [3, 4, 8, 9]].
```
all_distinct(+Ls)
Like all.different/1, with stronger propagation. For example, all_distinct/1 can detect that not all variables can assume distinct values given the following domains:

```
?- maplist(in, Vs, [1\1..3, 1..2\4, 1..2\4, 1..3, 1..3, 1..6]), all_distinct(Vs).
false.
```

serialized(+Starts, +Durations)
Constrain a set of intervals to a non-overlapping sequence. Starts = [S_1,...,S_n], is a list of variables or integers, Durations = [D_1,...,D_n] is a list of non-negative integers. Constrains Starts and Durations to denote a set of non-overlapping tasks, i.e.: S_i + D_i <= S_j or S_j + D_j <= S_i for all 1 <= i < j <= n. Example:

```
?- length(Vs, 3), Vs ins 0..3, serialized(Vs, [1,2,3]), label(Vs).
Vs = [0, 1, 3] ;
Vs = [2, 0, 3] ;
false.
```

See also Dorndorf et al. 2000, "Constraint Propagation Techniques for the Disjunctive Scheduling Problem"

element(?N, +Vs, ?V)
The N-th element of the list of finite domain variables Vs is V. Analogous to nth1/3.

global_cardinality(+Vs, +Pairs)
Equivalent to global_cardinality(Vs, Pairs, []). Example:

```
?- Vs = [_,-, _], global_cardinality(Vs, [1-2,3-_]), label(Vs).
Vs = [1, 1, 3] ;
Vs = [1, 3, 1] ;
Vs = [3, 1, 1].
```

global_cardinality(+Vs, +Pairs, +Options)
Vs is a list of finite domain variables, Pairs is a list of Key-Num pairs, where Key is an integer and Num is a finite domain variable. The constraint holds iff each V in Vs is equal to some key, and for each Key-Num pair in Pairs, the number of occurrences of Key in Vs is Num. Options is a list of options. Supported options are:

consistency(value)
A weaker form of consistency is used.

cost(Cost, Matrix)
Matrix is a list of rows, one for each variable, in the order they occur in Vs. Each of these rows is a list of integers, one for each key, in the order these keys occur in Pairs. When variable v_i is assigned the value of key k_j, then the associated cost is Matrix_{i,j}. Cost is the sum of all costs.
circuit(+Vs)
True if the list Vs of finite domain variables induces a Hamiltonian circuit, where the k-th element of Vs denotes the successor of node k. Node indexing starts with 1. Examples:

?- length(Vs, _), circuit(Vs), label(Vs).
Vs = [] ;
Vs = [1] ;
Vs = [2, 1] ;
Vs = [2, 3, 1] ;
Vs = [3, 1, 2] ;
Vs = [2, 3, 4, 1].

automaton(+Signature, +Nodes, +Arcs)
Equivalent to automaton(_, _, Signature, Nodes, Arcs, [], [], _), a common use case of automaton/8. In the following example, a list of binary finite domain variables is constrained to contain at least two consecutive ones:

:- use_module(library(clpfd)).
two_consecutive_ones(Vs) :-
    automaton(Vs, [source(a), sink(c)],
    [arc(a,0,a), arc(a,1,b),
     arc(b,0,a), arc(b,1,c),
     arc(c,0,c), arc(c,1,c)]).

?- length(Vs, 3), two_consecutive_ones(Vs), label(Vs).
Vs = [0, 1, 1] ;
Vs = [1, 1, 0] ;
Vs = [1, 1, 1].

automaton(?Sequence, ?Template, +Signature, +Nodes, +Arcs, +Counters, +Initials, ?Finals)
True if the finite automaton induced by Nodes and Arcs (extended with Counters) accepts Signature. Sequence is a list of terms, all of the same shape. Additional constraints must link Sequence to Signature, if necessary. Nodes is a list of source(Node) and sink(Node) terms. Arcs is a list of arc(Node,Integer,Node) and arc(Node,Integer,Node,Exprs) terms that denote the automaton’s transitions. Each node is represented by an arbitrary term. Transitions that are not mentioned go to an implicit failure node. Exprs is a list of arithmetic expressions, of the same length as Counters. In each expression, variables occurring in Counters correspond to old counter values, and variables occurring in Template correspond to the current element of Sequence. When a transition containing expressions is taken, counters are updated as stated. By default, counters remain unchanged. Counters is a list of variables that must not occur anywhere outside of the constraint goal. Initials is a list of the same length as Counters. Counter arithmetic on the transitions relates the counter values in Initials to Finals.

The following example is taken from Beldiceanu, Carlsson, Debruyne and Petit: "Reformulation of Global Constraints Based on Constraints Checkers", Constraints 10(4), pp 339-362
A.7. LIBRARY(CLPFD): CONSTRAINT LOGIC PROGRAMMING OVER FINITE DOMAINS 325

It relates a sequence of integers and finite domain variables to its number of inflexions, which are switches between strictly ascending and strictly descending subsequences:

```prolog
:- use_module(library(clpfd)).

sequence_inflexions(Vs, N) :-
    variables_signature(Vs, Sigs),
    automaton(_, _, Sigs,
        [source(s), sink(i), sink(j), sink(s)],
        [arc(s,0,s), arc(s,1,j), arc(s,2,i),
         arc(i,0,i), arc(i,1,j,[C+1]), arc(i,2,i),
         arc(j,0,j), arc(j,1,j), arc(j,2,i,[C+1])], [C], [0], [N]).

variables_signature([], []).
variables_signature([V|Vs], Sigs) :-
    variables_signature_(Vs, V, Sigs).

variables_signature_([], _, []).
variables_signature_( [V|Vs], Prev, [S|Sigs] ) :-
    V #= Prev #<==> S #= 0,
    Prev #< V #<==> S #= 1,
    Prev #> V #<==> S #= 2,
    variables_signature_(Vs, V, Sigs).
```

Example queries:

```prolog
?- sequence_inflexions([1,2,3,3,2,1,3,0], N).
   N = 3.

?- length(Ls, 5), Ls ins 0..1, sequence_inflexions(Ls, 3), label(Ls).
   Ls = [0, 1, 0, 1, 0] ;
   Ls = [1, 0, 1, 0, 1].
```

**transpose(+Matrix, ?Transpose)**

Transpose a list of lists of the same length. Example:

```prolog
?- transpose([[1,2,3],[4,5,6],[7,8,9]], Ts).
   Ts = [[1, 4, 7], [2, 5, 8], [3, 6, 9]].
```

This predicate is useful in many constraint programs. Consider for instance Sudoku:

```prolog
:- use_module(library(clpfd)).

sudoku(Rows) :-
    length(Rows, 9), maplist(length_(9), Rows),
    append(Rows, Vs), Vs ins 1..9,
```

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
maplist(all_distinct, Rows),
transpose(Rows, Columns), maplist(all_distinct, Columns),
Rows = [A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I],
blocks(A, B, C), blocks(D, E, F), blocks(G, H, I).

length_(L, Ls) :- length(Ls, L).

blocks([], [], []).
blocks([A,B,C|Bs1], [D,E,F|Bs2], [G,H,I|Bs3]) :-
  all_distinct([A,B,C,D,E,F,G,H,I]),
  blocks(Bs1, Bs2, Bs3).

problem(1, [[_,_,_,_,_,_,_,_,_],
            [_,_,_,_,_,3,_,8,5],
            [_,_,1,_,2,_,_,_,_],
            [_,_,_,5,_,7,_,_,_],
            [_,_,4,_,_,1,_,_,_],
            [_,9,_,_,_,_,_,_,_],
            [5,_,_,_,_,_,7,3],
            [_,2,_,1,_,_,_,_],
            [_,_,4,_,_,_,9]])

Sample query:

?- problem(1, Rows), sudoku(Rows), maplist(writeln, Rows).
[9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1]
[2, 4, 6, 1, 7, 3, 9, 8, 5]
[3, 5, 1, 9, 2, 8, 7, 4, 6]
[1, 2, 8, 5, 3, 7, 6, 9, 4]
[6, 3, 4, 8, 9, 2, 1, 5, 7]
[7, 9, 5, 4, 6, 1, 8, 3, 2]
[5, 1, 9, 2, 8, 6, 4, 7, 3]
[4, 7, 2, 3, 1, 9, 5, 6, 8]
[8, 6, 3, 7, 4, 5, 2, 1, 9]
Rows = [[9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2|...], ... , [...|...]].

zcompare(?Order, ?A, ?B)
Analogous to compare/3, with finite domain variables A and B. Example:

:- use_module(library(clpfd)).

n_factorial(N, F) :-
zcompare(C, N, 0),
n_factorial_(C, N, F).
A.8. CLPQR: CONSTRAINT LOGIC PROGRAMMING OVER RATIONALS AND REALS

\[
\begin{align*}
n\text{-factorial}_(=, _, 1). \\
n\text{-factorial}_(>, N, F) & : F /= F0*N, N1 /= N - 1, n\text{-factorial}(N1, F0).
\end{align*}
\]

This version is deterministic if the first argument is instantiated:

?- n\_factorial(30, F).
F = 265252859812191058636308480000000.

\[\text{chain}(+Zs, +Relation)\]
\[Zs\] is a list of finite domain variables that are a chain with respect to the partial order \textit{Relation}, in the order they appear in the list. \textit{Relation} must be \#, \#, \#, \#, \#< or \#. For example:

?- chain([X,Y,Z], #>=).
X\#>=Y, 
Y\#>=Z.

\[\text{fd}\_\text{var}(+Var)\]
\textit{Var} is a CLP(FD) variable.

\[\text{fd}\_\text{inf}(+Var, -Inf)\]
\textit{Inf} is the infimum of the current domain of \textit{Var}.

\[\text{fd}\_\text{sup}(+Var, -Sup)\]
\textit{Sup} is the supremum of the current domain of \textit{Var}.

\[\text{fd}\_\text{size}(+Var, -Size)\]
\textit{Size} is the number of elements of the current domain of \textit{Var}, or the atom \textit{sup} if the domain is unbounded.

\[\text{fd}\_\text{dom}(+Var, -Dom)\]
\textit{Dom} is the current domain (see in/2) of \textit{Var}. This predicate is useful if you want to reason about domains. It is not needed if you only want to display remaining domains; instead, separate your model from the search part and let the toplevel display this information via residual goals.

A.8. clpqr: Constraint Logic Programming over Rationals and Reals

Author: Leslie De Koninck, K.U. Leuven

This CLP(Q,R) system is a port of the CLP(Q,R) system of Sicstus Prolog by Christian Holzbaur: Holzbaur C.: OFAI clp(q,r) Manual, Edition 1.3.3, Austrian Research Institute for Artificial Intelligence, Vienna, TR-95-09, 1995.\(^1\) This manual is roughly based on the manual of the above mentioned CLP(Q,R) implementation.

The CLP(Q,R) system consists of two components: the CLP(Q) library for handling constraints over the rational numbers and the CLP(R) library for handling constraints over the real numbers (using

\(^1\)http://www.ai.univie.ac.at/cgi-bin/tr-online?number+95-09
floating point numbers as representation). Both libraries offer the same predicates (with exception of `bb_inf/4` in CLP(Q) and `bb_inf/5` in CLP(R)). It is allowed to use both libraries in one program, but using both CLP(Q) and CLP(R) constraints on the same variable will result in an exception.

Please note that the `clpqr` library is not an autoload library and therefore this library must be loaded explicitly before using it:

```
:- use_module(library(clpq)).
```

or

```
:- use_module(library(clpr)).
```

A.8.1 Solver predicates

The following predicates are provided to work with constraints:

\[ \{ \} (+Constraints) \]

Adds the constraints given by `Constraints` to the constraint store.

\[ \text{entailed}(+Constraint) \]

Succeeds if `Constraint` is necessarily true within the current constraint store. This means that adding the negation of the constraint to the store results in failure.

\[ \text{inf}(+Expression, -Inf) \]

Computes the infimum of `Expression` within the current state of the constraint store and returns that infimum in `Inf`. This predicate does not change the constraint store.

\[ \text{sup}(+Expression, -Sup) \]

Computes the supremum of `Expression` within the current state of the constraint store and returns that supremum in `Sup`. This predicate does not change the constraint store.

\[ \text{minimize}(+Expression) \]

Minimizes `Expression` within the current constraint store. This is the same as computing the infimum and equating the expression to that infimum.

\[ \text{maximize}(+Expression) \]

Maximizes `Expression` within the current constraint store. This is the same as computing the supremum and equating the expression to that supremum.

\[ \text{bb_inf}(+Ints, +Expression, -Inf, -Vertex, +Eps) \]

This predicate is offered in CLP(R) only. It computes the infimum of `Expression` within the current constraint store, with the additional constraint that in that infimum, all variables in `Ints` have integral values. `Vertex` will contain the values of `Ints` in the infimum. `Eps` denotes how much a value may differ from an integer to be considered an integer. E.g. when `Eps` = 0.001, then X = 4.999 will be considered as an integer (5 in this case). `Eps` should be between 0 and 0.5.
A.9. LIBRARY(CSV): PROCESS CSV (COMMA-SEPARATED VALUES) DATA

\textbf{bb}\_inf(+\textit{Ints}, +\textit{Expression}, -\textit{Inf}, -\textit{Vertex})

This predicate is offered in CLP(Q) only. It behaves the same as \texttt{bb\_inf/5} but does not use an error margin.

\textbf{bb}\_inf(+\textit{ints}, +\textit{Expression}, -\textit{Inf})

The same as \texttt{bb\_inf/5} or \texttt{bb\_inf/4} but without returning the values of the integers. In CLP(R), an error margin of 0.001 is used.

\textbf{dump(+\textit{Target}, +\textit{Newvars}, -\textit{CodedAnswer})}

Returns the constraints on \textit{Target} in the list \textit{CodedAnswer} where all variables of \textit{Target} have been replaced by \textit{NewVars}. This operation does not change the constraint store. E.g. in

\begin{verbatim}
    dump([X,Y,Z],[x,y,z],Cons)
\end{verbatim}

\textit{Cons} will contain the constraints on \textit{X}, \textit{Y} and \textit{Z} where these variables have been replaced by atoms \texttt{x}, \texttt{y} and \texttt{z}.

A.8.2 Syntax of the predicate arguments

The arguments of the predicates defined in the subsection above are defined in table A.1. Failing to meet the syntax rules will result in an exception.

A.8.3 Use of unification

Instead of using the \{\}/1 predicate, you can also use the standard unification mechanism to store constraints. The following code samples are equivalent:

- \textit{Unification with a variable}

\begin{verbatim}
\{X = Y\}  \quad \text{X = Y}
\end{verbatim}

- \textit{Unification with a number}

\begin{verbatim}
\{X = 5.0\}  \quad \text{X = 5.0}
\end{verbatim}

A.8.4 Non-linear constraints

The CLP(Q,R) system deals only passively with non-linear constraints. They remain in a passive state until certain conditions are satisfied. These conditions, which are called the isolation axioms, are given in table A.2.

A.9 library(csv): Process CSV (Comma-Separated Values) data

\textbf{See also} RFC 4180

\textbf{To be done}

- Implement immediate assert of the data to avoid possible stack overflows.
- Writing creates an intermediate code-list, possibly overflowing resources. This waits for pure output!
(Constraints) ::= (Constraint) single constraint
  | (Constraint) , (Constraints) conjunction
  | (Constraint) ; (Constraints) disjunction

(Constraint) ::= (Expression) < (Expression) less than
  | (Expression) > (Expression) greater than
  | (Expression) =< (Expression) less or equal
  | <=((Expression), (Expression)) less or equal
  | (Expression) >= (Expression) greater or equal
  | (Expression) \= (Expression) not equal
  | (Expression) ::= (Expression) equal
  | (Expression) =:= (Expression) equal

(Expression) ::= (Variable) Prolog variable
  | (Number) Prolog number (float, integer)
  | + (Expression) unary plus
  | - (Expression) unary minus
  | (Expression) + (Expression) addition
  | (Expression) - (Expression) substraction
  | (Expression) * (Expression) multiplication
  | (Expression) / (Expression) division
  | abs((Expression)) absolute value
  | sin((Expression)) sine
  | cos((Expression)) cosine
  | tan((Expression)) tangent
  | exp((Expression)) exponent
  | pow((Expression)) exponent
  | (Expression) ^ (Expression) exponent
  | min((Expression), (Expression)) minimum
  | max((Expression), (Expression)) maximum

Table A.1: CLP(Q,R) constraint BNF

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Constraint</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A = B * C</td>
<td>B or C is ground A and (B or C) are ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A = B / C</td>
<td>C is ground A and B are ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X = min(Y, Z)</td>
<td>Y and Z are ground A and B are ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X = max(Y, Z)</td>
<td>Y and Z are ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X = abs(Y)</td>
<td>Y is ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X = pow(Y, Z)</td>
<td>X and Y are ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X = exp(Y, Z)</td>
<td>X and Z are ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X = Y ^ Z</td>
<td>Y and Z are ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X = sin(Y)</td>
<td>X is ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X = cos(Y)</td>
<td>Y is ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X = tan(Y)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| A = 5 * C or A = B * 4 |
| 20 = 5 * C or 20 = B * 4 |
| A = B / 3 |
| 4 = 12 / C |
| X = min(4,3) |
| X = max(4,3) |
| X = abs(-7) |
| 8 = 2 ^ Z |
| 8 = Y ^ 3 |
| X = 2 ^ 3 |
| 1 = sin(Y) |
| X = sin(1.5707) |

Table A.2: CLP(Q,R) isolating axioms
This library parses and generates CSV data. CSV data is represented in Prolog as a list of rows. Each row is a compound term, where all rows have the same name and arity.

```prolog
% csv_read_file(+File, -Rows)
% csv_read_file(+File, -Rows, +Options)
read a CSV file into a list of rows. Each row is a Prolog term with the same arity. Options is handed to csv//2. Remaining options are processed by phrase_from_file/3.

Suppose we want to create a predicate table/6 from a CSV file that we know contains 6 fields per record. This can be done using the code below. Without the option arity(6), this would generate a predicate table/N, where N is the number of fields per record in the data.

?- csv_read_file(File, Rows, [functor(table), arity(6)]), maplist(assert, Rows).
```

```prolog
csv(?Rows) //
csv(?Rows, +Options) //
Prolog DCG to ‘read/write’ CSV data. Options:

separator(+Code)
The comma-separator. Must be a character code. Default is (of course) the comma. Character codes can be specified using the 0’ notion. E.g., separator(0';).

strip(+Boolean)
If true (default false), strip leading and trailing blank-space. RFC4180 says that blank space is part of the data.

convert(+Boolean)
if true (Default), use name/2 on the field-data. This translates the field into a number if possible.

functor(+Atom)
Functor to use for creating row-terms. Default is row.

arity(?Arity)
Number of fields in each row. This predicate raises a domain_error(row arity(Expected), Found) if a row is found with different arity.
```

```prolog
csv_write_file(+File, +Data)
csv_write_file(+File, +Data, +Options)
Write a list of Prolog terms to a CSV file. Options are given to csv//2. Remaining options are given to open/4.
```

### A.10  **debug**: Some reusable code to help debugging applications

This library provides an structured alternative for putting print-statements into your source-code to trace what is going on. Debug messages are organised in *topics* that can be activated and de-activated without changing the source. In addition, if the application is compiled with the −O flag these predicates are removed using goal_expansion/2.
Although this library can be used through the normal demand-loading mechanism it is advised to load it explicitly before code using it to profit from goal-expansion, which removes these calls if compiled with optimisation on and records the topics from `debug/3` and `debugging/1` for `list_debug_topics/0`.

**debug**(\(+Topic, +Format, +Args\))

If `Topic` is a selected debugging topic (see `debug/1`) a message is printed using `print_message/2` with level informational. `Format` and `Args` are interpreted by `format/2`. Here is a typical example:

```
..., debug(init, 'Initialised \{w\}', [Module]), ..., ...
```

`Topic` can be any Prolog term. Compound terms can be used to make categories of topics that can be activated using `debug/1`.

**debugging**(\(+Topic\))

Succeeds if `Topic` is a selected debugging topic. It is intended to execute arbitrary code depending on the users debug topic selection. The construct `(debugging(Topic) -> Code ; true)` is removed if the code is compiled in optimise mode.

**debug**(\(+Topic\))

Select all registered topics that unify with `Topic` for debugging. This call is normally used from the toplevel to activate a topic for debugging. If no matching `Topic` is registered a warning is printed and the topic is registered for debugging as matching debug statements may be loaded later. Topics are de-activated using `nodebug/1`.

**nodebug**(\(+Topic\))

Deactivates topics for debugging. See `debug/1` for the arguments.

**list_debug_topics**

List the current status of registered topics. See also `debugging/0`.

**assertion**(\(:Goal\))

This predicate is to be compared to the C-library assert() function. By inserting this goal you explicitly state you expect `Goal` to succeed at this place. As `assertion/1` calls are removed when compiling in optimized mode `Goal` should not have side-effects. Typical examples are type-tests and validating invariants defined by your application.

If `Goal` fails the system prints a message, followed by a stack-trace and starts the debugger.

In older versions of this library this predicate was called `assume/1`. Code using `assume/1` is automatically converted while printing a warning on the first occurrence.

### A.11 gensym: Generate unique identifiers

Gensym (Generate Symbols) is an old library for generating unique symbols (atoms). Such symbols are generated from a base atom which gets a sequence number appended. Of course there is no
guarantee that ‘catch22’ is not an already defined atom and therefore one must be aware these atoms are only unique in an isolated context.

The SWI-Prolog gensym library is thread-safe. The sequence numbers are global over all threads and therefore generated atoms are unique over all threads.

gensym(+Base, -Unique)
Generate a unique atom from base Base and unify it with Unique. Base should be an atom. The first call will return ⟨base⟩1, the next ⟨base⟩2, etc. Note that this is no warrant that the atom is unique in the system.

reset_gensym(+Base)
Restart generation of identifiers from Base at ⟨Base⟩1. Used to make sure a program produces the same results on subsequent runs. Use with care.

reset_gensym
Reset gensym for all registered keys. This predicate is available for compatibility only. New code is strongly advice to avoid the use of reset_gensym or at least to reset only the keys used by your program to avoid unexpected site-effects on other components.

A.12 library(lists): List Manipulation

This library provides commonly accepted basic predicates for list manipulation in the Prolog community. Some additional list manipulations are built-in. See e.g., memberchk/2, length/2.

The implementation of this library is copied from many places. These include: “The Craft of Prolog”, the DEC-10 Prolog library (LISTRO.PL) and the YAP lists library.

member(?Elem, ?List)
True if Elem is a member of List. The SWI-Prolog definition differs from the classical one. Our definition avoids unpacking each list element twice and provides determinism on the last element. E.g. this is deterministic:

\[
\text{member}(X, [\text{One}]).
\]

author Gertjan van Noord

append(?List1, ?List2, ?List1AndList2)
List1AndList2 is the concatenation of List1 and List2

append(+ListOfLists, ?List)
Concatenate a list of lists. Is true if Lists is a list of lists, and List is the concatenation of these lists.

Parameters

- **ListOfLists** must be a list of -possibly- partial lists

prefix(?Part, ?Whole)
True iff Part is a leading substring of Whole. This is the same as append(Part, _, Whole).
select(?Elem, ?List1, ?List2)
Is true when List1, with Elem removed results in List2.

selectchk(+Elem, +List, -Rest)
Semi-deterministic removal of first element in List that unifies Elem.

[nondet]
Is true when select(X, XList) and select(Y, YList) are true, X and Y appear in the same locations of their respective lists and same_length(XList, YList) is true. A typical use for this predicate is to replace an element:

?- select(b, [a, b, c], 2, X).
X = [a, 2, c] ;
X = [a, b, c].

selectchk(X, XList, Y, YList)
[semidet]
Semi-deterministic version of select/4.

nextto(?X, ?Y, ?List)
True of Y follows X in List.

delete(?List1, ?Elem, ?List2)
Is true when List1, with all occurrences of Elem deleted results in List2.

See also select/3, subtract/3.
deprecated There are too many ways in which one might want to delete elements from a list to justify the name. Think of matching (= vs. ==), delete first/all, be deterministic or not.

nth0(?Index, ?List, ?Elem)
True if Elem is the Index’th element of List. Counting starts at 1. This is a faster version of the original SWI-Prolog predicate.

nth1(?Index, ?List, ?Elem)
Is true when Elem is the Index’th element of List. Counting starts at 1. This is a faster version of the original SWI-Prolog predicate.

last(?List, ?Last)
Succeeds if ‘Last’ unifies with the last element of ‘List’.

Compatibility There is no de-facto standard for the argument order of last/2. Be careful when porting code or use append(_, [Last], List) as a portable alternative.

reverse(?List1, ?List2)
Is true when the elements of List2 are in reverse order compared to List1.

permutation(?Xs, ?Ys)
[nondet]
permutation(Xs, Ys) is true when Xs is a permutation of Ys. This can solve for Ys given Xs or Xs given Ys, or even enumerate Xs and Ys together.
A.12. LIBRARY(LISTS): LIST MANIPULATION

flatten(+List1, ?List2)  
Is true if List2 is a non nested version of List1.

See also append/2  
deprecated Ending up needing flatten/3 often indicates, like append/3 for appending two lists, a bad design. Efficient code that generates lists from generated small lists must use difference lists, often possible through grammar rules for optimal readability.

sumlist(+List, -Sum)  
Sum is the result of adding all numbers in List.

max_list(+List:list(number), -Max:number)  
True if Max is the largest number in List.

min_list(+List:list(number), -Min:number)  
True if Min is the largest number in List.

numlist(+Low, +High, -List)  
List is a list [Low, Low+1, ... High]. Fails if High < Low.

Errors
- type_error(integer, Low)
- type_error(integer, High)

is_set(@Set)  
True if Set is a proper list without duplicates. Equivalence is based on ==/2. The implementation uses sort/2, which implies that the complexity is N*log(N) and the predicate may cause a resource-error. There are no other error conditions.

list_to_set(+List, ?Set)  
True when Set has the same element as List in the same order. The left-most copy of the duplicate is retained. The complexity of this operation is |List| ^ 2.

See also sort/2.

intersection(+Set1, +Set2, -Set3)  
True if Set3 unifies with the intersection of Set1 and Set2. The complexity of this predicate is |Set1| * |Set2|

See also ord_intersection/3.

union(+Set1, +Set2, -Set3)  
True if Set3 unifies with the union of Set1 and Set2. The complexity of this predicate is |Set1| * |Set2|

See also ord_union/3.

subset(+SubSet, +Set)  
True if all elements of SubSet belong to Set as well. Membership test is based on memberchk/2. The complexity is |SubSet| * |Set|.

See also ord_subset/2.
subtract(+Set, +Delete, -Result) [det]

Delete all elements from ‘Set’ that occur in ‘Delete’ (a set) and unify the result with ‘Result’. Deletion is based on unification using memberchk/2. The complexity is $|\text{Delete}| \times |\text{Set}|$.

See also ord_subtract/3.

A.13 nb_set: Non-backtrackable set

The library nb_set defines non-backtrackable sets, implemented as binary trees. The sets are represented as compound terms and manipulated using nb_setarg/3. Non-backtrackable manipulation of datastructures is not supported by a large number of Prolog implementation, but it has several advantages over using the database. It produces less garbage, is thread-safe, reentrant and deals with exceptions without leaking data.

Similar to the assoc library keys can be any Prolog term, but it is not allowed to instantiate or modify a term.

One of the ways to use this library is to generate unique values on backtracking without generating all solutions first, for example to act as a filter between a generator producing many duplicates and an expensive test routine, as outlines below.

```prolog
generate_and_test(Solution) :-
    empty_nb_set(Set),
    generate(Solution),
    add_nb_set(Solution, Set, true),
    test(Solution).
```

empty_nb_set(?Set)

True if Set is a non-backtrackable empty set.

add_nb_set(+Key, !Set)

Add Key to Set. If Key is already a member of Set, add_nb_set/3 succeeds without modifying Set.

add_nb_set(+Key, !Set, ?New)

If Key is not in Set and New is unified to true Key is added to Set. If Key is in Set New is unified to false. It can be used for many purposes:

- add_nb_set(+, +, false) Test membership
- add_nb_set(+, +, true) Succeed only if new member
- add_nb_set(+, +, Var) Succeed, binding Var

gen_nb_set(+Set, -Key)

Generate all members of Set on backtracking in the standard order of terms. To test membership, use add_nb_set/3.

size_nb_set(+Set, -Size)

Unify Size with the number of elements in Set.

nb_set_to_list(+Set, -List)

Unify List with a list of all elements in set in the standard order of terms (i.e. and ordered list).
A.14 www_browser: Activating your Web-browser

This library deals with the very system dependent task of opening a web page in a browser. See also url and the HTTP package.

www_open_url(+URL)
Open URL in an external web-browser. The reason to place this in the library is to centralise the maintenance on this highly platform and browser specific task. It distinguishes between the following cases:

- **MS-Windows**
  If it detects MS-Windows it uses win_shell/2 to open the URL. The behaviour and browser started depends on the Window and Windows-shell configuration, but in general it should be the behaviour expected by the user.

- **Other platforms**
  On other platforms it tests the environment variable (see getenv/2) named BROWSER or uses netscape if this variable is not set. If the browser is either mozilla or netscape, www_open_url/1 first tries to open a new window on a running using the -remote option of netscape. If this fails or the browser is not mozilla or netscape the system simply passes the URL as first argument to the program.

A.15 library(option): Option list processing

See also library(record)

To be done
- We should consider putting many options in an assoc or record with appropriate preprocessing to achieve better performance.
- We should provide some standard to do automatic type-checking on option lists.

The library(option) provides some utilities for processing option lists. Option lists are commonly used as an alternative for many arguments. Examples built-in predicates are open/4 and write_term/3. Naming the arguments results in more readable code and the list nature makes it easy to extend the list of options accepted by a predicate. Option lists come in two styles, both of which are handled by this library.

**Name(Value)** This is the preferred style.

**Name = Value** This is often used, but deprecated.

Processing options inside time critical code (loops) can cause serious overhead. One possibility is to define a record using library(record) and initialise this using make‹record›/2. In addition to providing good performance, this also provides type-checking and central declaration of defaults.

```prolog
:- record atts(width:integer=100, shape:oneof([box,circle])=box).
process(Data, Options) :-
    make_atts(Options, Attributes),
    action(Data, Attributes).
```
**action**(Data, Attributes) :-
    atts_shape(Attributes, Shape),
    ...

**option**(?Option, +OptionList, +Default)
  Get an option from a OptionList. OptionList can use the Name=Value as well as the Name(Value) convention.

  Parameters
  Option Term of the form Name(\?Value).

**option**(?Option, +OptionList)
  Get an option from a OptionList. OptionList can use the Name=Value as well as the Name(Value) convention. Fails silently if the option does not appear in OptionList.

  Parameters
  Option Term of the form Name(\?Value).

**select_option**(?Option, +Options, -RestOptions) [semidet]
  Get and remove option from an option list. As option/2, removing the matching option from Options and unifying the remaining options with RestOptions.

**select_option**(?Option, +Options, -RestOptions, +Default) [det]
  Get and remove option with default value. As select_option/3, but if Option is not in Options, its value is unified with Default and RestOptions with Options.

**merge_options**(+New, +Old, -Merged) [det]
  Merge two option lists. Merged is a sorted list of options using the canonical format Name(Value) holding all options from New and Old, after removing conflicting options from Old.

  Multi-values options (e.g., proxy(Host, Port)) are allowed, where both option-name and arity define the identity of the option.

**meta_options**(+IsMeta, :Options0, -Options) [det]
  Perform meta-expansion on options that are module-sensitive. Whether an option name is module sensitive is determined by calling call(IsMeta, Name). Here is an example:

  meta_options(is_meta, OptionsIn, Options),
  ...
  is_meta(callback).

**A.16 ordsets: Ordered Set Manipulation**

Ordered sets are lists with unique elements sorted to the standard order of terms (see sort/2). Exploiting ordering, many of the set operations can be expressed in order \( N \) rather than \( N^2 \) when
dealing with unordered sets that may contain duplicates. The ordsets is available in a number of Prolog implementations. Our predicates are designed to be compatible with common practice in the Prolog community. The implementation is incomplete and relies partly on oset, an older ordered set library distributed with SWI-Prolog. New applications are advices to use ordsets.

Some of these predicates match directly to corresponding list operations. It is adviced to use the versions from this library to make clear you are operating on ordered sets.

ord_empty(?Set)
   True if Set is an empty ordered set. Set unifies with the empty list.

list_to_ord_set(+List, -OrdSet)
   Convert a List to an ordered set. Same as sort/2.

ord_add_element(+Set, +Element, -NewSet)
   Add an element to an ordered set. NewSet is the same as Set if Element is already part of Set.

ord_del_element(+Set, +Element, -NewSet)
   Delete Element from Set. Succeeds without changing Set if Set does not contain Element.

ord_intersect(+Set1, +Set2)
   True if the intersection of Set1 and Set2 is non-empty.

ord_intersection(+Set1, +Set2, -Intersection)
   True if Intersection is the intersection of Set1 and Set2.

ord_disjoint(+Set1, +Set2)
   True if Set1 and Set2 have no common element. Negation of ord_intersect/2.

ord_subtract(+Set, +Delete, -Remaining)
   True if Remaining contains the elements of Set that are not in set Delete.

ord_union(+Set1, +Set2, -Union)
   True if Union contains all elements from Set1 and Set2

ord_union(+Set1, +Set2, -Union, -New)
   Defined as if ord_union(Set1, Set2, Union), ord_subtract(Set2, Set1, New).

ord_subset(+Sub, +Super)
   True if all elements of Sub are in Super.

ord_memberchk(+Element, +Set)
   True if Element appears in Set. Does not backtrack. Same as memberchk/2.

A.17 library(pairs): Operations on key-value lists

author Jan Wielemaker
See also keysort/2, library(assoc)

This module implements common operations on Key-Value lists, also known as Pairs. Pairs have great practical value, especially due to keysort/2 and the library assoc.pl.
This library is based on discussion in the SWI-Prolog mailing list, including specifications from Quintus and a library proposal by Richard O’Keefe.

```
pairs_keys_values(?Pairs, ?Keys, ?Values) [det]
   True if Keys holds the keys of Pairs and Values the values.
   Deterministic if any argument is instantiated to a finite list and the others are either free or finite lists. All three lists are in the same order.

   See also pairs_values/2 and pairs_keys/2.
```

```
pairs_values(+Pairs, -Values) [det]
   Remove the keys from a list of Key-Value pairs. Same as pairs_keys_values(Pairs, _, Values)
```

```
pairs_keys(+Pairs, -Keys) [det]
   Remove the values from a list of Key-Value pairs. Same as pairs_keys_values(Pairs, Keys, _)
```

```
group_pairs_by_key(+Pairs, -Joined:list(Key-Values)) [det]
   Group values with the same key. Pairs must be a key-sorted list. For example:

   ?- group_pairs_by_key([a-2, a-1, b-4], X).
   X = [a-[2,1], b-[4]]
```

```
   Parameters

   Pairs   Key-Value list, sorted to the standard order of terms (as keysort/2 does)
   Joined  List of Key-Group, where Group is the list of Values associated with Key.
```

```
transpose_pairs(+Pairs, -Transposed) [det]
   Swap Key-Value to Value-Key and sort the result on Value (the new key) using keysort/2.
```

```
map_list_to_pairs(:Function, +List, -Keyed)
   Create a key-value list by mapping each element of List. For example, if we have a list of lists we can create a list of Length-List using

   map_list_to_pairs(length,ListOfLists, Pairs),
```

A.18  pio: Pure I/O

This library provides pure list-based I/O processing for Prolog, where the communication to the actual I/O device is performed transparently through coroutining. This module itself is just an interface to the actual implementation modules.
A.18.1 library(pure_input): Pure Input from files

author
- Ulrich Neumerkel
- Jan Wielemaker

To be done
- Provide support for alternative input readers, e.g. reading terms, tokens, etc.
- Support non-repositioning streams, such as sockets and pipes.

This module is part of pio.pl, dealing with pure input: processing input streams from the outside world using pure predicates, notably grammar rules (DCG). Using pure predicates makes non-deterministic processing of input much simpler.

Pure input uses coroutining (freeze/2) to read input from the external source into a list on demand. The overhead of lazy reading is more than compensated for by using block reads based on read_pending_input/3.

\[\text{phrase_from_file}(:Grammar, +File)^^{[nondet]}\]

Process the content of File using the DCG rule Grammar. The space usage of this mechanism depends on the length of the not committed part of Grammar. Committed parts of the temporary list are reclaimed by the garbage collector, while the list is extended on demand. Here is a very simple definition for searching a string in a file:

\[\ldots \rightarrow [[], \ldots .\]

\[\text{file_contains}(:File, Pattern) :-\]
\[\text{phrase_from_file}(:, Pattern, \ldots), File).\]

\[\text{match_count}(:File, Pattern, Count) :-\]
\[\text{findall}(x, \text{file_contains}(:File, Pattern), Xs),\]
\[\text{length}(Xs, Count).\]

This can be called as (note that the pattern must be a string (code list)):

\[?\text{- match_count}('pure_input.pl', "file", Count).\]

\[\text{phrase_from_file}(:Grammar, +File, +Options)\]

As phrase_from_file/2, providing additional Options. Options are passed to open/4, except for buffer_size, which is passed to set_stream/2. If not specified, the default buffer size is 512 bytes. Of particular importance are the open/4 options type and encoding.

\[\text{stream_to_lazy_list}(:Stream, \text{-List})\]

Create a lazy list representing the character codes in Stream. It must be possible to reposition Stream. List is a list that ends in a delayed goal. List can be unified completely transparent to a (partial) list and processed transparently using DCGs, but please be aware that a lazy list is not the same as a materialized list in all respects.

Typically, this predicate is used as a building block for more high level safe predicates such as phrase_from_file/2.
To be done  Enhance of lazy list throughout the system.

A.19  prolog_xref: Cross-reference data collection library

This library collects information on defined and used objects in Prolog sourcefiles. Typically these are predicates, but we expect the library to deal with other types of objects in the future. The library is a building block for tools doing dependency tracking in applications. Dependency tracking is useful to reveal the structure of an unknown program or detect missing components at compile-time, but also for program transformation or minimising a program saved-state by only saving the reachable objects.

This section gives a partial description of the library API, providing some insight in how you can use it for analysing your program. The library should be further modularized, moving its knowledge about -for example- XPCE into a different file and allowing for adding knowledge about other libraries such as Logtalk. Please do not consider this interface rock-solid.

The library is exploited by two graphical tools in the SWI-Prolog environment. The XPCE frontend started by gxref/0 and described in section 3.7 and PceElmac (section 3.4) which exploits this library for its syntax colouring.

For all predicates described below, Source is the source that is processed. This is normally a filename in any notation acceptable to the file loading predicates (see load_files/2). Using the hooks defined in section A.19.1 it can be anything else that can be translated into a Prolog stream holding Prolog source text. Callable is a callable term (see callable/1). Callables do not carry a module qualifier unless the referred predicate is not in the module defined Source.

xref_source(+Source)
    Gather information on Source. If Source has already been processed and is still up-to-date according to the file timestamp, no action is taken. This predicate must be called on a file before information can be gathered.

xref_current_source(?Source)
    Source has been processed.

xref_clean(+Source)
    Remove the information gathered for Source.

xref_defined(?Source, ?Callable, -How)
    Callable is defined in Source. How is one of
    dynamic(Line)  Declared dynamic at Line
    thread_local(Line)  Declared thread local at Line
    multifile(Line)  Declared multifile at Line
    local(Line)  First clause at Line
    foreign(Line)  Foreign library loaded at Line
    constraint(Line)  CHR Constraint at Line
    imported(File)  Imported from File

xref_called(?Source, ?Callable, ?By)
    Callable is called in Source by By.

xref_exported(?Source, ?Callable)
    Callable is public (exported from the module).
xref_module(?Source, ?Module)
  Source is a module-file defining the given module.

xref_built_in(?Callable)
  True if Callable is a built-in predicate. Currently this is assumed for all predicates defined in
  the system module and having the property built_in. Built-in predicates are not registered
  as 'called'.

A.19.1 Extending the library

The library provides hooks for extending its rules it uses for finding predicates called by some pro-
gramming construct.

prolog:called_by(+Goal, -Called)
  Where Goal is a non-var subgoal appearing in called object (typically a clause-body). If it suc-
ceeds it must return a list of goals called by Goal. As a special construct, if a term Callable + N
is returned, N variable arguments are added to Callable before further processing. For simple
meta-calls a single fact suffices. Complex rules as used in the html_write library provided
by the HTTP package examine the arguments and create a list of called objects.

The current system cannot deal with the same name/arity in different modules that behave dif-
ferently with respect to called arguments.

A.20 readutil: Reading lines, streams and files

This library contains primitives to read lines, files, multiple terms, etc. The package clib provides
a shared object (DLL) named readutil. If the library can locate this shared object it will use the
foreign implementation for reading character codes. Otherwise it will use a Prolog implementation.
Distributed applications should make sure to deliver the readutil shared object if performance of
these predicates is critical.

read_line_to_codes(+Stream, -Codes)
  Read the next line of input from Stream and unify the result with Codes after the line has been
  read. A line is ended by a newline character or end-of-file. Unlike read_line_to_codes/3,
  this predicate removes trailing newline character.
  
  On end-of-file the atom end_of_file is returned. See also at_end_of_stream/[0,1].

read_line_to_codes(+Stream, -Codes, ?Tail)
  Diference-list version to read an input line to a list of character codes. Reading stops at the
  newline or end-of-file character, but unlike read_line_to_codes/2, the newline is retained
  in the output. This predicate is especially useful for readine a block of lines upto some
delimiter. The following example reads an HTTP header ended by a blank line:

```prolog
read_header_data(Stream, Header) :-
    read_line_to_codes(Stream, Header, Tail),
    read_header_data(Header, Stream, Tail).
read_header_data("\r\n", _, _) :- !.
```

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
read_header_data("\n", _, _) :- !.
read_header_data("", _, _) :- !.
read_header_data(_, Stream, Tail) :-
    read_line_to_codes(Stream, Tail, NewTail),
    read_header_data(Tail, Stream, NewTail).

read_stream_to_codes(+Stream, -Codes)
Read all input until end-of-file and unify the result to Codes.

read_stream_to_codes(+Stream, -Codes, ?Tail)
Difference-list version of read_stream_to_codes/2.

read_file_to_codes(+Spec, -Codes, +Options)
Read a file to a list of character codes. Spec is a file-specification for absolute_file_name/3. Codes is the resulting code-list. Options is a list of options for absolute_file_name/3 and open/4. In addition, the option tail(Tail) is defined, forming a difference-list.

read_file_to_terms(+Spec, -Terms, +Options)
Read a file to a list of prolog terms (see read/1). Spec is a file-specification for absolute_file_name/3. Terms is the resulting list of Prolog terms. Options is a list of options for absolute_file_name/3 and open/4. In addition, the option tail(Tail) is defined, forming a difference-list.

A.21 record: Access named fields in a term
The library record provides named access to fields in a record represented as a compound term such as point(X, Y). The Prolog world knows various approaches to solve this problem, unfortunately with no consensus. The approach taken by this library is proposed by Richard O’Keefe on the SWI-Prolog mailinglist.

The approach automates a technique commonly described in Prolog text-books, where access- and modification predicates are defined for the record type. Such predicates are subject to normal import/export as well as analysis by cross-referencers. Given the simple nature of the access predicates, an optimizing compiler can easily inline them for optimal performance.

A record is defined using the directive record/1. We introduce the library with a short example:

```prolog
:- record point(x:integer=0, y:integer=0).

..., default_point(Point),
point_x(Point, X),
set_x_of_point(10, Point, Point1),
make_point([y(20)], YPoint),
```

The principal functor and arity of the term used defines the name and arity of the compound used as records. Each argument is described using a term of the format below.
RECORD: ACCESS NAMED FIELDS IN A TERM

\( \langle name \rangle [\langle type \rangle] = \langle default \rangle \) \]

In this definition, \( \langle name \rangle \) is an atom defining the name of the argument. \( \langle type \rangle \) is an optional type specification as defined by \texttt{must_be/2} from library \texttt{error} and \( \langle default \rangle \) is the default initial value. The \( \langle type \rangle \) defaults to \texttt{any}. If no default value is specified the default is an unbound variable.

A record declaration creates a set of predicates through term-expansion. We describe these predicates below. In this description, \( \langle constructor \rangle \) refers to the name of the record (‘point’ in the example above) and \( \langle name \rangle \) to the name of an argument (field).

- \( default \langle constructor \rangle \langle -Record \rangle \)
  Create a new record where all fields have their default values. This is the same as \texttt{make\langle constructor\rangle([], Record)}.

- \( make \langle constructor \rangle \langle +Fields, -Record \rangle \)
  Create a new record where specified fields have the specified values and remaining fields have their default value. Each field is specified as a term \( \langle name \rangle (\langle value \rangle) \). See example in the introduction.

- \( make \langle constructor \rangle \langle +Fields, -Record, -RestFields \rangle \)
  Same as \texttt{make\langle constructor\rangle/2}, but named fields that do not appear in \texttt{Record} are returned in \texttt{RestFields}. This predicate is motivated by option-list processing. See library \texttt{option}.

- \( \langle constructor \rangle . \langle name \rangle \langle Record, Value \rangle \)
  Unify \texttt{Value} with argument in \texttt{Record} named \( \langle name \rangle \).

- \( set \langle name \rangle . of \langle constructor \rangle \langle +Value, +OldRecord, -NewRecord \rangle \)
  Replace the value for \( \langle name \rangle \) in \texttt{OldRecord} by \texttt{Value} and unify the result with \texttt{NewRecord}.

- \( set \langle name \rangle . of \langle constructor \rangle \langle +Value, !Record \rangle \)
  Destructively replace the argument \( \langle name \rangle \) in \texttt{Record} by \texttt{Value} based on \texttt{setarg/3}. Use with care.

- \( nb \_set \langle name \rangle . of \langle constructor \rangle \langle +Value, !Record \rangle \)
  As above, but using non-backtrackable assignment based on \texttt{nb\_setarg/3}. Use with \texttt{extreme} care.

- \( set \langle constructor \rangle . fields \langle +Fields, +Record0, -Record \rangle \)
  Set multiple fields using the same syntax as \texttt{make\langle constructor\rangle/2}, but starting with \texttt{Record0} rather than the default record.

- \( set \langle constructor \rangle . fields \langle +Fields, +Record0, -Record, -RestFields \rangle \)
  Similar to \texttt{set\langle constructor\rangle . fields/4}, but fields not defined by \( \langle constructor \rangle \) are returned in \texttt{RestFields}.

- \( set \langle constructor \rangle . field \langle +Field, +Record0, -Record \rangle \)
  Set a single field specified as a term \( \langle name \rangle (\langle value \rangle) \).

\texttt{record(+Spec)}

The construct \texttt{:- record Spec, ...} is used to define access to named fields in a compound. It is subject to term-expansion (see \texttt{expand\_term/2}) and cannot be called as a predicate. See section \texttt{A.21} for details.

\[\text{Note this is not called ‘get\_’ as it performs unification and can perfectly well instantiate the argument.}\]
A.22 registry: Manipulating the Windows registry

The registry is only available on the MS-Windows version of SWI-Prolog. It loads the foreign extension plregtry.dll, providing the predicates described below. This library only makes the most common operations on the registry available through the Prolog user. The underlying DLL provides a more complete coverage of the Windows registry API. Please consult the sources in pl/src/win32/foreign/plregtry.c for further details.

In all these predicates, Path refers to a ‘/’ separated path into the registry. This is not an atom containing ‘/’-characters as used for filenames, but a term using the functor //2. Windows defines the following roots for the registry: classes_root, current_user, local_machine and users

\[
\text{registry_get_key(+Path, -Value)}
\]
Get the principal (default) value associated to this key. Fails silently of the key does not exist.

\[
\text{registry_get_key(+Path, +Name, -Value)}
\]
Get a named value associated to this key.

\[
\text{registry_set_key(+Path, +Value)}
\]
Set the principal (default) value of this key. Creates (a path to) the key if this does not already exist.

\[
\text{registry_set_key(+Path, +Name, +Value)}
\]
Associated a named value to this key. Creates (a path to) the key if this does not already exist.

\[
\text{registry_delete_key(+Path)}
\]
Delete the indicated key.

\[
\text{shell_register_file_type(+Ext, +Type, +Name, +OpenAction)}
\]
Register a file-type. Ext is the extension to associate. Type is the type name, often something link prolog.type. Name is the name visible in the Windows file-type browser. Finally, OpenAction defines the action to execute when a file with this extension is opened in the Windows explorer.

\[
\text{shell_register_dde(+Type, +Action, +Service, +Topic, +Command, +IfNotRunning)}
\]
Associate DDE actions to a type. Type is the same type as used for the 2nd argument of shell_register_file_type/4, Action is the a action to perform, Service and Topic specify the DDE topic to address and Command is the command to execute on this topic. Finally, IfNotRunning defines the command to execute if the required DDE server is not present.

\[
\text{shell_register_prolog(+Ext)}
\]
Default registration of SWI-Prolog, which is invoked as part of the initialisation process on Windows systems. As the source also explains the above predicates, it is given as an example:

```
shell_register_prolog(Ext) :-
  current_prolog_flag(argv, [Me|_]),
  concat_atom(["", Me, " " "%1""], OpenCommand),
  shell_register_file_type(Ext, 'prolog.type', 'Prolog Source', OpenCommand),
  shell_register_dde('prolog.type', consult,
```
A.23  **SIMPLEX: SOLVE LINEAR PROGRAMMING PROBLEMS**

```
prolog, control, 'consult(''%1'')', Me),
shell_register_dde('prolog.type', edit,
prolog, control, 'edit(''%1'')', Me).
```

A.23  **simplex: Solve linear programming problems**

Author: *Markus Triska*

A linear programming problem consists of a set of (linear) constraints, a number of variables and a linear objective function. The goal is to assign values to the variables so as to maximize (or minimize) the value of the objective function while satisfying all constraints.

Many optimization problems can be modeled in this way. Consider having a knapsack with fixed capacity C, and a number of items with sizes s(i) and values v(i). The goal is to put as many items as possible in the knapsack (not exceeding its capacity) while maximizing the sum of their values.

As another example, suppose you are given a set of coins with certain values, and you are to find the minimum number of coins such that their values sum up to a fixed amount. Instances of these problems are solved below.

The `simplex` module provides the following predicates:

**assignment(+Cost, -Assignment)**

Cost is a list of lists representing the quadratic cost matrix, where element (i,j) denotes the cost of assigning entity i to entity j. An assignment with minimal cost is computed and unified with Assignment as a list of lists, representing an adjacency matrix.

**constraint(+Constraint, +S0, -S)**

Adds a linear or integrality constraint to the linear program corresponding to state S0. A linear constraint is of the form "Left Op C", where "Left" is a list of Coefficient*Variable terms (variables in the context of linear programs can be atoms or compound terms) and C is a non-negative numeric constant. The list represents the sum of its elements. Op can be =, =¡ or ¿=. The coefficient "1" can be omitted. An integrality constraint is of the form integral(Variable) and constrains Variable to an integral value.

**constraint(+Name, +Constraint, +S0, -S)**

Like `constraint/3`, and attaches the name Name (an atom or compound term) to the new constraint.

**constraint_add(+Name, +Left, +S0, -S)**

Left is a list of Coefficient*Variable terms. The terms are added to the left-hand side of the constraint named Name. S is unified with the resulting state.

**gen_state(-State)**

Generates an initial state corresponding to an empty linear program.

**maximize(+Objective, +S0, -S)**

Maximizes the objective function, stated as a list of "Coefficient*Variable" terms that represents the sum of its elements, with respect to the linear program corresponding to state S0. S is unified with an internal representation of the solved instance.
minimize(+Objective, +S0, -S)
  Analogous to maximize/3.

doctrine(+State, -Objective)
  Unifies Objective with the result of the objective function at the obtained extremum. State must correspond to a solved instance.

shadow_price(+State, +Name, -Value)
  Unifies Value with the shadow price corresponding to the linear constraint whose name is Name. State must correspond to a solved instance.

transportation(+Supplies, +Demands, +Costs, -Transport)
  Supplies and Demands are both lists of positive numbers. Their respective sums must be equal. Costs is a list of lists representing the cost matrix, where an entry (i,j) denotes the cost of transporting one unit from i to j. A transportation plan having minimum cost is computed and unified with Transport in the form of a list of lists that represents the transportation matrix, where element (i,j) denotes how many units to ship from i to j.

variable_value(+State, +Variable, -Value)
  Value is unified with the value obtained for Variable. State must correspond to a solved instance.

All numeric quantities are converted to rationals via rationalize/1, and rational arithmetic is used throughout solving linear programs. In the current implementation, all variables are implicitly constrained to be non-negative. This may change in future versions, and non-negativity constraints should therefore be stated explicitly.

A.23.1 Example 1

This is the ”radiation therapy” example, taken from ”Introduction to Operations Research” by Hillier and Lieberman. DCG notation is used to implicitly thread the state through posting the constraints:

```prolog
:- use_module(library(simplex)).

post_constraints -->
    constraint([0.3*x1, 0.1*x2] =< 2.7),
    constraint([0.5*x1, 0.5*x2] = 6),
    constraint([0.6*x1, 0.4*x2] =< 6),
    constraint([x1] =< 0),
    constraint([x2] =< 0).

radiation(S) :-
    gen_state(S0),
    post_constraints(S0, S1),
    minimize([0.4*x1, 0.5*x2], S1, S).
```

An example query:

```prolog
?- radiation(S), variable_value(S, x1, Vall), variable_value(S, x2, Val2).
```
Val1 = 15 rdiv 2
Val2 = 9 rdiv 2;

A.23.2  Example 2

Here is an instance of the knapsack problem described above, where C = 8, and we have two types of
items: One item with value 7 and size 6, and 2 items each having size 4 and value 4. We introduce
two variables, x(1) and x(2) that denote how many items to take of each type.

knapsack_constrain(S) :-
    gen_state(S0),
    constraint([6*x(1), 4*x(2)] =< 8, S0, S1),
    constraint([x(1)] =< 1, S1, S2),
    constraint([x(2)] =< 2, S2, S).

knapsack(S) :-
    knapsack_constrain(S0),
    maximize([7*x(1), 4*x(2)], S0, S).

An example query yields:

?- knapsack(S), variable_value(S, x(1), X1), variable_value(S, x(2), X2).
X1 = 1
X2 = 1 rdiv 2;

That is, we are to take the one item of the first type, and half of one of the items of the other type to
maximize the total value of items in the knapsack.

If items can not be split, integrality constraints have to be imposed:

knapsack_integral(S) :-
    knapsack_constrain(S0),
    constraint(integral(x(1)), S0, S1),
    constraint(integral(x(2)), S1, S2),
    maximize([7*x(1), 4*x(2)], S2, S).

Now the result is different:

?- knapsack_integral(S), variable_value(S, x(1), X1), variable_value(S, x(2), X2).
X1 = 0
X2 = 2

That is, we are to take only the two items of the second type. Notice in particular that always choosing
the remaining item with best performance (ratio of value to size) that still fits in the knapsack does not
necessarily yield an optimal solution in the presence of integrality constraints.
A.23.3 Example 3

We are given 3 coins each worth 1, 20 coins each worth 5, and 10 coins each worth 20 units of money. The task is to find a minimal number of these coins that amount to 111 units of money. We introduce variables c(1), c(5) and c(20) denoting how many coins to take of the respective type:

```prolog
coins -->
    constraint([c(1), 5*c(5), 20*c(20)] = 111),
    constraint([c(1)] =< 3),
    constraint([c(5)] =< 20),
    constraint([c(20)] =< 10),
    constraint([c(1)] >= 0),
    constraint([c(5)] >= 0),
    constraint([c(20)] >= 0),
    constraint(integral(c(1))),
    constraint(integral(c(5))),
    constraint(integral(c(20))),
    minimize([c(1), c(5), c(20)]).
coins(S) :-
gen_state(S0),
coins(S0, S).
```

An example query:

```prolog
?- coins(S), variable_value(S, c(1), C1), variable_value(S, c(5), C5), variable_value(S, c(20), C20).
```

C1 = 1
C5 = 2
C20 = 5

A.24 library(thread_pool): Resource bounded thread management

See also http_handler/3 and http_spawn/2.

The module library(thread_pool) manages threads in pools. A pool defines properties of its member threads and the maximum number of threads that can coexist in the pool. The call thread_create_in_pool/4 allocates a thread in the pool, just like thread_create/3. If the pool is fully allocated it can be asked to wait or raise an error.

The library has been designed to deal with server application that receive a variety of requests, such as HTTP servers. Simply starting a thread for each request is a bit too simple minded for such servers:

- Creating many CPU intensive threads often leads to a slow-down rather than a speedup.
A.24. LIBRARY(THREAD_POOL): RESOURCE BOUNDED THREAD MANAGEMENT

- Creating many memory intensive threads may exhaust resources
- Tasks that require little CPU and memory but take long waiting for external resources can run many threads.

Using this library, one can define a pool for each set of tasks with comparable characteristics and create threads in this pool. Unlike the worker-pool model, threads are not started immediately. Depending on the design, both approaches can be attractive.

The library is implemented by means of a manager thread with the fixed thread id __thread_pool_manager. All state is maintained in this manager thread, which receives and processes requests to create and destroy pools, create threads in a pool and handle messages from terminated threads. Thread pools are **not** saved in a saved state and must therefore be recreated using the initialization/1 directive or otherwise during startup of the application.

```prolog
thread_pool_create(+Pool, +Size, +Options)
(det)
Create a pool of threads. A pool of threads is a declaration for creating threads with shared properties (stack sizes) and a limited number of threads. Threads are created using thread_create_in_pool/4. If all threads in the pool are in use, the behaviour depends on the wait option of thread_create_in_pool/4 and the backlog option described below. Options are passed to thread_create/3, except for

`backlog(+MaxBackLog)`
Maximum number of requests that can be suspended. Default is infinite. Otherwise it must be a non-negative integer. Using backlog(0) will never delay thread creation for this pool.

The pooling mechanism does **not** interact with the detached state of a thread. Threads can be created both detached and normal and must be joined using thread_join/2 if they are not detached.

`bug` The thread creation option at_exit is reserved for internal use by this library.
```

thread_pool_destroy(+Name)
(det)
Destroy the thread pool named Name.

Errors existence_error(thread_pool, Name).
```

```prolog
current_thread_pool(?Name)
(nondet)
True if Name refers to a defined thread pool.
```

```prolog
thread_pool_property(?Name, ?Property)
(nondet)
True if Property is a property of thread pool Name. Defined properties are:

`options(Options)`
Thread creation options for this pool

`free(Size)`
Number of free slots on this pool
```
size(Size)
   Total number of slots on this pool

members(ListOfIDs)
   ListOfIDs is the list or threads running in this pool

running(Running)
   Number of running threads in this pool

backlog(Size)
   Number of delayed thread creations on this pool

thread_create_in_pool(+Pool, :Goal, -Id, +Options)
   [det]
Create a thread in Pool. Options overrule default thread creation options associated to the pool.
In addition, the following option is defined:

wait(+Boolean)
   If true (default) and the pool is full, wait until a member of the pool completes. If false, throw a resource_error.

Errors
   - resource_error(threads_in_pool(Pool)) is raised if wait is false or the backlog limit has been reached.
   - existence_error(thread_pool, Pool) if Pool does not exist.

A.25 ugraphs: Unweighted Graphs

Authors: Richard O’Keefe & Vitor Santos Costa

Implementation and documentation are copied from YAP 5.0.1. The ugraph library is based on code originally written by Richard O’Keefe. The code was then extended to be compatible with the SICStus Prolog ugraphs library. Code and documentation have been cleaned and style has been changed to be more in line with the rest of SWI-Prolog.

The ugraphs library was originally released in the public domain. YAP is covered by the Perl artistic license, which does not imply further restrictions on the SWI-Prolog LGPL license.

The routines assume directed graphs, undirected graphs may be implemented by using two edges.
Originally graphs where represented in two formats. The SICStus library and this version of ugraphs.pl only uses the S-representation. The S-representation of a graph is a list of (vertex-neighbors) pairs, where the pairs are in standard order (as produced by keysort) and the neighbors of each vertex are also in standard order (as produced by sort). This form is convenient for many calculations. Each vertex appears in the S-representation, also if it has no neighbors.

vertices_edges_to_ugraph(+Vertices, +Edges, -Graph)
   Given a graph with a set of Vertices and a set of Edges, Graph must unify with the corresponding S-representation. Note that the vertices without edges will appear in Vertices but not in Edges. Moreover, it is sufficient for a vertex to appear in Edges.
In this case all vertices are defined implicitly. The next example shows three unconnected vertices:

?- vertices_edges_to_uigraph([6,7,8],[1-3,2-4,4-5,1-5], L).
L = [1-[3,5], 2-[4], 3-[], 4-[5], 5-[], 6-[], 7-[], 8-[]] ?

vertices(+Graph, -Vertices)
Unify Vertices with all vertices appearing in graph Graph. Example:

?- vertices([1-[3,5],2-[4],3-[],4-[5],5-[]], L).
L = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]

edges(+Graph, -Edges)
Unify Edges with all edges appearing in Graph. In the next example:

?- edges([1-[3,5],2-[4],3-[],4-[5],5-[]], L).
L = [1-3, 1-5, 2-4, 4-5]

add_vertices(+Graph, +Vertices, -NewGraph)
Unify NewGraph with a new graph obtained by adding the list of Vertices to the Graph. Example:

?- add_vertices([1-[3,5],2-[]], [0,1,2,9], NG).
NG = [0-[], 1-[3,5], 2-[], 9-[]]

del_vertices(+Graph, +Vertices, -NewGraph)
Unify NewGraph with a new graph obtained by deleting the list of Vertices and all the edges that start from or go to a vertex in Vertices to the Graph. Example:

?- del_vertices([2,1],
               [1-[3,5],2-[4],3-[],4-[5],5-[],6-[],7-[2,6],8-[]],
               NL).
NL = [3-[],4-[5],5-[],6-[],7-[6],8-[]]

add_edges(+Graph, +Edges, -NewGraph)
Unify NewGraph with a new graph obtained by adding the list of edges Edges to the graph Graph. Example:
?- add_edges([1-[3,5],2-[4],3-[1],4-[5],5-[],6-[],7-[],8-[]],
               [1-6,2-3,3-2,5-7,3-2,4-5],
               NL).
NL = [1-[3,5,6], 2-[3,4], 3-[2], 4-[5], 5-[7], 6-[], 7-[], 8-[]]

del_edges(+Graph, +Edges, -NewGraph)
Unify NewGraph with a new graph obtained by removing the list of Edges from the Graph. Notice that no vertices are deleted. In the next example:

?- del_edges([1-[3,5],2-[4],3-[1],4-[5],5-[],6-[],7-[],8-[]],
               [1-6,2-3,3-2,5-7,3-2,4-5,1-3],
               NL).
NL = [1-[5],2-[4],3-[1],4-[1],5-[1],6-[],7-[],8-[]]

transpose(+Graph, -NewGraph)
Unify NewGraph with a new graph obtained from Graph by replacing all edges of the form V1-V2 by edges of the form V2-V1. The cost is \(O(|V|^2)\). Notice that an undirected graph is its own transpose. Example:

?- transpose([1-[3,5],2-[4],3-[1],4-[5],5-[],6-[],7-[],8-[]], NL).
NL = [1-[],2-[],3-[1],4-[2],5-[1,4],6-[],7-[],8-[]]

neighbours(+Vertex, +Graph, -Vertices)
Unify Vertices with the list of neighbours of vertex Vertex in Graph. Example:

?- neighbours(4,[1-[3,5],2-[4],3-[1],
                 4-[1,2,7,5],5-[],6-[],7-[],8-[]], NL).
NL = [1,2,7,5]

neighbors(+Vertex, +Graph, -Vertices)
American version of neighbours/3.

complement(+Graph, -NewGraph)
Unify NewGraph with the graph complementary to Graph. Example:

?- complement([1-[3,5],2-[4],3-[1],
               4-[1,2,7,5],5-[],6-[],7-[],8-[]], NL).
NL = [1-[2,4,6,7,8],2-[1,3,5,6,7,8],3-[1,2,4,5,6,7,8],
     4-[3,5,6,8],5-[1,2,3,4,6,7,8],6-[1,2,3,4,5,7,8],
     7-[1,2,3,4,5,6,8],8-[1,2,3,4,5,6,7]]

compose(+LeftGraph, +RightGraph, -NewGraph)
Compose, by connecting the drains of LeftGraph to the sources of RightGraph. Example:
ugraph_union(+Graph1, +Graph2, -NewGraph)
NewGraph is the union of Graph1 and Graph2. Example:

?- ugraph_union([1-[2], 2-[3]], [2-[4], 3-[1,2,4]], L).
L = [1-[2], 2-[3,4], 3-[1,2,4]]

top_sort(+Graph, -Sort)
Generate the set of nodes Sort as a topological sorting of graph Graph, if one is possible. A topological sort is possible if the graph is connected and acyclic. In the example we show how topological sorting works for a linear graph:

?- top_sort([1-[2], 2-[3], 3-[]], L).
L = [1, 2, 3]

top_sort(+Graph, -Sort0, -Sort)
Generate the difference list Sort-Sort0 as a topological sorting of graph Graph, if one is possible.

transitive_closure(+Graph, -Closure)
Generate the graph Closure as the transitive closure of graph Graph. Example:

?- transitive_closure([1-[2,3], 2-[4,5], 4-[6]], L).
L = [1-[2,3,4,5,6], 2-[4,5,6], 4-[6]]

reachable(+Vertex, +Graph, -Vertices)
Unify Vertices with the set of all vertices in graph Graph that are reachable from Vertex. Example:

?- reachable(1, [1-[3,5], 2-[4], 3-[], 4-[5], 5-[]], V).
V = [1, 3, 5]

A.26 library(url): Analysing and constructing URL

author
- Jan Wielemaker
- Lukas Faulstich

deprecated
New code should use library(uri), provided by the clib package.
This library deals with the analysis and construction of a URL, Universal Resource Locator. URL is the basis for communicating locations of resources (data) on the web. A URL consists of a protocol identifier (e.g. HTTP, FTP, and a protocol-specific syntax further defining the location. URLs are standardized in RFC-1738.

The implementation in this library covers only a small portion of the defined protocols. Though the initial implementation followed RFC-1738 strictly, the current is more relaxed to deal with frequent violations of the standard encountered in practical use.

\begin{verbatim}
\begin{verbatim}
\global_url(+URL, +Base, -Global) \end{verbatim}
\end{verbatim}
\begin{verbatim}

Translate a possibly relative \textit{URL} into an absolute one.

\textbf{Errors}  syntax_error(illegal_url) if \textit{URL} is not legal.
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
\is_absolute_url(+URL) \end{verbatim}
\begin{verbatim}

True if \textit{URL} is an absolute \textit{URL}. That is, a \textit{URL} that starts with a protocol identifier.
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
\http_location(?Parts, ?Location) \end{verbatim}
\begin{verbatim}

Construct or analyze an HTTP location. This is similar to \texttt{parse_url/2}, but only deals with the location part of an HTTP URL. That is, the path, search and fragment specifiers. In the HTTP protocol, the first line of a message is

\begin{verbatim}
<Action> <Location> HTTP/<version>
\end{verbatim}
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{Parameters}

\textit{Location} Atom or list of character codes.

\begin{verbatim}
\parse_url(+URL, -Attributes) \end{verbatim}
\begin{verbatim}

Construct or analyse a \textit{URL}. \textit{URL} is an atom holding a \textit{URL} or a variable. \textit{Parts} is a list of components. Each component is of the format \texttt{Name(Value)}. Defined components are:

\textbf{protocol}\\
\begin{verbatim}
\texttt{Protocol}
\end{verbatim}
\begin{verbatim}

The used protocol. This is, after the optional \texttt{url:}, an identifier separated from the remainder of the \textit{URL} using \texttt{::parse_url/2} assumes the \texttt{http} protocol if no protocol is specified and the \textit{URL} can be parsed as a valid HTTP url. In addition to the RFC-1738 specified protocols, the \texttt{file} protocol is supported as well.
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{host}\\
\begin{verbatim}
\texttt{Host}
\end{verbatim}
\begin{verbatim}

Host-name or IP-address on which the resource is located. Supported by all network-based protocols.
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{port}\\
\begin{verbatim}
\texttt{Port}
\end{verbatim}
\begin{verbatim}

Integer port-number to access on the \texttt{\arg\{Host\}}. This only appears if the port is explicitly specified in the \textit{URL}. Implicit default ports (e.g., 80 for HTTP) do not appear in the part-list.
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{path}\\
\begin{verbatim}
\texttt{Path}
\end{verbatim}
\begin{verbatim}

(File-) path addressed by the \textit{URL}. This is supported for the \texttt{ftp, http} and \texttt{file} protocols. If no path appears, the library generates the path \texttt{/}.
\end{verbatim}
search(ListOfNameValue)
Search-specification of HTTP URL. This is the part after the ?, normally used to transfer data from HTML forms that use the GET protocol. In the URL it consists of a www-form-encoded list of Name=Value pairs. This is mapped to a list of Prolog Name=Value terms with decoded names and values.

fragment(Fragment)
Fragment specification of HTTP URL. This is the part after the # character.

The example below illustrates the all this for an HTTP URL.

P = [ protocol(http),
       host('swi.psy.uva.nl'),
       fragment(x),
       search([ msg = 'Hello World!' ]),
       path('/message.cgi') ]

By instantiating the parts-list this predicate can be used to create a URL.

parse_url(+URL, +BaseURL, -Attributes) [det]
Similar to parse_url/2 for relative URLs. If URL is relative, it is resolved using the absolute URL BaseURL.

www_form_encode(+Value, -XWWWFormEncoded) [det]
www_form_encode(-Value, +XWWWFormEncoded) [det]
En/Decode between native value and application/x-www-form-encoded. Maps space to +, keeps alnum, maps anything else to %XX and newlines to %OD%OA. When decoding, newlines appear as a single newline (10) character.

set_url_encoding(?Old, +New) [semidet]
Query and set the encoding for URLs. The default is utf8. The only other defined value is iso_latin_1.

To be done Having a global flag is highly inconvenient, but a work-around for old sites using ISO Latin 1 encoding.

url_iri(+Encoded, -Decoded) [det]
url_iri(-Encoded, +Decoded) [det]
Convert between a URL, encoding in US-ASCII and an IRI. An IRI is a fully expanded Unicode string. Unicode strings are first encoded into UTF-8, after which %-encoding takes place.

parse_url_search(?Spec, ?Fields:list(Name=Value)) [det]
Construct or analyze an HTTP search specification. This deals with form data using the MIME-type =application/x-www-form-urlencoded= as used in HTTP GET requests.
file_name_to_url(+File, -URL)  \[det\]
file_name_to_url(-File, +URL)  \[semidet\]

Translate between a filename and a file:// URL.

**To be done**  Current implementation does not deal with paths that need special encoding.
This appendix describes a number of predicates which enable the Prolog user to inspect the Prolog environment and manipulate (or even redefine) the debugger. They can be used as entry points for experiments with debugging tools for Prolog. The predicates described here should be handled with some care as it is easy to corrupt the consistency of the Prolog system by misusing them.

### B.1 Examining the Environment Stack

**prolog_current_frame(-Frame)**

Unify Frame with an integer providing a reference to the parent of the current local stack frame. A pointer to the current local frame cannot be provided as the predicate succeeds deterministically and therefore its frame is destroyed immediately after succeeding.

**prolog_frame_attribute(+Frame, +Key, -Value)**

Obtain information about the local stack frame Frame. Frame is a frame reference as obtained through prolog_current_frame/1, prolog_trace_interception/4 or this predicate. The key values are described below.

- **alternative**
  
  Value is unified with an integer reference to the local stack frame in which execution is resumed if the goal associated with Frame fails. Fails if the frame has no alternative frame.

- **has_alternatives**
  
  Value is unified with true if Frame still is a candidate for backtracking. false otherwise.

- **goal**
  
  Value is unified with the goal associated with Frame. If the definition module of the active predicate is not user the goal is represented as ⟨module⟩:⟨goal⟩. Do not instantiate variables in this goal unless you know what you are doing! Note that the returned term may contain references to the frame and should be discarded before the frame terminates.1

- **parent_goal**
  
  If Value is instantiated to a callable term, find a frame executing the predicate described by Value and unify the arguments of Value to the goal arguments associated with the frame. This is intended to check the current execution context. The user must ensure the checked parent goal is not removed from the stack due to last-call optimisation and be aware of the slow operation on deeply nested calls.

1The returned term is actually an illegal Prolog term that may hold references from the global- to the local stack to preserve the variable names.
predicate_indicator
Similar to goal, but only returning the ⟨module⟩⟨name⟩⟨arity⟩ term describing the term, not the actual arguments. It avoids creating an illegal term as goal and is used by the library prolog_stack.

clause
Value is unified with a reference to the currently running clause. Fails if the current goal is associated with a foreign (C) defined predicate. See also nth_clause/3 and clause_property/2.

level
Value is unified with the recursion level of Frame. The top level frame is at level ‘0’.

parent
Value is unified with an integer reference to the parent local stack frame of Frame. Fails if Frame is the top frame.

context_module
Value is unified with the name of the context module of the environment.

top
Value is unified with true if Frame is the top Prolog goal from a recursive call back from the foreign language. false otherwise.

hidden
Value is unified with true if the frame is hidden from the user, either because a parent has the hide-childs attribute (all system predicates), or the system has no trace-me attribute.

pc
Value is unified with the program-pointer saved on behalf of the parent-goal if the parent-goal is not owned by a foreign predicate.

argument(N)
Value is unified with the N-th slot of the frame. Argument 1 is the first argument of the goal. Arguments above the arity refer to local variables. Fails silently if N is out of range.

prolog_choice_attribute(+ChoicePoint, +Key, -Value)
Extract attributes of a choice-point. ChoicePoint is a reference to a choice-point as passed to prolog_trace_interception/4 on the 3-th argument. Key specifies the requested information:

parent
Requests a reference to the first older choice-point.

frame
Requests a reference to the frame to which the choice-point refers.

type
Requests the type. Defined values are clause (the goal has alternative clauses), foreign (non-deterministic foreign predicate), jump (clause internal choice-point), top (first dummy choice-point), catch (catch/3 to allow for undo), debug (help the debugger), or none (has been deleted).

This predicate is used for the graphical debugger to show the choice-point stack.
deterministic(-Boolean)

Unifies its argument with true if no choicepoint exists that is more recent than the entry of the clause in which it appears. There are few realistic situations for using this predicate. It is used by the prolog/0 toplevel to check whether Prolog should prompt the user for alternatives. Similar results can be achieved in a more portable fashion using call_cleanup/2.

B.2 Interception of the Tracer

prolog_trace_interception(+Port, +Frame, +Choice, -Action)

Dynamic predicate, normally not defined. This predicate is called from the SWI-Prolog debugger just before it would show a port. If this predicate succeeds the debugger assumes the trace action has been taken care of and continues execution as described by Action. Otherwise the normal Prolog debugger actions are performed.

Port denotes the reason to activate the tracer (‘port’ in the 4/5-port, but with some additions:

call
Normal entry through the call-port of the 4-port debugger.

redo
Normal entry through the call-port of the 4-port debugger. The redo port signals resuming a predicate to generate alternative solutions.

unify
The unify-port represents the neck instruction, signalling the end of the head-matching process. This port is normally invisible. See leash/1 and visible/1.

exit
The exit-port signals the goal is proved. It is possible for the goal to have alternative. See prolog_frame_attribute/3 to examine the goal-stack.

fail
The fail-port signals final failure of the goal.

exception(Except)
An exception is raised and still pending. This port is activated on each parent frame of the frame generating the exception until the exception is caught or the user restarts normal computation using retry. Except is the pending exception-term.

break(PC)
A break instruction is executed. PC is program counter. This port is used by the graphical debugger.

cut_call(PC)
A cut is encountered at PC. This port is used by the graphical debugger to visualise the effect of the cut.

cut_exit(PC)
A cut has been executed. See cut_call(PC) for more information.

Frame is a reference to the current local stack frame, which can be examined using prolog_frame_attribute/3. Choice is a reference to the last choice-point and can be examined using prolog_choice_attribute/3. Action should be unified with one of the
atoms continue (just continue execution), retry (retry the current goal) or fail (force the current goal to fail). Leaving it a variable is identical to continue.

Together with the predicates described in section 4.37 and the other predicates of this chapter this predicate enables the Prolog user to define a complete new debugger in Prolog. Besides this it enables the Prolog programmer monitor the execution of a program. The example below records all goals trapped by the tracer in the database.

```
prolog_trace_interception(Port, Frame, _PC, continue) :-
    prolog_frame_attribute(Frame, goal, Goal),
    prolog_frame_attribute(Frame, level, Level),
    recordz(trace, trace(Port, Level, Goal)).
```

To trace the execution of ‘go’ this way the following query should be given:

```
?- trace, go, notrace.
```

**prolog_skip_frame(Frame)**

Indicate Frame as a skipped frame and set the ‘skip level’ (see prolog_slot_level/2 to the recursion depth of Frame. The effect of the skipped flag is that a redo on a child of this frame is handled differently. First, a redo trace is called for the child, where the skip-level is set to redo_in_skip. Next, the skip level is set to skip-level of the skipped frame.

**prolog_skip_level(Old, New)**

Unify Old with the old value of ‘skip level’ and than set this level according to New. New is an integer, the atom very_deep (meaning don’t skip) or the atom skip_in_redo (see prolog_slot_frame/1). The ‘skip level’ is a setting of each Prolog thread that disables the debugger on all recursion levels deeper than the level of the variable. See also prolog_slot_frame/1.

### B.3 Adding context to errors: prolog_exception_hook

The hook prolog_exception_hook/4 has been introduced in SWI-Prolog 5.6.5 to provide dedicated exception handling facilities for application frameworks. For example non-interactive server applications that wish to provide extensive context for exceptions for offline debugging.

**prolog_exception_hook(ExceptionIn, ExceptionOut, Frame, CatcherFrame)**

This hook predicate, if defined in the module user, is between raising an exception and handling it. It is intended to allow a program adding additional context to an exception to simplify diagnosing the problem. ExceptionIn is the exception term as raised by throw/1 or one of the built-in predicates. The output argument ExceptionOut describes the exception that is actually raised. Frame is the innermost frame. See prolog_frame_attribute/3 and the library prolog_stack for getting information from this. CatcherFrame is a reference to the frame calling the matching catch/3 or none of the exception is not caught.

The hook is run in ‘nodebug’ mode. If it succeeds ExceptionOut is considered the current exception. If it fails, ExceptionIn is used for further processing. The hook is never called
recursively. The hook is not allowed to modify ExceptionOut in such as way that it no longer unifies with the catching frame.

Typically, `prolog_exception_hook/4` is used to fill the second argument of `error(Formal, Context)` exceptions. Formal is defined by the ISO standard, while SWI-Prolog defines Context as a term `context(Location, Message)`. Location is bound to a term `<name>/<arity>` by the kernel. This hook can be used to add more information on the calling context, such as a full stack trace.

Applications that use exceptions as part of normal processing must do a quick test of the environment before starting expensive gathering information on the state of the program.

The hook can call `trace/0` to enter trace mode immediately. For example imagine an application performing an unwanted division by zero while all other errors are expected and handled. We can force the debugger using the hook definition below. Run the program in debug mode (see `debug/0`) to preserve as much as possible of the error context.

```prolog
user:prolog_exception_hook(error(evaluation_error(zero_divisor), _), _, _, _) :-
    trace, fail.
```

### B.4 Hooks using the exception predicate

This section describes the predicate `exception/3`, which can be defined by the user in the module `user` as a multifile predicate. Unlike the name suggests, this is actually a hook predicate that has no relation to Prolog exceptions as defined by the ISO predicates `catch/3` and `throw/1`.

The predicate `exception/3` is called by the kernel on a couple of events, allowing the user to ‘fix’ errors just-in-time. The mechanism allows for lazy creation of objects such as predicates.

#### `exception(Except, Context, -Action)`

Dynamic predicate, normally not defined. Called by the Prolog system on run-time exceptions that can be repaired ‘just-in-time’. The values for Exception are described below. See also `catch/3` and `throw/1`.

If this hook predicate succeeds it must instantiate the Action argument to the atom `fail` to make the operation fail silently, `retry` to tell Prolog to retry the operation or `error` to make the system generate an exception. The action `retry` only makes sense if this hook modified the environment such that the operation can now succeed without error.

#### `undefined_predicate`

Context is instantiated to a predicate-indicator ([module]:<name>/<arity>). If the predicate fails Prolog will generate an existence_error exception. The hook is intended to implement alternatives to the built-in autoloader, such as autoloading code from a database. Do not use this hook to suppress existence errors on predicates. See also `unknown` and section 2.13.

#### `undefined_global_variable`

Context is instantiated to the name of the missing global variable. The hook must call `nb_setval/2` or `b_setval/2` before returning with the action `retry`.
B.5  Hooks for integrating libraries

Some libraries realise an entirely new programming paradigm on top of Prolog. An example is XPCE which adds an object-system to Prolog as well as an extensive set of graphical primitives. SWI-Prolog provides several hooks to improve the integration of such libraries. See also section 4.4 for editing hooks and section 4.9.3 for hooking into the message system.

prolog_list_goal(:Goal)
Hook, normally not defined. This hook is called by the ‘L’ command of the tracer in the module user to list the currently called predicate. This hook may be defined to list only relevant clauses of the indicated Goal and/or show the actual source-code in an editor. See also portray/1 and multifile/1.

prolog:debug_control_hook(:Action)
Hook for the debugger-control predicates that allows the creator of more high-level programming languages to use the common front-end predicates to control the debugger. For example, XPCE uses these hooks to allow for spying methods rather than predicates. Action is one of:

spy(Spec)
Hook in spy/1. If the hook succeeds spy/1 takes no further action.

nospy(Spec)
Hook in nospy/1. If the hook succeeds spy/1 takes no further action. If spy/1 is hooked, it is advised to place a complementary hook for nospy/1.

nospyall
Hook in nospyall/0. Should remove all spy-points. This hook is called in a failure-driven loop.

debugging
Hook in debugging/0. It can be used in two ways. It can report the status of the additional debug-points controlled by the above hooks and fail to let the system report the others or it succeed, overruling the entire behaviour of debugging/0.

prolog:help_hook(+Action)
Hook into help/0 and help/1. If the hook succeeds, the built-in actions are not executed. For example, ?- help(picture). is caught by the XPCE help-hook to give help on the class picture. Defined actions are:

help
User entered plain help/0 to give default help. The default performs help(help/1), giving help on help.

help(What)
Hook in help/1 on the topic What.

apropos(What)
Hook in apropos/1 on the topic What.
B.6 Hooks for loading files

All loading of source-files is achieved by load_files/2. The hook prolog_load_file/2 can be used to load Prolog code from non-files or even load entirely different information, such as foreign files.

**prolog_load_file(+Spec, +Options)**
Load a single object. If this call succeeds, load_files/2 assumes the action has been taken care of. This hook is only called if Options does not contain the stream(Input) option. The hook must be defined in the module user.

The http_load provides an example, loading Prolog sources directly from an HTTP server.

**prolog:comment_hook(+Comments, +Pos, +Term)**
This hook allows for processing —structured— comments encountered by the compiler. The reader collects all comments found from the current position to the end of the next term. It calls this hook providing a list of Position-Comment in Comments, the start-position of the next term in Pos and the next term itself in Term. All positions are stream-position terms. This hook is exploited by the documentation system. See stream_position_data/3. See also read_term/3.

B.7 Readline Interaction

The following predicates are available if SWI-Prolog is linked to the GNU readline library. This is by default the case on non-Windows installations and indicated by the Prolog flag readline. See also readline(3)

**rl_read_init_file(+File)**
Read a readline initialisation file. Readline by default reads ~/.inputrc. This predicate may be used to read alternative readline initialisation files.

**rl_add_history(+Line)**
Add a line to the Control-P/Control-N history system of the readline library.

**rl_write_history(+FileName)**
Write current history to FileName. Can be used from at_halt/1 to save the history.

**rl_read_history(+FileName)**
Read history from FileName, appending to the current history.

---

\(^2\) SWI-Prolog uses its own history system and does not support these predicates.
Compatibility with other Prolog dialects

This chapter explains issues for writing portable Prolog programs. It was started after discussion with Vitor Santos Costa, the leading developer of YAP Prolog\(^1\). YAP and SWI-Prolog have expressed the ambition to enhance the portability beyond the trivial Prolog examples, including complex libraries involving foreign code.

Although it is our aim to enhance compatibility, we are still faced with many incompatibilities between the dialects. As a first step both YAP and SWI will provide some instruments that help developing portable code. A first release of these tools appeared in SWI-Prolog 5.6.43. Some of the facilities are implemented in the base system. Others in the library dialect.pl.

- The Prolog flag `dialect` is an unambiguous and fast way to find out which Prolog dialect executes your program. It has the value `swi` for SWI-Prolog and `yap` on YAP.

- The Prolog flag `version_data` is bound to a term `swi(Major, Minor, Patch, Extra)`.

- Conditional compilation using `:- if(Condition) ...:- endif` is supported. See section 4.3.1.

- The predicate `expects_dialect/1` allows for specifying for which Prolog system the code was written.

- The predicates `exists_source/1` and `source_exports/2` can be used to query the library content. The `require/1` directive can be used to get access to predicates without knowing their location.

- The module predicates `use_module/1`, `use_module/2` have been extended with a notion for ‘import-except’ and ‘import-as’. This is particularly useful together with `reexport/1` and `reexport/2` to compose modules from other modules and mapping names.

- Foreign code can expect `_SWI_PROLOG__` when compiled for SWI-Prolog and `_YAP_PROLOG__` when compiled on YAP.

```prolog
:- expects_dialect(+Dialect).
```

This directive states that the code following the directive is written for the given Prolog `Dialect`. See also `dialect`. The declaration holds until the end of the file in which it appears. The current dialect is available using `prolog_load_context/2`.

The exact behaviour of this predicate is still subject to discussion. Of course, if `Dialect` matches the running dialect the directive has no effect. Otherwise we check for the existence of `library(dialect/Dialect)` and load it if the file is found. Currently, this file has this functionality:

\(^1\)http://yap.sourceforge.net/
• Define system predicates of the requested dialect we do not have.
• Apply \texttt{goal\_expansion/2} rules that map conflicting predicates to versions emulating the requested dialect. These expansion rules reside in the dialect compatibility module, but are applied if \texttt{prolog\_load\_context(dialect, Dialect)} is active.
• Modify the search path for library directories, putting libraries compatible with the target dialect before the native libraries.
• Setup support for the default filename extension of the dialect.

\texttt{exists\_source(+Spec)}
\begin{itemize}
\item Is true if \texttt{Spec} exists as a Prolog source. \texttt{Spec} uses the same conventions as \texttt{load\_files/2}.
\item Fails without error if \texttt{Spec} cannot be found.
\end{itemize}

\texttt{source\_exports(+Spec, +Export)}
\begin{itemize}
\item Is true if source \texttt{Spec} exports \texttt{Export}, a predicate indicator. Fails without error otherwise.
\end{itemize}

C.1 Some considerations for writing portable code

The traditional way to write portable code is to define custom predicates for all potentially non-portable code and define these separately for all Prolog dialects one wishes to support. Here are some considerations.

• Probably the best reason for this is that it allows to define minimal semantics required by the application for the portability predicates. Such functionality can often be mapped efficiently to the target dialect. Contrary, if code was written for dialect \texttt{X}, the defined semantics are those of dialect \texttt{X}. Emulating all extreme cases and full error handling compatibility may be tedious and result in a much slower implementation that needed. Take for example \texttt{call\_cleanup/2}. The SICStus definition is fundamentally different from the SWI definition, but 99% of the applications just want to make calls like below to guarantee \texttt{StreamIn} is closed, even if \texttt{process/1} misbehaves.

\begin{verbatim}
call\_cleanup(process(StreamIn), close(In))
\end{verbatim}

• As a drawback, the code becomes full of \texttt{my\_call\_cleanup}, etc. and every potential portability conflict needs to be abstracted. It is hard for people who have to maintain such code later to grasp the exact semantics of the \texttt{my\_*} predicates and applications that combine multiple libraries using this compatibility approach are likely to encounter conflicts between the portability layers. A good start is not to use \texttt{my\_*}, but a prefix derived from the library or application name or names that explain the intended semantics more precisely.

• Another problem is that most code is initially not written with portability in mind. Instead, ports are requested by users or arise from the desire to switch Prolog dialect. Typically, we want to achieve compatibility with the new Prolog dialect with minimal changes, often keeping compatibility with the original dialect(s). This problem is well known from the C/Unix world and we advice anyone to study the philosophy of GNU autoconf, from which we will illustrate some highlights below.
The GNU autoconf suite, known to most people as configure, was an answer to the frustrating life of Unix/C programmers when Unix dialects were about as abundant and poorly standardised as Prolog dialects today. Writing a portable C program can only be achieved using cpp, the C preprocessor. The C preprocessor performs two tasks: macro expansion and conditional compilation. Prolog realises macro expansion through term_expansion/2 and goal_expansion/2. Conditional compilation is achieved using :- if(Condition) as explained in section 4.3.1. The situation appears similar.

The important lesson learned from GNU autoconf is that the last resort for conditional compilation to achieve portability is to switch on the platform or dialect. Instead, GNU autoconf allows you to write tests for specific properties of the platform. Most of these are whether or not some function or file is available. Then there are some standard tests for difficult-to-write-portable situations and finally there is a framework that allows you to write arbitrary C programs and check whether they can be compiled and/or whether they show the intended behaviour. Using a separate configure program is needed in C, as you cannot perform C compilation step or run C programs from the C preprocessor. In most Prolog environments we do not need this distinction as the compiler is integrated into the runtime environment and Prolog has excellent reflexion capabilities.

We must learn from the distinction to test for features instead of platform (dialect), as this makes the platform specific code robust for future changes of the dialect. Suppose we need compare/3 as defined in this manual. The compare/3 predicate is not part of the ISO standard, but many systems support it and it is not unlikely it will become ISO standard or the intended dialect will start supporting it. GNU autoconf strongly advises to test for the availability:

```prolog
:- if(+current_predicate(_, compare(_,_,_))).
compare(<, Term1, Term2) :-
    Term1 @< Term2, !.
compare(>, Term1, Term2) :-
    Term1 @> Term2, !.
compare(=, Term1, Term2) :-
    Term1 == Term2.
:- endif.
```

This code is much more robust against changes to the intended dialect and, possible at least as important, will provide compatibility with dialects you didn’t even consider porting to right now.

In a more challenging case, the target Prolog has compare/3, but the semantics are different. What to do? One option is to write a my_compare/3 and change all occurrences in the code. Alternatively you can rename calls using goal_expansion/2 like below. This construct will not only deal with Prolog dialects lacking compare as well as those that only implement it for numeric comparison or have changed the argument order. Of course, writing rock-solid code would require a complete test-suite, but this example will probably cover all Prolog dialects that allow for conditional compilation, have core ISO facilities and provide goal_expansion/2, the things we claim a Prolog dialect should have to start writing portable code for it.

```prolog
:- if(+catch(compare(<,a,b), _, fail)).
compare_standard_order(<, Term1, Term2) :-
    Term1 @< Term2, !.
compare_standard_order(>, Term1, Term2) :-
    Term1 @> Term2, !.
```

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
C.1. SOME CONSIDERATIONS FOR WRITING PORTABLE CODE

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{compare\_standard\_order}(\text{=, Term1, Term2}) & : - \\
                 & \text{Term1} == \text{Term2}.
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
goal\_expansion(\text{compare(Order, Term1, Term2)}) & : - \\
                 & \text{compare\_standard\_order(Order, Term1, Term2)).}
\end{align*}
\]
Glossary of Terms

anonymous [variable]
The variable _ is called the anonymous variable. Multiple occurrences of _ in a single term are not shared.

arguments
Arguments are terms that appear in a compound term. A₁ and a₂ are the first and second argument of the term \texttt{myterm(A₁, a₂)}.

arity
Argument count (is number of arguments) of a compound term.

assert
Add a clause to a predicate. Clauses can be added at either end of the clause-list of a predicate. See \texttt{assert/1} and \texttt{assertz/1}.

atom
Textual constant. Used as name for compound terms, to represent constants or text.

backtracking
Searching process used by Prolog. If a predicate offers multiple clauses to solve a goal, they are tried one-by-one until one succeeds. If a subsequent part of the proof is not satisfied with the resulting variable binding, it may ask for an alternative solution (= binding of the variables), causing Prolog to reject the previously chosen clause and try the next one.

binding [of a variable]
Current value of the variable. See also backtracking and query.

built-in [predicate]
Predicate that is part of the Prolog system. Built-in predicates cannot be redefined by the user, unless this is overruled using \texttt{redefine_system_predicate/1}.

body
Part of a clause behind the neck operator (:-).

clause
‘Sentence’ of a Prolog program. A clause consists of a head and body separated by the neck operator (:-) or it is a fact. For example:

\begin{verbatim}
parent(X) :-
    father(X, _).
\end{verbatim}
Expressed “X is a parent if X is a father of someone”. See also variable and predicate.

**compile**
Process where a Prolog program is translated to a sequence of instructions. See also interpreted. SWI-PROLOG always compiles your program before executing it.

**compound [term]**
Also called structure. It consists of a name followed by N arguments, each of which are terms. N is called the arity of the term.

**context module**
If a term is referring to a predicate in a module, the context module is used to find the target module. The context module of a goal is the module in which the predicate is defined, unless this predicate is module transparent, in which case the context module is inherited from the parent goal. See also module_transparent/1 and meta-predicate.

**dynamic [predicate]**
A dynamic predicate is a predicate to which clauses may be asserted and from which clauses may be retracted while the program is running. See also update view.

**exported [predicate]**
A predicate is said to be exported from a module if it appears in the public list. This implies that the predicate can be imported into another module to make it visible there. See also use_module/[1,2].

**fact**
Clause without a body. This is called a fact because interpreted as logic, there is no condition to be satisfied. The example below states john is a person.

```
person(john).
```

**fail**
A goal is said to have failed if it could not be proven.

**float**
Computers crippled representation of a real number. Represented as ‘IEEE double’.

**foreign**
Computer code expressed in other languages than Prolog. SWI-PROLOG can only cooperate directly with the C and C++ computer languages.

**functor**
Combination of name and arity of a compound term. The term foo(a, b, c) is said to be a term belonging to the functor foo/3. foo/0 is used to refer to the atom foo.

**goal**
Question stated to the Prolog engine. A goal is either an atom or a compound term. A goal succeeds, in which case the variables in the compound terms have a binding or fails if Prolog fails to prove the goal.
hashing

Indexing technique used for quick lookup.

head

Part of a clause before the neck instruction. This is an atom or compound term.

imported [predicate]

A predicate is said to be imported into a module if it is defined in another module and made available in this module. See also chapter 5.

indexing

Indexing is a technique used to quickly select candidate clauses of a predicate for a specific goal. In most Prolog systems, including SWI-Prolog, indexing is done on the first argument of the head. If this argument is instantiated to an atom, integer, float or compound term with functor, hashing is used quickly select all clauses of which the first argument may unify with the first argument of the goal.

integer

Whole number. On all implementations of SWI-Prolog integers are at least 64-bit signed values. When linked to the GNU GMP library, integer arithmetic is unbounded. See also current_prolog_flag/2, flags bounded, max_integer and min_integer.

interpreted

As opposed to compiled, interpreted means the Prolog system attempts to prove a goal by directly reading the clauses rather than executing instructions from an (abstract) instruction set that is not or only indirectly related to Prolog.

meta-predicate

A predicate that reasons about other predicates, either by calling them, (re)defining them or querying properties.

module

Collection of predicates. Each module defines a name-space for predicates. built-in predicates are accessible from all modules. Predicates can be published (exported) and imported to make their definition available to other modules.

module transparent [predicate]

A predicate that does not change the context module. Sometimes also called a meta-predicate.

multifile [predicate]

Predicate for which the definition is distributed over multiple source-files. See multifile/1.

neck

Operator (:−) separating head from body in a clause.

operator

Symbol (atom) that may be placed before its operand (prefix), after its operand (postfix) or between its two operands (infix).

In Prolog, the expression a+b is exactly the same as the canonical term + (a, b).
**operand**

*Argument* of an *operator*.

**precedence**

The *priority* of an *operator*. Operator precedence is used to interpret $a+b*c$ as $+(a, *(b,c))$.

**predicate**

Collection of *clauses* with the same *functor* (name/arity). If a *goal* is proved, the system looks for a *predicate* with the same functor, then uses *indexing* to select candidate *clauses* and then tries these *clauses* one-by-one. See also *backtracking*.

**predicate indicator**

Term of the form Name/Arity (traditional) or Name//Arity (ISO DCG proposal) where Name is an atom an Arity a non-negative integer. It acts as an *indicator* (or reference) to a predicate or DCG rule.

**priority**

In the context of *operators* a synonym for *precedence*.

**program**

Collection of *predicates*.

**property**

*Attribute* of an object. SWI-Proplog defines various *property* predicates to query the status of predicates, clauses. etc.

**prove**

Process where Prolog attempts to prove a *query* using the available *predicates*.

**public list**

List of *predicates* exported from a *module*.

**query**

See *goal*.

**retract**

Remove a *clause* from a *predicate*. See also *dynamic*, *update view* and *assert*.

**shared**

Two *variables* are called *shared* after they are *unified*. This implies if either of them is *bound*, the other is bound to the same value:

```
?- A = B, A = a.
```

```
A = a,
B = a
```
singleton [variable]
 Variable appearing only one time in a clause. SWI-Prolog normally warns for this to avoid you making spelling mistakes. If a variable appears on purpose only once in a clause, write it as _ (see anonymous). Rules for naming a variable and avoiding a warning are given in section 2.15.1.

solution
 Bindings resulting from a successfully proven goal.

structure
 Synonym for compound term.

string
 Used for the following representations of text: a packed array (see section 4.22), SWI-Prolog specific), a list of character codes or a list of one-character atoms.

succeed
 A goal is said to have succeeded if it has been proven.

term
 Value in Prolog. A term is either a variable, atom, integer, float or compound term. In addition, SWI-Prolog also defines the type string

transparent
 See module transparent.

unify
 Prolog process to make two terms equal by assigning variables in one term to values at the corresponding location of the other term. For example:

```prolog
?- foo(a, B) = foo(A, b).
A = a,
B = b
```

Unlike assignment (which does not exist in Prolog), unification is not directed.

update view
 How Prolog behaves when a dynamic predicate is changed while it is running. There are two models. In most older Prolog systems the change becomes immediately visible to the goal, in modern systems including SWI-Prolog, the running goal is not affected. Only new goals ‘see’ the new definition.

variable
 A Prolog variable is a value that ‘is not yet bound’. After binding a variable, it cannot be modified. Backtracking to a point in the execution before the variable was bound will turn it back into a variable:
?- A = b, A = c.
No
?- (A = b; true; A = c).
A = b ;
A = _G283 ;
A = c ;
No

See also unify.
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- Make SWI-Prolog itself and its libraries are ‘As free as possible’.
- Allow for easy integration of contributions. See section E.2.
- Free software can build on SWI-Prolog without limitations.
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E.1 The SWI-Prolog kernel and foreign libraries

The SWI-Prolog kernel and our foreign libraries are distributed under the LGPL. A Prolog executable consists of the combination of these ‘native’ code components and Prolog virtual machine code. The SWI-Prolog swipl-rc utility allows for disassembling and re-assembling these parts, a process satisfying article 6b of the LGPL.

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E.1.1 The SWI-Prolog Prolog libraries

Lacking a satisfactory technical solution to handle article 6 of the LGPL, this license cannot be used for the Prolog source code that is part of the SWI-Prolog system (both libraries and kernel code). This situation is comparable to libgcc, the runtime library used with the GNU C-compiler. Therefore, we use the same proven license terms as this library. The libgcc license is the with a special exception. Below we rephrased this exception adjusted to our needs:
E.2 Contributing to the SWI-Prolog project

To achieve maximal coherence using SWI-Prolog for Free and Non-Free software we advice the use of the LGPL for contributed foreign code and the use of the GPL with SWI-Prolog exception for Prolog code for contributed modules.

As a rule of thumb it is advised to use the above licenses whenever possible and only use a strict GPL compliant license only if the module contains other code under strict GPL compliant licenses.

E.3 Software support to keep track of license conditions

Given the above, it is possible that SWI-Prolog packages and extensions will rely on the GPL.\(^1\) The predicates below allow for registering license requirements for Prolog files and foreign modules. The predicate eval_license/0 reports which components from the currently configured system are distributed under copy-left and open source enforcing licenses (the GPL) and therefore must be replaced before distributing linked applications under non-free license conditions.

\[\text{eval\_license}()\]

Evaluate the license conditions of all loaded components. If the system contains one or more components that are licenced under GPL-like restrictions the system indicates this program may only be distributed under the GPL license as well as which components prohibit the use of other license conditions.

\[\text{license}(\text{LicenseId}, \text{Component})\]

Register the fact that \text{Component} is distributed under a license identified by \text{LicenseId}. The most important \text{LicenseId’s} are:

\[\text{swipl}\]

Indicates this module is distributed under the GNU General Public License (GPL) with the SWI-Prolog exception:\(^2\)

\[\text{As a special exception, if you link this library with other files, compiled with SWI-Prolog, to produce an executable, this library does not by itself cause the resulting executable to be covered by the GNU General Public License. This exception does not however invalidate any other reasons why the executable file might be covered by the GNU General Public License.}\]

---

\(^1\)On the Unix version, the default toplevel uses the GNU readline library for command-line editing. This library is distributed under the GPL. In practice this problem is small as most final applications have Prolog embedded, without direct access to the commandline and therefore without need for libreadline.

\(^2\)This exception is a straight re-phrasing of the license used for libgcc, the GNU-C runtime library facing similar technical issues.
This should be the default for software contributed to the SWI-Prolog project as it allows
the community to prosper both in the free and non-free world. Still, people using SWI-
Prolog to create non-free applications must contribute sources to improvements they make
to the community.

lgpl
This is the default license for foreign-libraries linked with SWI-Prolog. Use
\text{PL} \_license() to register the condition from foreign code.

gpl
Indicates this module is strictly Free Software, which implies it cannot be used together
with any module that is incompatible with the GPL. Please only use these conditions
when forced by other code used in the component.

Other licenses known to the system are \text{guile}, \text{gnu} \_\text{ada}, \text{x11}, \text{expat}, \text{sml},
\text{public} \_\text{domain}, \text{cryptix}, \text{bsd}, \text{zlib}, \text{constlgpl} \_\text{compatible} and \text{gpl} \_\text{compatible}.
New licenses can be defined by adding clauses for the multifile predicate license:license/3.
Below is an example. The second argument is either \text{gpl} or \text{lgpl} to indicate compatibility
with these licenses. Other values cause the license to interpreted as \text{proprietary}. Proprietary
licenses are reported by eval_license/0. See the file boot/license.pl for details.

\begin{verbatim}
:- multifile license:license/3.

license:license(mylicense, lgpl,
    [ comment('My personal license'),
      url('http://www.mine.org/license.html')
    ]).

:- license(mylicense).
\end{verbatim}

\text{license} (+\text{LicenseId})
Intended as a directive in Prolog source files. It takes the current filename and calls
\text{license}/2.

\text{void PL} \_\text{license}(\text{const char} *\text{LicenseId}, \text{const char} *\text{Component})
Intended for the install() procedure of foreign libraries. This call can be made before
\text{PL} \_\text{initialise}().

\section{E.4 License conditions inherited from used code}

\subsection{E.4.1 Cryptographic routines}
Cryptographic routines are used in variant_sha1/2 and crypt. These routines are provided
under the following conditions.

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Summary

F.1 Predicates

The predicate summary is used by the Prolog predicate `apropos/1` to suggest predicates from a keyword.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>!/0</td>
<td>Cut (discard choicepoints)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>,/2</td>
<td>Conjunction of goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-&gt;/2</td>
<td>If-then-else</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*-&gt;/2</td>
<td>Soft-cut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>./2</td>
<td>Consult. Also list constructor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>;/2</td>
<td>Disjunction of goals. Same as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;/2</td>
<td>Arithmetic smaller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/=/2</td>
<td>Unification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=..=/2</td>
<td>“Univ.” Term to list conversion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=:=/2</td>
<td>Arithmetic equal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=&lt;&gt;/2</td>
<td>Arithmetic smaller or equal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>==/2</td>
<td>Identical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=@=/2</td>
<td>Structural identical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>==/2</td>
<td>Arithmetic not equal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;/2</td>
<td>Arithmetic larger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;=/=2</td>
<td>Arithmetic larger or equal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?=/2</td>
<td>Test of terms can be compared now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>@&lt;&gt;/2</td>
<td>Standard order smaller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>@=/2</td>
<td>Standard order smaller or equal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>@&gt;/2</td>
<td>Standard order larger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>@&gt;=/2</td>
<td>Standard order larger or equal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+/1</td>
<td>Negation by failure. Same as not/1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=/2</td>
<td>Not unifiable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>==/2</td>
<td>Not identical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>@=/2</td>
<td>Not structural identical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>^/2</td>
<td>Existential quantification (bagof/3, setof/3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/2</td>
<td>Disjunction of goals. Same as ;/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abolish/1</td>
<td>Remove predicate definition from the database</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abolish/2</td>
<td>Remove predicate definition from the database</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abort/0</td>
<td>Abort execution, return to top level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>absolute_file_name/2</td>
<td>Get absolute path name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>absolute_file_name/3</td>
<td>Get absolute path name with options</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>access_file/2</td>
<td>Check access permissions of a file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predicate</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acyclic_term/1</td>
<td>Test term for cycles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>add_import_module/3</td>
<td>Add module to the auto-import list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>add_nb_set/2</td>
<td>Add term to a non-backtrackable set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>add_nb_set/3</td>
<td>Add term to a non-backtrackable set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>append/1</td>
<td>Append to a file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apply/2</td>
<td>Call goal with additional arguments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apropos/1</td>
<td>Online Help Search manual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arg/3</td>
<td>Access argument of a term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arithmetic_function/1</td>
<td>Register an evaluable function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assoc_to_list/2</td>
<td>Convert association tree to list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assert/1</td>
<td>Add a clause to the database</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assert/2</td>
<td>Add a clause to the database, give reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asserta/1</td>
<td>Add a clause to the database (first)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asserta/2</td>
<td>Add a clause to the database (first)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assertion/1</td>
<td>Make assertions about your program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assertz/1</td>
<td>Add a clause to the database (last)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assertz/2</td>
<td>Add a clause to the database (last)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>attach_console/0</td>
<td>Attach I/O console to thread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>attribute_goals/3</td>
<td>Project attributes to goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>attr_unify_hook/2</td>
<td>Attributed variable unification hook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>attr_portray_hook/2</td>
<td>Attributed variable print hook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>attvar/1</td>
<td>Type test for attributed variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at_end_of_stream/0</td>
<td>Test for end of file on input</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at_end_of_stream/1</td>
<td>Test for end of file on stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at_halt/1</td>
<td>Register goal to run at halt/1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atom/1</td>
<td>Type check for an atom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atom_chars/2</td>
<td>Convert between atom and list of characters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atom_codes/2</td>
<td>Convert between atom and list of characters codes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atom_concat/3</td>
<td>Append two atoms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atom_length/2</td>
<td>Determine length of an atom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atom_prefix/2</td>
<td>Test for start of atom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atom_number/2</td>
<td>Convert between atom and number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atom_to_term/3</td>
<td>Convert between atom and term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic/1</td>
<td>Type check for primitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_concat/3</td>
<td>Concatenate two atomic values to an atom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_list_concat/2</td>
<td>Append a list of atoms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_list_concat/3</td>
<td>Append a list of atoms with separator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>autoload/0</td>
<td>Autoload all predicates now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b_getval/2</td>
<td>Fetch backtrackable global variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b_setval/2</td>
<td>Assign backtrackable global variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bagof/3</td>
<td>Find all solutions to a goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>between/3</td>
<td>Integer range checking/generating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blob/2</td>
<td>Type check for a blob</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>break/0</td>
<td>Start interactive top-level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>byte_count/2</td>
<td>Byte-position in a stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>call/1</td>
<td>Call a goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>call/[2...]</td>
<td>Call with additional arguments</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
call_cleanup/3  Guard a goal with a cleanup-handler
call_cleanup/2  Guard a goal with a cleanup-handler
call_residue_vars/2  Find residual attributed variables
call_shared_object_function/2  UNIX: Call C-function in shared (.so) file
call_with_depth_limit/3  Prove goal with bounded depth
callable/1  Test for atom or compound term
catch/3  Call goal, watching for exceptions
char_code/2  Convert between character and character code
char_conversion/2  Provide mapping of input characters
char_type/2  Classify characters
character_count/2  Get character index on a stream
chdir/1  Compatibility: change working directory
chr_constraint/1  CHR Constraint declaration
chr_show_store/1  List suspended CHR constraints
chr_trace/0  Start CHR tracer
chr_type/1  CHR Type declaration
chr_notrace/0  Stop CHR tracer
chr_leash/1  Define CHR leashed ports
chr_option/2  Specify CHR compilation options
clause/2  Get clauses of a predicate
clause/3  Get clauses of a predicate
close/1  Close stream
close/2  Close stream (forced)
close_dde_conversation/1  Win32: Close DDE channel
close_shared_object/1  UNIX: Close shared library (.so file)
collation_key/2  Sort key for locale dependent ordering
comment_hook/3  (hook) handle comments in sources
compare/3  Compare, using a predicate to determine the order
compile_aux_clauses/1  Compile predicates for goal_expansion/2
compile_predicates/1  Compile dynamic code to static
compiling/0  Is this a compilation run?
compound/1  Test for compound term
code_type/2  Classify a character-code
consult/1  Read (compile) a Prolog source file
current_arithmetic_function/1  Examine evaluable functions
current_atom/1  Examine existing atoms
current_blob/2  Examine typed blobs
close/1  Close stream
close/2  Close stream (forced)
close_dde_conversation/1  Win32: Close DDE channel
close_shared_object/1  UNIX: Close shared library (.so file)
collation_key/2  Sort key for locale dependent ordering
comment_hook/3  (hook) handle comments in sources
compare/3  Compare, using a predicate to determine the order
compile_aux_clauses/1  Compile predicates for goal_expansion/2
compile_predicates/1  Compile dynamic code to static
compiling/0  Is this a compilation run?
compound/1  Test for compound term
code_type/2  Classify a character-code
consult/1  Read (compile) a Prolog source file
current_arithmetic_function/1  Examine evaluable functions
current_atom/1  Examine existing atoms
current_blob/2  Examine typed blobs
current_char_conversion/2  Query input character mapping
current_flag/1  Examine existing flags
current_foreign_library/2  Examine loaded shared libraries (.so files)
current_format_predicate/2  Enumerate user-defined format codes
current_function/2  Examine existing name/arity pairs
current_input/1  Get current input stream
current_key/1  Examine existing database keys
current_module/1  Examine existing modules
current_op/3  Examine current operator declarations
current_output/1  Get the current output stream
current_predicate/1  Examine existing predicates (ISO)
current_predicate/2  Examine existing predicates
current_signal/3  Current software signal mapping
current_stream/3  Examine open streams
cyclic_term/1  Test term for cycles
day_of_the_week/2  Determine ordinal-day from date
date_time_stamp/2  Convert state structure to time-stamp
date_time_value/3  Extract info from a date structure
dcg_translate_rule/2  Source translation of DCG rules
dde_current_connection/2  Win32: Examine open DDE connections
dde_current_service/2  Win32: Examine DDE services provided
dde_execute/2  Win32: Execute command on DDE server
dde_register_service/2  Win32: Become a DDE server
dde_request/3  Win32: Make a DDE request
dde_poke/3  Win32: POKE operation on DDE server
dde_unregister_service/1  Win32: Terminate a DDE service
debug/0  Test for debugging mode
debug/1  Select topic for debugging
debug/3  Print debugging message on topic
  (hook) Extend spy/1, etc.
debugging/0  Show debugger status
debugging/1  Test where we are debugging topic
del_attr/2  Delete attribute from variable
del_attr/1  Delete all attributes from variable
delete_directory/1  Remove a folder from the file system
delete_file/1  Remove a file from the file system
delete_import_module/1  Remove module from import list
deterministic/1  Test deterministicy of current clause
dif/2  Constrain two terms to be different
directory_files/2  Get entries of a directory/folder
discontiguous/1  Indicate distributed definition of a predicate
downcase_atom/2  Convert atom to lower-case
duplicate_term/2  Create a copy of a term
dwim_match/2  Atoms match in “Do What I Mean” sense
dwim_match/3  Atoms match in “Do What I Mean” sense
dwim_predicate/2  Find predicate in “Do What I Mean” sense
dynamic/1  Indicate predicate definition may change
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>edit/0</td>
<td>Edit current script- or associated file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>edit/1</td>
<td>Edit a file, predicate, module (extensible)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elif/0</td>
<td>Part of conditional compilation (directive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>else/0</td>
<td>Part of conditional compilation (directive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>empty_assoc/1</td>
<td>Create/test empty association tree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>empty_nb_set/1</td>
<td>Test/create an empty non-backtrackable set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>encoding/1</td>
<td>Define encoding inside a source file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>endif/0</td>
<td>End of conditional compilation (directive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ensure_loaded/1</td>
<td>Consult a file if that has not yet been done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erase/1</td>
<td>Erase a database record or clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eval_license/0</td>
<td>Evaluate licenses of loaded modules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exception/3</td>
<td>(hook) Handle runtime exceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exists_directory/1</td>
<td>Check existence of directory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exists_file/1</td>
<td>Check existence of file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exists_source/1</td>
<td>Check existence of a Prolog source</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expand_answer/2</td>
<td>Expand answer of query</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expand_file_name/2</td>
<td>Wildcard expansion of file names</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expand_file_search_path/2</td>
<td>Wildcard expansion of file paths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expand_goal/2</td>
<td>Compiler: expand goal in clause-body</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expand_query/4</td>
<td>Expanded entered query</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expand_term/2</td>
<td>Compiler: expand read term into clause(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expects/dialect/1</td>
<td>For which Prolog dialect is this code written?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>explain/1</td>
<td>Explain argument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>explain/2</td>
<td>Explain 2nd argument is explanation of first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>export/1</td>
<td>Export a predicate from a module</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fail/0</td>
<td>Always false</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>false/0</td>
<td>Always false</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>current_prolog_flag/2</td>
<td>Get system configuration parameters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>file_base_name/2</td>
<td>Get file part of path</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>file_directory_name/2</td>
<td>Get directory part of path</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>file_name_extension/3</td>
<td>Add, remove or test file extensions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>file_search_path/2</td>
<td>Define path-aliases for locating files</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>find_chr_constraint/1</td>
<td>Returns a constraint from the store</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>findall/3</td>
<td>Find all solutions to a goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>findall/4</td>
<td>Difference list version of findall/3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flag/3</td>
<td>Simple global variable system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>float/1</td>
<td>Type check for a floating point number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flush_output/0</td>
<td>Output pending characters on current stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flush_output/1</td>
<td>Output pending characters on specified stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forall/2</td>
<td>Prove goal for all solutions of another goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>format/1</td>
<td>Formatted output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>format/2</td>
<td>Formatted output with arguments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>format/3</td>
<td>Formatted output on a stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>format_time/3</td>
<td>C strftime() like date/time formatter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>format_time/4</td>
<td>Date/time formatter with explicit locale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>format_predicate/2</td>
<td>Program format/[1,2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_attvars/2</td>
<td>Find attributed variables in a term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predicate</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_variables/2</td>
<td>Find unbound variables in a term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_variables/3</td>
<td>Find unbound variables in a term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>freeze/2</td>
<td>Delay execution until variable is bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frozen/2</td>
<td>Query delayed goals on var</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>functor/3</td>
<td>Get name and arity of a term or construct a term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>garbage_collect/0</td>
<td>Invoke the garbage collector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>garbage_collect_atoms/0</td>
<td>Invoke the atom garbage collector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>garbage_collect_clauses/0</td>
<td>Invoke clause garbage collector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen_assoc/3</td>
<td>Enumerate members of association tree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen_nb_set/2</td>
<td>Generate members of non-backtrackable set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gensym/2</td>
<td>Generate unique atoms from a base</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get/1</td>
<td>Read first non-blank character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get/2</td>
<td>Read first non-blank character from a stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get_assoc/3</td>
<td>Fetch key from association tree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get_assoc/5</td>
<td>Fetch key from association tree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get0/1</td>
<td>Read next character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get0/2</td>
<td>Read next character from a stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get_attr/3</td>
<td>Fetch named attribute from a variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get_attrs/2</td>
<td>Fetch all attributes of a variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get_byte/1</td>
<td>Read next byte (ISO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get_byte/2</td>
<td>Read next byte from a stream (ISO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get_char/1</td>
<td>Read next character as an atom (ISO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get_char/2</td>
<td>Read next character from a stream (ISO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get_code/1</td>
<td>Read next character (ISO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get_code/2</td>
<td>Read next character from a stream (ISO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get_single_char/1</td>
<td>Read next character from the terminal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get_time/1</td>
<td>Get current time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>getenv/2</td>
<td>Get shell environment variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goal_expansion/2</td>
<td>Hook for macro-expanding goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ground/1</td>
<td>Verify term holds no unbound variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gdebug/0</td>
<td>Debug using graphical tracer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gspy/1</td>
<td>Spy using graphical tracer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gtrace/0</td>
<td>Trace using graphical tracer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>guitracer/0</td>
<td>Install hooks for the graphical debugger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gxf/0</td>
<td>Cross-reference loaded program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>halt/0</td>
<td>Exit from Prolog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>halt/1</td>
<td>Exit from Prolog with status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hash/1</td>
<td>Index predicate using a hash-table</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_hash/2</td>
<td>Hash-value of ground term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_hash/4</td>
<td>Hash-value of term with depth limit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>help/0</td>
<td>Give help on help</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>help/1</td>
<td>Give help on predicates and show parts of manual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>help_hook/1</td>
<td>(hook) User-hook in the help-system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if/1</td>
<td>Start conditional compilation (directive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ignore/1</td>
<td>Call the argument, but always succeed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>import/1</td>
<td>Import a predicate from a module</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>import_module/2</td>
<td>Query import modules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function Name</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>in_pce_thread/1</code></td>
<td>Run goal in XPCE thread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>include/1</code></td>
<td>Include a file with declarations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>index/1</code></td>
<td>Change clause indexing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>initialization/1</code></td>
<td>Initialization directive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>initialization/2</code></td>
<td>Initialization directive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>instance/2</code></td>
<td>Fetch clause or record from reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>integer/1</code></td>
<td>Type check for integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>interactor/0</code></td>
<td>Start new thread with console and top-level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>is/2</code></td>
<td>Evaluate arithmetic expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>is_absolute_file_name/1</code></td>
<td>True if arg defines an absolute path</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>is_list/1</code></td>
<td>Type check for a list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>is_stream/1</code></td>
<td>Type check for a stream handle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>join_threads/0</code></td>
<td>Join all terminated threads interactively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>keysort/2</code></td>
<td>Sort, using a key</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>last/2</code></td>
<td>Last element of a list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>leash/1</code></td>
<td>Change ports visited by the tracer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>length/2</code></td>
<td>Length of a list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>library_directory/1</code></td>
<td>(hook) Directories holding Prolog libraries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>license/1</code></td>
<td>Define license for current file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>license/2</code></td>
<td>Define license for named module</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>line_count/2</code></td>
<td>Line number on stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>line_position/2</code></td>
<td>Character position in line on stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>list_debug_topics/0</code></td>
<td>List registered topics for debugging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>list_to_assoc/2</code></td>
<td>Create association tree from list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>list_to_set/2</code></td>
<td>Remove duplicates from a list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>listing/0</code></td>
<td>List program in current module</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>listing/1</code></td>
<td>List predicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>load_files/2</code></td>
<td>Load source files with options</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>load_foreign_library/1</code></td>
<td>shlib Load shared library (.so file)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>load_foreign_library/2</code></td>
<td>shlib Load shared library (.so file)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>locale_sort/2</code></td>
<td>Language dependent sort of atoms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>make/0</code></td>
<td>Reconsult all changed source files</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>make_directory/1</code></td>
<td>Create a folder on the file system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>make_library_index/1</code></td>
<td>Create autoload file INDEX.pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>make_library_index/2</code></td>
<td>Create selective autoload file INDEX.pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>map_assoc/2</code></td>
<td>Map association tree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>map_assoc/3</code></td>
<td>Map association tree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>max_assoc/3</code></td>
<td>Highest key in association tree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>memberchk/2</code></td>
<td>Deterministic member/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>message_hook/3</code></td>
<td>Interception print_message/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>message_queue_create/1</code></td>
<td>Create queue for thread communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>message_queue_create/2</code></td>
<td>Create queue for thread communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>message_queue_destroy/1</code></td>
<td>Destroy queue for thread communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>message_queue_property/2</code></td>
<td>Query message queue properties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>message_to_string/2</code></td>
<td>Translate message-term to string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>meta_predicate/1</code></td>
<td>Quintus compatibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>min_assoc/3</code></td>
<td>Lowest key in association tree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
module/1  Query/set current type-in module
module/2  Declare a module
module_property/2  Find properties of a module
module_transparent/1  Indicate module based meta-predicate
msort/2  Sort, do not remove duplicates
multiple/1  Indicate distributed definition of predicate
mutex_create/1  Create a thread-synchronisation device
mutex_create/2  Create a thread-synchronisation device
mutex_destroy/1  Destroy a mutex
mutex_lock/1  Become owner of a mutex
mutex_property/2  Query mutex properties
mutex_statistics/0  Print statistics on mutex usage
mutex_trylock/1  Become owner of a mutex (non-blocking)
mutex_unlock/1  Release ownership of mutex
mutex_unlock_all/0  Release ownership of all mutexes
name/2  Convert between atom and list of character codes
nb_current/2  Enumerate non-backtrackable global variables
nb_delete/1  Delete a non-backtrackable global variable
nb_getval/2  Fetch non-backtrackable global variable
nb_linkarg/3  Non-backtrackable assignment to term
nb_linkval/2  Assign non-backtrackable global variable
nb_set_to_list/2  Convert non-backtrackable set to list
nb_setarg/3  Non-backtrackable assignment to term
nb_setval/2  Assign non-backtrackable global variable
nl/0  Generate a newline
nl/1  Generate a newline on a stream
nodebug/0  Disable debugging
nodebug/1  Disable debug-topic
noguitracer/0  Disable the graphical debugger
nonvar/1  Type check for bound term
noprofile/1  Hide (meta-) predicate for the profiler
noprotocol/0  Disable logging of user interaction
normalize_space/2  Normalize white space
nospy/1  Remove spy point
nospyall/0  Remove all spy points
not/1  Negation by failure (argument not provable). Same as \\+/1
notrace/0  Stop tracing
notrace/1  Do not debug argument goal
nth_clause/3  N-th clause of a predicate
number/1  Type check for integer or float
number_chars/2  Convert between number and one-char atoms
number_codes/2  Convert between number and character codes
numbervars/3  Number unbound variables of a term
numbervars/4  Number unbound variables of a term
on_signal/3  Handle a software signal
once/1  Call a goal deterministically
op/3  Declare an operator
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>open/3</td>
<td>Open a file (creating a stream)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>open/4</td>
<td>Open a file (creating a stream)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>open_dde_conversation/3</td>
<td>Win32: Open DDE channel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>open_null_stream/1</td>
<td>Open a stream to discard output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>open_resource/3</td>
<td>Open a program resource as a stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>open_shared_object/2</td>
<td>UNIX: Open shared library (.so file)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>open_shared_object/3</td>
<td>UNIX: Open shared library (.so file)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ord_list_to_assoc/2</td>
<td>Convert ordered list to assoc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parse_time/2</td>
<td>Parse text to a time-stamp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parse_time/3</td>
<td>Parse text to a time-stamp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pce_dispatch/1</td>
<td>Run XPCE GUI in separate thread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pce_call/1</td>
<td>Run goal in XPCE GUI thread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peek_byte/1</td>
<td>Read byte without removing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peek_byte/2</td>
<td>Read byte without removing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peek_char/1</td>
<td>Read character without removing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peek_char/2</td>
<td>Read character without removing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peek_code/1</td>
<td>Read character-code without removing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peek_code/2</td>
<td>Read character-code without removing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phrase/2</td>
<td>Activate grammar-rule set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phrase/3</td>
<td>Activate grammar-rule set (returning rest)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>please/3</td>
<td>Query/change environment parameters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plus/3</td>
<td>Logical integer addition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>portray/1</td>
<td>(hook) Modify behaviour of print/1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>portray_clause/1</td>
<td>Pretty print a clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>portray_clause/2</td>
<td>Pretty print a clause to a stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>predicate_property/2</td>
<td>Query predicate attributes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>predsort/3</td>
<td>Sort, using a predicate to determine the order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>preprocessor/2</td>
<td>Install a preprocessor before the compiler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>print/1</td>
<td>Print a term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>print/2</td>
<td>Print a term on a stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>print_message/2</td>
<td>Print message from (exception) term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>print_message_lines/3</td>
<td>Print message to stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>profile/1</td>
<td>Obtain execution statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>profile/3</td>
<td>Obtain execution statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>profile_count/3</td>
<td>Obtain profile results on a predicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>profiler/2</td>
<td>Obtain/change status of the profiler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prolog/0</td>
<td>Run interactive top-level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prolog_choice_attribute/3</td>
<td>Examine the choice-point stack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prolog_current_frame/1</td>
<td>Reference to goal’s environment stack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prolog_edit:locate/2</td>
<td>Locate targets for edit/1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prolog_edit:locate/3</td>
<td>Locate targets for edit/1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prolog_edit:edit_source/1</td>
<td>Call editor for edit/1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prolog_edit:edit_command/2</td>
<td>Specify editor activation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prolog_edit:load/0</td>
<td>Load edit/1 extensions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prolog_exception_hook/4</td>
<td>Rewrite exceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prolog_file_type/2</td>
<td>Define meaning of file extension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prolog_frame_attribute/3</td>
<td>Obtain information on a goal environment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
F.1. PREDICATES

prolog ide/1 Program access to the development environment
prolog list_goal/1 (hook) Intercept tracer 'L' command
prolog load_context/2 Context information for directives
prolog load_file/2 (hook) Program load_files/2
prolog skip_level/2 Indicate deepest recursion to trace
prolog skip_frame/1 Perform 'skip' on a frame
prolog stack_property/2 Query properties of the stacks
prolog_to_os_filename/2 Convert between Prolog and OS filenames
user trace_interception/4 user Intercept the Prolog tracer
prompt1/1 Change prompt for 1 line
prompt/2 Change the prompt used by read/1
protocol/1 Make a log of the user interaction
protocola/1 Append log of the user interaction to file
protocolling/1 On what file is user interaction logged
public/1 Declaration that a predicate may be called
put/1 Write a character
put/2 Write a character on a stream
put_assoc/4 Add Key-Value to association tree
put_attr/3 Put attribute on a variable
put_attrs/2 Set/replace all attributes on a variable
put_byte/1 Write a byte
put_byte/2 Write a byte on a stream
put_char/1 Write a character
put_char/2 Write a character on a stream
put_code/1 Write a character-code
put_code/2 Write a character-code on a stream
qcompile/1 Compile source to Quick Load File
qcompile/2 Compile source to Quick Load File
qsave_program/1 Create runtime application
qsave_program/2 Create runtime application
rational/1 Type check for a rational number
rational/3 Decompose a rational
read/1 Read Prolog term
read/2 Read Prolog term from stream
read_clause/1 Read clause
read_clause/2 Read clause from stream
read_history/6 Read using history substitution
read_link/3 Read a symbolic link
read_pending_input/3 Fetch buffered input from a stream
read_term/2 Read term with options
read_term/3 Read term with options from stream
recorda/2 Record term in the database (first)
recorda/3 Record term in the database (first)
recorded/2 Obtain term from the database
recorded/3 Obtain term from the database
recordz/2 Record term in the database (last)
recordz/3 Record term in the database (last)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicate</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>redefine_system_predicate/1</td>
<td>Abolish system definition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reexport/1</td>
<td>Load files and re-export the imported predicates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reexport/2</td>
<td>Load predicates from a file and re-export it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reload_foreign_libraries/0</td>
<td>Reload DLLs/shared objects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reload_library_index/0</td>
<td>Force reloading the autoload index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rename_file/2</td>
<td>Change name of file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>repeat/0</td>
<td>Succeed, leaving infinite backtrack points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>require/1</td>
<td>This file requires these predicates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reset_gensym/1</td>
<td>Reset a gensym key</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reset_gensym/0</td>
<td>Reset all gensym keys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reset_profiler/0</td>
<td>Clear statistics obtained by the profiler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>resource/3</td>
<td>Declare a program resource</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retract/1</td>
<td>Remove clause from the database</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retractall/1</td>
<td>Remove unifying clauses from the database</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>same_file/2</td>
<td>Succeeds if arguments refer to same file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>same_term/2</td>
<td>Test terms to be at the same address</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>see/1</td>
<td>Change the current input stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seeing/1</td>
<td>Query the current input stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seek/4</td>
<td>Modify the current position in a stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seen/0</td>
<td>Close the current input stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>set_base_module/1</td>
<td>Declare the associated global module</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>set_end_of_stream/1</td>
<td>Set physical end of an open file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>set_input/1</td>
<td>Set current input stream from a stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>set_output/1</td>
<td>Set current output stream from a stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>set_prolog_IO/3</td>
<td>Prepare streams for interactive session</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>set_prolog_flag/2</td>
<td>Define a system feature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>set_prolog_stack/2</td>
<td>Modify stack characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>set_random/1</td>
<td>Control random number generation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>set_stream/2</td>
<td>Set stream attribute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>set_stream_position/2</td>
<td>Seek stream to position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>set_tty/2</td>
<td>Set <code>tty</code> stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>setup_call_cleanup/3</td>
<td>Undo side-effects safely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>setup_call_catcher_cleanup/4</td>
<td>Undo side-effects safely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>setarg/3</td>
<td>Destructive assignment on term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>setenv/2</td>
<td>Set shell environment variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>setlocale/3</td>
<td>Set/query C-library regional information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>setof/3</td>
<td>Find all unique solutions to a goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shell/0</td>
<td>Execute interactive subshell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shell/1</td>
<td>Execute OS command</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shell/2</td>
<td>Execute OS command</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>show_profile/1</td>
<td>Show results of the profiler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>show_profile/2</td>
<td>Show results of the profiler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size_file/2</td>
<td>Get size of a file in characters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size_nb_set/2</td>
<td>Determine size of non-backtrackable set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skip/1</td>
<td>Skip to character in current input</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skip/2</td>
<td>Skip to character on stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rl_add_history/1</td>
<td>Add line to readline(3) history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predicate</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rl_read_history/1</td>
<td>Read readline(3) history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rl_read_init_file/1</td>
<td>Read readline(3) init file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rl_write_history/1</td>
<td>Write readline(3) history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sleep/1</td>
<td>Suspend execution for specified time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sort/2</td>
<td>Sort elements in a list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>source_exports/2</td>
<td>Check whether source exports a predicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>source_file/1</td>
<td>Examine currently loaded source files</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>source_file/2</td>
<td>Obtain source file of predicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>source_location/2</td>
<td>Location of last read term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spy/1</td>
<td>Force tracer on specified predicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stamp_date_time/3</td>
<td>Convert time-stamp to date structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>statistics/0</td>
<td>Show execution statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>statistics/2</td>
<td>Obtain collected statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stream_pair/3</td>
<td>Create/examine a bi-directional stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stream_position_data/3</td>
<td>Access fields from stream position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stream_property/2</td>
<td>Get stream properties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>string/1</td>
<td>Type check for string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>string_concat/3</td>
<td>atom_concat/3 for strings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>string_length/2</td>
<td>Determine length of a string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>string_to_atom/2</td>
<td>Conversion between string and atom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>string_to_list/2</td>
<td>Conversion between string and list of character codes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strip_module/3</td>
<td>Extract context module and term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>style_check/1</td>
<td>Change level of warnings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub_atom/5</td>
<td>Take a substring from an atom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub_string/5</td>
<td>Take a substring from a string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subsumes_term/2</td>
<td>One-sided unification test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>succ/2</td>
<td>Logical integer successor relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swritef/2</td>
<td>Formatted write on a string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swritef/3</td>
<td>Formatted write on a string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tab/1</td>
<td>Output number of spaces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tab/2</td>
<td>Output number of spaces on a stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tdebug/0</td>
<td>Switch all threads into debug mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tdebug/1</td>
<td>Switch a thread into debug mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tell/1</td>
<td>Change current output stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>telling/1</td>
<td>Query current output stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_expansion/2</td>
<td>(hook) Convert term before compilation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_subsumer/3</td>
<td>Most specific generalization of two terms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_to_atom/2</td>
<td>Convert between term and atom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_at_exit/1</td>
<td>Register goal to be called at exit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_create/3</td>
<td>Create a new Prolog task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_detach/1</td>
<td>Make thread cleanup after completion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_exit/1</td>
<td>Terminate Prolog task with value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_get_message/1</td>
<td>Wait for message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_get_message/2</td>
<td>Wait for message in a queue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_initialization/1</td>
<td>Run action at start of thread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_join/2</td>
<td>Wait for Prolog task-completion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_local/1</td>
<td>Declare thread-specific clauses for a predicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function Name</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_peek_message/1</td>
<td>Test for message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_peek_message/2</td>
<td>Test for message in a queue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_property/2</td>
<td>Examine Prolog threads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_self/1</td>
<td>Get identifier of current thread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_send_message/2</td>
<td>Send message to another thread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_setconcurrency/2</td>
<td>Number of active threads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_signal/2</td>
<td>Execute goal in another thread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_statistics/3</td>
<td>Get statistics of another thread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>threads/0</td>
<td>List running threads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>throw/1</td>
<td>Raise an exception (see catch/3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time/1</td>
<td>Determine time needed to execute goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time_file/2</td>
<td>Get last modification time of file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tmp_file/2</td>
<td>Create a temporary filename</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tmp_file_stream/3</td>
<td>Create a temporary file and open it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tnodedebug/0</td>
<td>Switch off debug mode in all threads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tnodedebug/1</td>
<td>Switch off debug mode in a thread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>told/0</td>
<td>Close current output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tprofile/1</td>
<td>Profile a thread for some period</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trace/0</td>
<td>Start the tracer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trace/1</td>
<td>Set trace-point on predicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trace/2</td>
<td>Set/Clear trace-point on ports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tracing/0</td>
<td>Query status of the tracer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trim_stacks/0</td>
<td>Release unused memory resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>true/0</td>
<td>Succeed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tspy/1</td>
<td>Set spy point and enable debugging in all threads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tspy/2</td>
<td>Set spy point and enable debugging in a thread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tty_get_capability/3</td>
<td>Get terminal parameter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tty_goto/2</td>
<td>Goto position on screen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tty_put/2</td>
<td>Write control string to terminal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tty_size/2</td>
<td>Get row/column size of the terminal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ttyflush/0</td>
<td>Flush output on terminal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unify_with_occurs_check/2</td>
<td>Determining binding required for unification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unifiable/3</td>
<td>Logically sound unification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unix/1</td>
<td>OS interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unknown/2</td>
<td>Trap undefined predicates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unload_file/1</td>
<td>Unload a source-file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unload_foreign_library/1</td>
<td>Detach shared library (.so file)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unload_foreign_library/2</td>
<td>Detach shared library (.so file)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsetenv/1</td>
<td>Delete shell environment variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>upcase_atom/2</td>
<td>Convert atom to upper-case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use_foreign_library/1</td>
<td>Load DLL/shared object (directive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use_foreign_library/2</td>
<td>Load DLL/shared object (directive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use_module/1</td>
<td>Import a module</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use_module/2</td>
<td>Import predicates from a module</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>var/1</td>
<td>Type check for unbound variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>variant_sha1/2</td>
<td>Term-hash for term-variants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>visible/1</td>
<td>Ports that are visible in the tracer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predicate</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volatile/1</td>
<td>Predicates that are not saved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wait_for_input/3</td>
<td>Wait for input with optional timeout</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>when/2</td>
<td>Execute goal when condition becomes true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wildcard_match/2</td>
<td>Csh(1) style wildcard match</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>win_exec/2</td>
<td>Win32: spawn Windows task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>win_has_menu/0</td>
<td>Win32: true if console menu is available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>win_folder/2</td>
<td>Win32: get special folder by CSIDL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>win_insert_menu/2</td>
<td>swipl-win.exe: add menu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>win_insert_menu_item/4</td>
<td>swipl-win.exe: add item to menu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>win_shell/2</td>
<td>Win32: open document through Shell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>win_shell/3</td>
<td>Win32: open document through Shell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>win_registry_get_value/3</td>
<td>Win32: get registry value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>win_window_pos/1</td>
<td>Win32: change size and position of window</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>window_title/2</td>
<td>Win32: change title of window</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with_mutex/2</td>
<td>Run goal while holding mutex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with_output_to/2</td>
<td>Write to strings and more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>working_directory/2</td>
<td>Query/change CWD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write/1</td>
<td>Write term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write/2</td>
<td>Write term to stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>writeln/1</td>
<td>Write term, followed by a newline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write_canonical/1</td>
<td>Write a term with quotes, ignore operators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write_canonical/2</td>
<td>Write a term with quotes, ignore operators on a stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write_term/2</td>
<td>Write term with options</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write_term/3</td>
<td>Write term with options to stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>writeln/1</td>
<td>Formatted write</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>writeln/2</td>
<td>Formatted write on stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>writeq/1</td>
<td>Write term, insert quotes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>writeq/2</td>
<td>Write term, insert quotes on stream</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
F.2  Library predicates

F.2.1  aggregate

aggregate/3  Aggregate bindings in Goal according to Template.
aggregate/4  Aggregate bindings in Goal according to Template.
aggregate_all/3 Aggregate bindings in Goal according to Template.
aggregate_all/4 Aggregate bindings in Goal according to Template.
foreach/2  True if the conjunction of instances of Goal using the bindings from Generator is true.
free_variables/4  In order to handle variables properly, we have to find all the universally quantified variables in the Gen-

F.2.2  apply

exclude/3  Filter elements for which Goal fails.
include/3  Filter elements for which Goal succeed.
maplist/2  True if Goal can successfully be applied on all elements of List.
maplist/3  True if Goal can successfully be applied to all succesive pairs of elements of List1 and List2.
maplist/4  True if Goal can successfully be applied to all succesive triples of elements of List1..List3.
maplist/5  True if Goal can successfully be applied to all succesive quadruples of elements of List1..List4.
partition/4  Filter elements of List according to Pred.
partition/5  Filter list according to Pred in three sets.

F.2.3  assoc

assoc_to_list/2  Translate assoc into a pairs list
assoc_to_keys/2  Translate assoc into a key list
assoc_to_values/2  Translate assoc into a value list
empty_assoc/1  Test/create an empty assoc
get_assoc/3  Get associated value
get_assoc/5  Get and replace associated value
list_to_assoc/2  Translate pair list to assoc
map_assoc/2  Test assoc values
map_assoc/3  Map assoc values
max_assoc/3  Max key-value of an assoc
min_assoc/3  Min key-value of an assoc
ord_list_to_assoc/3  Translate ordered list into an assoc
put_assoc/4  Add association to an assoc

F.2.4  broadcast

broadcast/1  Send event notification
broadcast_request/1 Request all agents
listen/2  Listen to event notifications
listen/3  Listen to event notifications
unlisten/1  Stop listening to event notifications
F.2. LIBRARY PREDICATES

unlisten/2        Stop listening to event notifications
unlisten/3        Stop listening to event notifications
listening/3       Who is listening to event notifications?

F.2.5 charsio

atom_to_chars/2   Convert Atom into a list of character codes.
atom_to_chars/3   Convert Atom into a difference-list of character codes.
format_to_chars/2 Use format/2 to write to a list of character codes.
format_to_chars/3 Use format/2 to write to a list of character codes.
number_to_chars/2 Convert Atom into a list of character codes.
number_to_chars/3 Convert Number into a difference-list of character codes.
open_chars_stream/2 Open Codes as an input stream.
read_from_chars/2 Read Codes into Term.
read_term_from_chars/3 Read Codes into Term.
with_output_to_chars/2 Run Goal with as once/1.
with_output_to_chars/3 Run Goal with as once/1.
with_output_to_chars/4 As with_output_to_chars/2, but Stream is unified with the temporary stream.
write_to_chars/2  Codes is a list of character codes produced by write/1 on Term.
write_to_chars/3  Codes is a difference-list of character codes produced by write/1 on Term.

F.2.6 check

check/0          Program completeness and consistency
list_undefined/0 List undefined predicates
list_autoload/0  List predicates that require autoload
list_redefined/0 List locally redefined predicates

F.2.7 csv

csv_read_file/2  Read a CSV file into a list of rows.
csv_read_file/3  Read a CSV file into a list of rows.
csv_write_file/2 Write a list of Prolog terms to a CSV file.
csv_write_file/3 Write a list of Prolog terms to a CSV file.
csv/3            Prolog DCG to ‘read/write’ CSV data.
csv/4            Prolog DCG to ‘read/write’ CSV data.

F.2.8 lists

append/2        Concatenate a list of lists.
append/3        List1AndList2 is the concatenation of List1 and List2.
delete/3        Is true when Lis1, with all occurrences of Elem deleted results in List2.
flatten/2       Is true if List2 is a non nested version of List1.
intersection/3  True if List2 unifies with the intersection of Set1 and Set2.
is_set/1        True if Set is a proper list without duplicates.
last/2          Succeeds if ‘Last’ unifies with the last element of ‘List’.

SWI-Prolog 5.10 Reference Manual
list_to_set/2  True when Set has the same element as List in the same order.
max_list/2  True if Max is the largest number in List.
member/2  True if Elem is a member of List.
min_list/2  True if Min is the largest number in List.
nex_to/3  True if Y follows X in List.
nth0/3  True if Elem is the Index'th element of List.
nth1/3  Is true when Elem is the Index'th element of List.
numlist/3  List is a list [Low, Low+1, ... High].
permutation/2  permutation(Xs, Ys) is true when Xs is a permutation of Ys.
prefix/2  True iff Part is a leading substring of Whole.
reverse/2  Is true when the elements of List2 are in reverse order compared to List1.
select/3  Is true when List1, with Elem removed results in List2.
select/4  Is true when select(X, XList) and select(Y, YList) are true, X and Y appear in the same locations of their respective lists.
selectchk/3  Semi-deterministic removal of first element in List that unifies Elem.
selectchk/4  Semi-deterministic version of select/4.
subset/2  True if all elements of SubSet belong to Set as well.
subtract/3  Delete all elements from ‘Set’ that occur in ‘Delete’ (a set) and unify the result with ‘Result’.
sumlist/2  Sum is the result of adding all numbers in List.
union/3  True if Set3 unifies with the union of Set1 and Set2.

F.2.9  option

merge_options/3  Merge two option lists.
meta_options/3  Perform meta-expansion on options that are module-sensitive.
option/2  Get an option from a OptionList.
option/3  Get an option from a OptionList.
select_option/3  Get and remove option from an option list.
select_option/4  Get and remove option with default value.

F.2.10  ordsets

ord_empty/1  Test empty ordered set
list_to_ord_set/2  Create ordered set
ord_add_element/3  Add element to ordered set
ord_del_element/3  Delete element from ordered set
ord_intersect/2  Test non-empty intersection
ord_intersection/3  Compute intersection
ord_disjoint/2  Test empty intersection
ord_subtract/3  Delete set from set
ord_union/3  Union of two ordered sets
ord_union/4  Union and difference of two ordered sets
ord_subset/2  Test subset
ord_memberchk/2  Deterministically test membership

F.2.11  prologxref
F.2. LIBRARY PREDICATES

```
prolog:called_by/2 (hook) Extend cross-referencer
xref_built_in/1 Examine defined built-ins
xref_called/3 Examine called predicates
xref_clean/1 Remove analysis of source
xref_current_source/1 Examine cross-referenced sources
xref_defined/3 Examine defined predicates
xref_exported/2 Examine exported predicates
xref_module/2 Module defined by source
xref_source/1 Cross-reference analysis of source
```

F.2.12 pairs

```
group_pairs_by_key/2 Group values with the same key.
map_list_to_pairs/3 Create a key-value list by mapping each element of List.
pairs_keys/2 Remove the values from a list of Key-Value pairs.
pairs_keys_values/3 True if Keys holds the keys of Pairs and Values the values.
pairs_values/2 Remove the keys from a list of Key-Value pairs.
transpose_pairs/2 Swap Key-Value to Value-Key and sort the result on Value (the new key) using keysort/2.
```

F.2.13 pio

pure_input

```
phrase_from_file/2 Process the content of File using the DCG rule Grammar.
phrase_from_file/3 As phrase_from_file/2, providing additional Options.
stream_to_lazy_list/2 Create a lazy list representing the character codes in Stream.
```

F.2.14 readutil

```
read_line_to_codes/2 Read line from a stream
read_line_to_codes/3 Read line from a stream
read_stream_to_codes/2 Read contents of stream
read_stream_to_codes/3 Read contents of stream
read_file_to_codes/3 Read contents of file
read_file_to_terms/3 Read contents of file to Prolog terms
```

F.2.15 record

```
record/1 Define named fields in a term
```

F.2.16 registry

This library is only available on Windows systems.

```
registry_get_key/2 Get principal value of key
registry_get_key/3 Get associated value of key
registry_set_key/2 Set principal value of key
```
registry_set_key/3  Set associated value of key
registry_delete_key/1  Remove a key
shell_register_file_type/4  Register a file-type
shell_register_dde/6  Register DDE action
shell_register_prolog/1  Register Prolog

F.2.17  ugraphs

vertices_edges_to_ugraph/3  Create unweighted graph
vertices/2  Find vertices in graph
del_vertices/3  Delete vertices from graph
nodes/2  Find edges in graph
add_vertices/3  Add vertices to graph
del_edges/3  Delete edges from graph
transpose/2  Invert the direction of all edges
neighbors/3  Find neighbors of vertex
neighbours/3  Find neighbors of vertex
complement/2  Inverse presence of edges
compose/3

top_sort/2  Sort graph topologically
top_sort/3  Sort graph topologically
transitive_closure/2  Create transitive closure of graph
reachable/3  Find all reachable vertices
ugraph_union/3  Union of two graphs

F.2.18  url

file_name_to_url/2  Translate between a filename and a file:/URL.
global_url/3  Translate a possibly relative URL into an absolute one.
http_location/2  Construct or analyze an HTTP location.
is_absolute_url/1  True if URL is an absolute URL.
parse_url/2  Construct or analyze a URL.
parse_url/3  Similar to parse_url/2 for relative URLs.
parse_url_search/2  Construct or analyze an HTTP search specification.
set_url_encoding/2  Query and set the encoding for URLs.
url_iri/2  Convert between a URL, encoding in US-ASCII and an IRI.
www_form_encode/2  Encode/Decode between native value and application/x-www-form-encoded.

F.2.19  www_browser

www_open_url/1  Open a web-page in a browser

F.2.20  clp/clpfd
F.2. LIBRARY PREDICATES 399

# / \ /\ P and Q hold.
#< /< X is less than Y.
#<== /<= P implies Q.
#<==/> /===> Q implies P.
#== /== X equals Y.
#==< /==> X is less than or equal to Y.
#>= /> X is greater than Y.
#>/\ /\ P or Q holds.
#/ \= X is not Y.
all_different/1 Vars are pairwise distinct.
all_distinct/1 Like all_different/1, with stronger propagation.
avtomaton/3 Equivalent to automaton(., ., Signature, Nodes, Arcs, [], [], .), a common use case of automaton/8.
avtomaton/8 True if the finite automaton induced by Nodes and Arcs (extended with Counters) accepts Signature.
chain/2 Zs is a list of finite domain variables that are a chain with respect to the partial order Relation, in the order they appear in the list.
circuit/1 True if the list Vs of finite domain variables induces a Hamiltonian circuit, where the k-th element of Vs is the successor of node k.
element/3 The N-th element of the list of finite domain variables Vs is V.
fd_dom/2 Dom is the current domain (see in/2) of Var.
fld_int/2 Inf is the infimum of the current domain of Var.
fld_size/2 Size is the number of elements of the current domain of Var, or the atom *sup* if the domain is unbounded.
fld_sup/2 Sup is the supremum of the current domain of Var.
fld_var/1 True iff Var is a CLP(FD) variable.
global_cardinality/2 Equivalent to global_cardinality(Vs, Pairs, []).
global_cardinality/3 Vs is a list of finite domain variables, Pairs is a list of Key-Num pairs, where Key is an integer and Num is a finite domain variable.
in/2 Var is an element of Domain.
indomain/1 Bind Var to all feasible values of its domain on backtracking.
ins/2 The variables in the list Vars are elements of Domain.
label/1 Equivalent to labeling([], Vars).
labeling/2 Labeling means systematically trying out values for the finite domain variables Vars until all of them are ground.
lex_chain/1 Lists are lexicographically non-decreasing.
scalar_product/4 Cs is a list of integers, Vs is a list of variables and integers.
serialized/2 Constrains a set of intervals to a non-overlapping sequence.
sum/3 The sum of elements of the list Vars is in relation Rel to Expr, where Rel is #=, \-=, #<, #>, #=<, #>.
tuples_in/2 Transpose a list of lists of the same length.
transpose/2 Transpose a list of lists of the same length.
zcompare/3 Analogous to compare/3, with finite domain variables A and B.

F.2.21 clpqr

entailed/1 Check if constraint is entailed
inf/2 Find the infimum of an expression
sup/2 Find the supremum of an expression
minimize/1 Minimizes an expression
maximize/1 Maximizes an expression
bb_inf/3 Infimum of expression for mixed-integer problems
### APPENDIX F. SUMMARY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicate</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bb_inf/4</td>
<td>Infimum of expression for mixed-integer problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bb_inf/5</td>
<td>Infimum of expression for mixed-integer problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dump/3</td>
<td>Dump constraints on variables</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### F.2.22 clp/simpex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicate</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>assignment/2</td>
<td>Solve assignment problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constraint/3</td>
<td>Add linear constraint to state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constraint/4</td>
<td>Add named linear constraint to state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constraint_add/4</td>
<td>Extend a named constraint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen_state/1</td>
<td>Create empty linear program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maximize/3</td>
<td>Maximize objective function in to linear constraints</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minimize/3</td>
<td>Minimize objective function in to linear constraints</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>objective/2</td>
<td>Fetch value of objective function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shadow_price/3</td>
<td>Fetch shadow price in solved state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transportation/4</td>
<td>Solve transportation problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>variable_value/3</td>
<td>Fetch value of variable in solved state</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### F.2.23 thread_pool

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicate</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>current_thread_pool/1</td>
<td>True if Name refers to a defined thread pool.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_create_in_pool/4</td>
<td>Create a thread in Pool.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_pool_create/3</td>
<td>Create a pool of threads.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_pool_destroy/1</td>
<td>Destroy the thread pool named Name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_pool_property/2</td>
<td>True if Property is a property of thread pool Name.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
F.3. ARITHMETIC FUNCTIONS

F.3 Arithmetic Functions

*/2  Multiplication
**/2  Power function
+/1  Unary plus (No-op)
+/2  Addition
−/1  Unary minus
−/2  Subtraction
/2  Division
///2  Integer division
\\/2  Bitwise and
\\/2  Bitwise left shift
\\\\/2  Bitwise exclusive or
\\\\\\/2  Bitwise right shift
.\2  List of one character: character code
\\1  Bitwise negation
\!/2  Bitwise or
~\2  Power function
abs/1  Absolute value
acos/1  Inverse (arc) cosine
asin/1  Inverse (arc) sine
atan/1  Inverse (arc) tangent
atan2/2  Rectangular to polar conversion
ceil/1  Smallest integer larger than arg
ceiling/1  Smallest integer larger than arg
cos/1  Cosine
cputime/0  Get CPU time
div/2  Integer division
e/0  Mathematical constant
epsilon/0  Floating point precision
eval/1  Evaluate term as expression
exp/1  Exponent (base e)
float/1  Explicitly convert to float
float_fractional_part/1  Fractional part of a float
float_integer_part/1  Integer part of a float
floor/1  Largest integer below argument
gcd/2  Greatest common divisor
integer/1  Round to nearest integer
log/1  Natural logarithm
log10/1  10 base logarithm
lsb/1  Least significant bit
max/2  Maximum of two numbers
min/2  Minimum of two numbers
msb/1  Most significant bit
mod/2  Remainder of division
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>pown</code>/3</td>
<td>Integer exponent and modulo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>random</code>/1</td>
<td>Generate random number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rational</code>/1</td>
<td>Convert to rational number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rationalize</code>/1</td>
<td>Convert to rational number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rdiv</code>/2</td>
<td>Ration number division</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rem</code>/2</td>
<td>Remainder of division</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>round</code>/1</td>
<td>Round to nearest integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>truncate</code>/1</td>
<td>Truncate float to integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>pi</code>/0</td>
<td>Mathematical constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>popcount</code>/1</td>
<td>Count 1s in a bitvector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>sign</code>/1</td>
<td>Extract sign of value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>sin</code>/1</td>
<td>Sine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>sqrt</code>/1</td>
<td>Square root</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>tan</code>/1</td>
<td>Tangent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>xor</code>/2</td>
<td>Bitwise exclusive or</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
F.4 Operators

\[\begin{align*}
\& & 1 & fx & \text{Bind top-level variable} \\
\& & 200 & fxy & \text{Predicate} \\
\& & 200 & fxy & \text{Arithmetic function} \\
\mod & 300 & ffx & \text{Arithmetic function} \\
* & 400 & ffx & \text{Arithmetic function} \\
/ & 400 & ffx & \text{Arithmetic function} \\
// & 400 & ffx & \text{Arithmetic function} \\
<< & 400 & ffx & \text{Arithmetic function} \\
>> & 400 & ffx & \text{Arithmetic function} \\
xor & 400 & ffx & \text{Arithmetic function} \\
+ & 500 & ffx & \text{Arithmetic function} \\
- & 500 & ffx & \text{Arithmetic function} \\
? & 500 & ffx & \text{XPCE: obtainer} \\
\backslash & 500 & ffx & \text{Arithmetic function} \\
+ & 500 & ffx & \text{Arithmetic function} \\
- & 500 & ffx & \text{Arithmetic function} \\
/ \backslash & 500 & ffx & \text{Arithmetic function} \\
\backslash / & 500 & ffx & \text{Arithmetic function} \\
: & 600 & ffx & \text{module:term separator} \\
< & 700 & ffx & \text{Predicate} \\
= & 700 & ffx & \text{Predicate} \\
=.= & 700 & ffx & \text{Predicate} \\
=:= & 700 & ffx & \text{Predicate} \\
< & 700 & ffx & \text{Predicate} \\
== & 700 & ffx & \text{Predicate} \\
=@= & 700 & ffx & \text{Predicate} \\
@\leq & 700 & ffx & \text{Predicate} \\
@\geq & 700 & ffx & \text{Predicate} \\
@> & 700 & ffx & \text{Predicate} \\
@< & 700 & ffx & \text{Predicate} \\
@\leq & 700 & ffx & \text{Predicate} \\
@\geq & 700 & ffx & \text{Predicate} \\
is & 700 & ffx & \text{Predicate} \\
\backslash = & 700 & ffx & \text{Predicate} \\
\backslash == & 700 & ffx & \text{Predicate} \\
=\@= & 700 & ffx & \text{Predicate} \\
not & 900 & fy & \text{Predicate} \\
\backslash + & 900 & fy & \text{Predicate} \\
, & 1000 & fxy & \text{Predicate} \\
\rightarrow & 1050 & fxy & \text{Predicate} \\
* \rightarrow & 1050 & fxy & \text{Predicate} \\
; & 1100 & fxy & \text{Predicate} \\
| & 1105 & fxy & \text{Predicate}
\end{align*}\]
discontiguous 1150 \( f.x \) Predicate

dynamic 1150 \( f.x \) Predicate

module_transparent 1150 \( f.x \) Predicate

meta_predicate 1150 \( f.x \) Head

multifile 1150 \( f.x \) Predicate

thread_local 1150 \( f.x \) Predicate

volatile 1150 \( f.x \) Predicate

initialization 1150 \( f.x \) Predicate

?: 1200 \( f.x \) Introduces a directive

?:- 1200 \( f.x \) Introduces a directive

\:- 1200 \( x.f.x \) DCGrammar: rewrite

\:- 1200 \( x.f.x \) head :– body, separator
Bibliography


Index

'MANUAL' library, 27
-lswipl library, 291
.pl, 59
.pro, 59
?=/2, 93
=/2, 145
\=/2, 150
\=\=/2, 145
|/2, 94
#/\/, 322
#\=\=/2, 320
#\=\=>/2, 321
#\=\>/2, 320
#\=<\>/2, 320
#\<\>/2, 321
#\=/1, 321
, /2, 93
#/\/, 322
(\)/1, 328
]/0, 93
]/, 59
//2, 148
./2, 149
=/2, 90
\=/2, 90
\>/2, 145
\>/2, 145
^/2, 152
//2, 148
->/2, 94
=<\>/2, 145
#\<=\=\>/2, 322
\=<\>/2, 150
\<=\>/2, 145
\=\=/1, 147
\=\=/2, 147
\=\=/2, 90
\=\=/1, 151
\=/\=\=/2, 90
\=/+\/-1, 94

\>/2, 150
+/1, 147
+/2, 147
\>/2, 151
\>=\>/2, 322
\>\>/2, 150
\>/2, 94
\>=\>/2, 94
\=\=\>/2, 91
\>=\>/2, 91
\>=\>/2, 91
\=\>/2, 147
\=\=/2, 91
\=\>/2, 90
\=\=\>/2, 133
_PL_get_arg(), 250
\, 59

64-bits platforms, 56
abolish/1, 16, 104, 105
abolish/2, 105
abolish/[1 2], 39
abs/1, 148
absolute file name/2, 171
absolute file name/3, 171
absolute file name/2, 20, 75, 80, 172, 174, 302
absolute file name/3, 41, 45, 69, 75, 79, 80, 171, 172, 277, 278, 344

absolute file name/[2 3], 44, 79, 171
access_file/2, 170
access_file/2, 38, 171
acos/1, 151
acquire(), 266
acyclic_term/1, 89, 90
acyclic_term/1, 52, 89
add_edges/3, 353
add_import_module/3, 194
add_nb_set/2, 336
add_nb_set/3, 336
add_vertices/3, 353
add_import_module/3, 194, 198
add_nb_set/3, 336
agent, 310
aggregate library, 394
aggregate/3, 307
aggregate/4, 307
aggregate_all/3, 307
aggregate_all/4, 307
all_different/1, 320
all_distinct/1, 323
Alpha
   DEC, 15
AMD64, 57
anonymous
   variable, 51
anonymous variable, 370
append/1, 120, 121
append/2, 190, 333
append/3, 137, 333
apply library, 394
apply/2, 95
apropos/1, 27, 28, 46, 364, 380
arg/3, 133
arithmetic function/1, 153
arithmetic function/1, 152, 153, 273
arity, 370
asin/1, 151
assert, 370
assert/1, 75, 79, 104–106, 108, 111, 188, 190, 199, 204, 228, 370
assert/2, 105, 106, 113
asserta/1, 26, 79, 92, 105
asserta/2, 105, 106
assertion/1, 332
assertions, 332
assertz/1, 105, 370
assertz/2, 105, 106
assignment/2, 347
assoc library, 308, 336, 394
assoc_to_keys/2, 309
assoc_to_list/2, 309
assoc_to_values/2, 309
at_end_of_stream/0, 127
at_end_of_stream/1, 127
at_halt/1, 81
at_end_of_stream/1, 127
at_end_of_stream/[0
   1], 117, 343
at_halt/1, 174, 223, 283, 288, 365
at_initialization/1, 287
atan/1, 151
atan/2, 151
atan2/2, 151
atom, 370
atom/1, 89, 246
atom_chars/2, 136
atom_codes/2, 136
atom_concat/3, 137
atom_length/2, 138
atom_number/2, 137
atom_prefix/2, 138
atom_to_chars/2, 312
atom_to_chars/3, 312
atom_to_term/3, 137
atom_chars/2, 38, 74, 123, 126, 136, 140
atom_codes/2, 17, 38, 74, 123, 136, 137, 140
atom_concat/3, 142
atom_length/2, 39, 142
atom_number/2, 122
atom_result/2, 196
atomic/1, 89
atomic_concat/3, 137
atomic_list_concat/2, 138
atomic_list_concat/3, 138
atomic_concat/3, 137
atomic_list_concat/2, 138
attach_console/0, 231
attach_console/0, 230, 231, 279
attr_portray_hook/2, 202
attr_unify_hook/2, 201
attr_portray_hook/2, 128
attr_unify_hook/2, 200, 201
attribute_goals/1, 202
attribute_goals/1, 202
attribute_goals/3, 201
attvar/1, 201
autoload/0, 78, 298, 299, 314
automaton/3, 324
automaton/8, 324
INDEX 409

b_getval/2, 205
b_setval/2, 204
b_getval/2, 205
b_setval/2, 204, 363
backcomp library, 16, 17, 134, 160
backtracking, 370
bagof/3, 52, 155, 156, 380
bb_inf/3, 329
bb_inf/4, 329
bb_inf/5, 328
between/3, 145
binding, 370
bits
   64, 56
blackboard, 310
blob/2, 89, 114
body, 370
BOM, 53
break/0, 25, 31, 174, 215, 279
broadcast, 310
broadcast library, 310, 394
broadcast/1, 310
broadcast_request/1, 310
built-in predicate, 370
Byte Order Mark, 53
byte_count/2, 124
byte_count/2, 118
call/1, 17, 69, 89, 95, 98, 176, 180, 182, 188, 203, 268
call/2, 95
call/[2-6], 95
call_cleanup/2, 97
call_cleanup/3, 97
call_residue_vars/2, 203
call_shared_object_function/2, 239
call_with_depth_limit/3, 95
call_cleanup/2, 97, 123, 361, 367
call_residue_vars/2, 204
call_with_depth_limit/3, 95, 96
call_with_time_limit/2, 96
callable/1, 89, 342
catch/3, 16, 98, 99, 131, 137, 174, 180, 222, 224, 360, 362, 363, 392
ceil/1, 150
ceiling/1, 150
chain/2, 327
char_code/2, 136
char_conversion/2, 144
char_type/2, 139
char_code/2, 74
char_conversion/2, 37, 144
char_type/2, 50, 140
character set, 48
character_count/2, 124
character_count/2, 118, 124
charsio library, 395
chdir/1, 174
check library, 78, 112, 313, 395
check/0, 78, 313
check_old_select/0, 18
checkselect library, 18
chr library, 213, 215
chr_constraint/1, 210
chr_leash/1, 215
chr_notrace/0, 215
chr_option/2, 209
chr_show_store/1, 215
chr_trace/0, 215
chr_type/1, 211
chr_constraint/1, 210, 217
chr_notrace/0, 214
chr_option/2, 217
chr_trace/0, 214
chr_type/1, 211
circuit/1, 324
clause, 370
clause/2, 94, 112, 113
clause/3, 105, 106, 113, 300
clause/[2
   3], 39
clause_property/2, 113
clause_property/2, 80, 360
close/1, 113, 116, 118
close/2, 116
close_dde_conversation/1, 184
close_shared_object/1, 239
clp/clpfd library, 398
clp/simplex library, 400
clpfd library, 193
clpqr library, 327, 328, 399
code_type/2, 140
code_type/2, 139, 140
collate, 141
collation_key/2, 141
collation_key/2, 141, 163
COM, 265
commandline
   arguments, 24
compare
   language-specific, 141
compare(), 266
compare/3, 52, 91, 155, 276, 368
compile_aux_clauses/1, 83
compile_predicates/1, 108
compile_predicates/1, 108
compiling/0, 82, 86
complement/2, 354
completion
   TAB, 62
compose/3, 354
compound, 371
compound/1, 89
concat_atom/3, 138
constraint/3, 347
constraint/4, 347
constraint_add/4, 347
consult/1, 21, 22, 32, 45, 68, 74, 76–78, 86, 108, 130, 177, 178
context module, 371
context_module/1, 197
context_module/1, 192, 197, 269
convert_time/2, 42
convert_time/[2
   8], 171
copy_stream_data/2, 127
copy_stream_data/3, 127
copy_term/2, 134
copy_term/3, 202
copy_term_nat/2, 202
copy_stream_data/2, 127
copy_stream_data/3, 118
copy_term/2, 52, 92, 134, 135, 199, 202, 205
copy_term/3, 202
cos/1, 151
count_atom_results/3, 196
count_atom_results/3, 196
cputime/0, 152
create_prolog_flag/3, 45
create_prolog_flag/3, 43, 44
crypt library, 378
csv library, 395
csv//1, 331
csv//2, 331
csv_read_file/2, 331
csv_read_file/3, 331
csv_write_file/2, 331
csv_write_file/3, 331
ctype library, 139
current_arithmetic_function/1, 153
current_atom/1, 109
current_blob/2, 110
current_char_conversion/2, 144
current_flag/1, 110
current_foreign_library/2, 239
current_format_predicate/2, 239
current_function/2, 110
current_int/1, 122
current_key/1, 110
current_module/1, 197
current_op/3, 143
current_output/1, 122
current_predicate/1, 110
current_predicate/2, 110
current_prolog_flag/2, 36
current_signal/3, 102
current_stream/3, 118, 174
current_thread_pool/1, 351
current_atom/1, 109
current_blob/2, 266
current_char_conversion/2, 144
current_int/1, 80, 122
current_module/1, 110
current_output/1, 122
current_predicate/1, 110, 111
current_predicate/2, 110
current_prolog_flag/2, 17, 24, 25, 36, 46, 48, 50, 76, 131, 178, 185, 237, 305, 372
current_signal/3, 102
current_stream/3, 118
cyclic terms, 52
cyclic_term/1, 89
cyclic_term/1, 52, 90
daemon, 310
date_time_stamp/2, 165
date_time_value/3, 166
date_time_value/3, 165
INDEX 411

day_of_the_week/2, 169
DCG, 75, 103
dcg_translate_rule/2, 83
dcg_translate_rule/2, 83
dde_current_connection/2, 186
dde_current_service/2, 186
dde_execute/2, 185
dde_poke/4, 185
dde_register_service/2, 185
dde_request/3, 184
dde_unregister_service/1, 186
debug library, 71, 331
debug/0, 29, 32, 99, 176, 177, 183, 231, 279, 363
debug/1, 332
debug/3, 332
debugging
  exceptions, 98
debugging/0, 46, 176, 177, 332, 364
debugging/1, 332
DEC
  Alpha, 15
del_attr/2, 201
del_attrs/1, 203
del_edges/3, 354
del_vertices/3, 353
del_attr/2, 202
delete/3, 334
delete_directory/1, 174
delete_file/1, 170
delete_import_module/2, 194
delete_file/1, 173
delete_import_module/2, 194, 198
deterministic/1, 97, 361
Development environment, 59
dialect.pl library, 366
dif library, 203
dif/2, 52, 90, 93, 203
directory_files/2, 172
discontiguous/1, 108
display/1, 157, 253, 254
display/[1
  2], 16
displayq/[1
  2], 16
div/2, 148
dld, 237
do_not_use/1, 193
domain_error/2, 265
downcase_atom/2, 140
downcase_atom/2, 140, 141
dump/3, 329
dup/2, 17
dup_stream/2, 17
duplicate_term/2, 135
duplicate_term/2, 52, 134, 135, 205
dwim_match/2, 186
dwim_match/3, 186
dwim_predicate/2, 112
dwim_match/2, 112, 186
dynamic_predicate, 371
dynamic/1, 41, 43, 73, 104, 105, 108, 111, 197, 228, 313
e/0, 152
deges/2, 353
dedit/0, 87
dedit/1, 18, 38, 45, 46, 62, 63, 68, 72, 78, 86, 87, 192, 313, 388
dedit_source/1, 87
deditor class, 62, 64
element/3, 323
e1f/1, 84
e1se/0, 85
Emacs, 26
emacs/0
  1], 63
emacs/prolog_colour library, 66
emacs/prolog_mode library, 66
emacs/swi_prolog library, 18
empty_assoc/1, 309
empty_nb_set/1, 336
encoding/1, 52, 78
endif/0, 85
ensure_loaded/1, 78
ensure_loaded/1, 32, 74, 78, 189
entailed/1, 328
epsilon/0, 152
erase/1, 105, 106, 113
error library, 345
eval/1, 152
eval_license/0, 377
eval_license/0, 377, 378
exception/3, 204, 363
exceptions
debugging, 98
exclude/3, 308
exists_directory/1, 170
exists_file/1, 170
exists_source/1, 367
exists_file/1, 38
exists_source/1, 366
exp/1, 151
expand_answer/2, 175
expand_file_name/2, 172
expand_file_search_path/2, 79
expand_goal/2, 83
expand_query/4, 175
expand_term/2, 82
expand_answer/2, 175
expand_file_name/2, 38, 76, 163, 164, 171, 172
expand_goal/2, 41, 82–84
expand_term/2, 82, 83, 103, 345
expects_dialect/1, 366
expects_dialect/1, 80, 366
explain library, 384
explain/1, 28
explain/2, 28
export/1, 195, 196
export_list/2, 195
exported predicate, 371

fact, 371
fail/0, 83, 93
false/0, 93
fd_dom/2, 327
fd_inf/2, 327
fd_size/2, 327
fd_sup/2, 327
fd_var/1, 327
file_base_name/2, 170
file_directory_name/2, 170
file_name_extension/3, 172
file_name_to_url/2, 358
file_search_path/2, 79
file_search_path/2, 22, 26, 36, 44, 46, 47, 60, 69, 76, 77, 79, 80, 278, 292, 301–303
fileerrors/2, 38
find_chr_constraint/1, 215
findall/3, 52, 92, 93, 155, 199, 384
findall/4, 155
flag/3, 106, 110, 135
flag:address_bits, 36
flag:age_margin, 36
flag:allow_variable_name_as_functor, 36
flag:arch, 36
flag:argv, 36
flag:associate, 37
flag:autoload, 37
flag:backquoted_string, 37
flag:bounded, 37
flag:c_c, 37
flag:c_ldflags, 37
flag:c_libs, 37
flag:char_conversion, 37
flag:character_escapes, 37
flag:compiled_at, 37
flag:console_menu, 37
flag:cpu_count, 37
flag:dde, 37
flag:debug, 38
flag:debug_on_error, 38
flag:debugger_print_options, 38
flag:debugger_show_context, 38
flag:dialect, 38
flag:double_quotes, 38
flag:editor, 38
flag:emacs_inferior_process, 38
flag:encoding, 38
flag:executable, 38
flag:file_name_variables, 38
flag:gc, 39
flag:generate_debug_info, 39
flag:gmp_version, 39
flag:gui, 39
flag:history, 39
flag:home, 39
flag:hwnd, 39
flag:integer_rounding_function, 39
flag:iso, 39
flag:large_files, 40
flag:last_call_optimisation, 42
flag:max arity, 40
flag:max_integer, 40
flag:max_tagged_integer, 40
flag:min_integer, 40
flag:min_tagged_integer, 40
flag:occurs_check, 40
flag:open_shared_object, 40
flag:optimise, 40
flag:pid, 41
flag:pipe, 41
flag:prompt_alternatives_on, 41
flag:qcompile, 41
flag:readline, 41
flag:report_error, 41
flag:resource_database, 41
flag:runtime, 41
flag:saved_program, 41
flag:shared_object_extension, 41
flag:shared_object_search_path, 41
flag:signals, 42
flag:system_thread_id, 42
flag:toplevel_print_anon, 42
flag:toplevel_print_factorized, 42
flag:toplevel_print_options, 42
flag:toplevel_var_size, 42
flag:trace_gc, 42
flag:tty_control, 43
flag:unix, 43
flag:unknown, 43
flag:user_flags, 43
flag:verbose, 43
flag:verbose_autoload, 43
flag:verbose_file_search, 43
flag:verbose_load, 43
flag:version, 44
flag:version_data, 44
flag:version_git, 44
flag:windows, 44
flag:write_attributes, 44
flag:write_help_with_overstrike, 44
flag:xpce, 44
flag:xpce_version, 44
flatten/2, 335
float/1, 88, 149
float_fractional_part/1, 150
float_integer_part/1, 150
floor/1, 150
flush_output/0, 125
flush_output/1, 125
flush_output/0, 125
flush_output/1, 100, 127
flush_output/[0 1], 115, 125
forall/2, 156
foreach/2, 307
format/1, 100, 158
format/2, 158, 160, 332
format/3, 100, 101, 122, 128, 136, 137, 141, 146, 147, 159, 160
format/[1 2], 128, 156, 384
format/[2 3], 50
format_predicate/2, 160
format_time/3, 166
format_time/4, 168
format_to_chars/3, 312
format_time/3, 163
format_time/4, 166
free_variables/4, 307
freeze/2, 203
frozen/2, 203
functor, 371
functor/3, 11, 89, 110, 133, 205
garbage_collect/0, 182
garbage_collect_atoms/0, 182
garbage_collect_clauses/0, 85
garbage_collect_atoms/0, 182, 283
garbage_collect_clauses/0, 85
gcd/2, 148
gdebug/0, 68
gen_assoc/3, 309
gen_nb_set/2, 336
gen_state/1, 347
gensym library, 332
gensym/2, 333
get/1, 126
get/2, 126
get0/1, 115, 126
get0/2, 126
get_assoc/3, 309
get_assoc/5, 309
get_attr/3, 201
get_attrs/2, 202
get_byte/1, 125
get_byte/2, 126
get_chars/1, 126
get_chars/2, 126
get_code/1, 126
get_code/2, 126
get_single_char/1, 127
get_time/1, 165
get_attr/3, 202
get_attrs/2, 202
get_byte/1, 126
get_byte/2, 126
get_byte/[1
  2], 74
get_char/1, 126
get_char/2, 126
get_char/[1
  2], 74
get_code/1, 74, 126, 127
get_code/2, 52, 118, 126, 127
get_code/[1
  2], 74
get_single_char/1, 24, 43
get_time/1, 171, 179
getenv/2, 163, 337
global_cardinality/2, 323
global_cardinality/3, 323
global_url/3, 356
GMP, 146
GNU-Emacs, 26
goal, 371
goal_expansion/2, 83, 382
goal_expansion/2, 75, 82–84, 331, 367, 368
Graphics, 12
ground/1, 52, 89, 107, 247
group_pairs_by_key/2, 340
gspy/1, 68
gtrace/0, 68, 231
GUI, 12
guitracer/0, 18, 68, 72, 175, 176
gxref/0, 28, 69, 190, 342
halt/0, 31, 174
halt/1, 174, 279, 381
halt/[0
  1], 81
hash/1, 109
hashing, 372
head, 372
help/0, 27, 46, 302, 364
help/1, 27, 44, 46, 364
helpidx library, 27
hooks, 45
html_write library, 343
http/http_error library, 99
http/http_header library, 168
http_load library, 77, 365
http_location/2, 356
http_open/3, 101
http_timestamp/2, 168
IA32, 57
IDE, 59
if
  directive, 84
if/1, 80, 84
ignore/1, 95, 180, 222
immediate
  update view, 106
import/1, 195, 196
import_module/2, 194
import_module/2, 110, 194
imported predicate, 372
in/2, 318
in_pce_thread/1, 235
in_pce_thread/1, 235
include/1, 75, 78, 80
include/3, 308
index/1, 107, 109, 111
indexing, 372
indomain/1, 318
inf/2, 328
infinite trees, 52
initialization/1, 81, 82, 204, 223, 237, 300
initialization/2, 82
ins/2, 318
instance/2, 106
instantiation_error/1, 264
integer, 372
  unbounded, 146
integer/1, 88, 149
interactor/0, 119, 230
internationalization, 52
interpreted, 372
intersection/3, 335
is/2, 145, 146, 149, 153, 217
is_absolute_file_name/1, 172
is_absolute_url/1, 356
is_list/1, 154
is_set/1, 335
is_stream/1, 118
ISO Latin 1, 48
Java, 265
join_threads/0, 230
join_threads/0, 230
keysort/2, 154, 155
label/1, 318
labeling/2, 319
last/2, 334
leash/1, 30, 177, 215, 361
length/2, 154
lex_chain/1, 322
library_directory/1, 79
library_directory/1, 46, 47, 77
license/1, 378
license/2, 377, 378
line_count/2, 124
line_position/2, 124
line_count/2, 118, 120, 161
line_position/2, 118, 120, 161
list_autoload/0, 314
list_debug_topics/0, 332
list_redefined/0, 314
list_to_assoc/2, 309
list_to_ord_set/2, 339
list_to_set/2, 335
list_undefined/0, 313
list_autoload/0, 313
list_debug_topics/0, 332
list_redefined/0, 313
list_undefined/0, 78, 313, 314
listen/2, 311
listen/3, 311, 312
listening/3, 312
listing/0, 88
listing/1, 31, 88
lists library, 154, 395
load_files/2, 75, 389
load_foreign_library/1, 238
load_foreign_library/2, 238
load_file/2, 77
load_files/2, 39, 41, 43, 45, 52, 75, 77, 78, 86, 189, 342, 365, 367
load_foreign_library/1, 81, 290, 301
load_foreign_library/[1 2], 79, 239
locale, 141
locale_sort/2, 141
locale_sort/2, 141, 163
log/1, 151
log10/1, 151
logical
update view, 106
lsb/1, 152
MacOS X, 12
make/0, 11, 46, 47, 63, 68, 72, 76, 78, 85
make_directory/1, 173
make_library_index/1, 47
make_library_index/2, 47
make_library_index/1, 47
make_library_index/2, 47
make_library_index/[1 2], 47
manpce/0, 54
map_assoc/2, 309
map_assoc/3, 309
map_list_to_pairs/3, 340
maplist/2, 308
maplist/3, 190, 196, 299, 308
maplist/4, 308
maplist/5, 308
maplist_/3, 190, 196
max/2, 148, 149
max_assoc/3, 309
max_list/2, 335
maximize/1, 328
maximize/3, 347, 348
member/2, 31, 96, 113, 154, 172, 189, 333, 386
memberchk/2, 92, 154, 339
memory
layout, 54
merge_options/3, 338
message
service, 310
message_hook/3, 100
message_queue_create/1, 226
message_queue_create/2, 226
message_queue_destroy/1, 226
message_queue_property/2, 226
message_to_string/2, 100
message_hook/3, 16, 99–101, 183
message_queue_create/1, 225, 226
message_to_string/2, 100
meta-predicate, 372
meta_options/3, 338
meta_predicate/1, 191
meta_options/3, 190
meta_predicate/1, 19, 83, 112, 190, 192, 198, 269
min/2, 149
min_assoc/3, 309
min_list/2, 335
minimize/1, 328
minimize/3, 348
mod/2, 148
module, 372
   context, 371
module transparent, 372
module/1, 192
module/2, 82, 142, 143, 188–190, 193, 195, 198
module_property/2, 197
module_transparent/1, 197
module_property/2, 80
module_transparent/1, 112, 192, 198, 269, 371
msb/1, 152
msort/2, 154
multifile/1, 43, 86, 108, 111, 313, 364, 372
must_be/2, 345
mutex_create/1, 229
mutex_create/2, 229
mutex_destroy/1, 229
mutex_lock/1, 229
mutex_property/2, 230
mutex_statistics/0, 225
mutex_trylock/1, 230
mutex_unlock/1, 230
mutex_unlock_all/0, 230
mutex_create/1, 229
mutex_create/2, 230
mutex_lock/1, 230
my_compare/3, 368
mypred/1, 193
name/1, 190
name/2, 136, 137
name_of/2, 311
nb_current/2, 205
nb_delete/1, 205
nb_getval/2, 205
nb_linkarg/3, 135
nb_linkval/2, 205
nb_set library, 336
nb_set_to_list/2, 336
nb_setarg/3, 106, 135
nb_setval/2, 106, 205
nb_getval/2, 205
nb_linkarg/3, 135
nb_linkval/2, 135, 205
nb_setarg/3, 73, 135, 336, 345
nb_setval/2, 135, 204, 205, 363
neighbours/3, 354
number
   rational, 146
number/1, 89
number_chars/2, 136
number_codes/2, 137
number_to_chars/2, 312
number_to_chars/3, 312
number_chars/2, 17, 74, 137
number_codes/2, 17, 74, 136, 137
numbervars/3, 129, 133, 134
numbervars/4, 129, 133, 134
neighbours/3, 354
nextto/3, 354
nl/0, 124
nl/1, 124
nl/0, 157
nodebug/0, 177
nodebug/1, 332
noguirtracer/0, 68, 72, 176
noprofile/1, 180
noprotoctol/0, 175
normalize_space/2, 141
nospy/1, 30, 46, 177, 231, 364
nospyall/0, 46, 177, 364
not/1, 95, 380
notrace/0, 176, 215
notrace/1, 176
nth0/3, 334
nth1/3, 334
nth_clause/3, 113
nth_clause/3, 113, 360
number
   rational, 146
number/1, 89
number_chars/2, 136
number_codes/2, 137
number_to_chars/2, 312
number_to_chars/3, 312
number_chars/2, 17, 74, 137
number_codes/2, 17, 74, 136, 137
numbervars/3, 129, 133, 134
numbervars/4, 129, 133, 134
context, 371
module transparent, 372
module/1, 192
module/2, 82, 142, 143, 188–190, 193, 195, 198
module_property/2, 197
module_transparent/1, 197
module_property/2, 80
module_transparent/1, 112, 192, 198, 269, 371
msb/1, 152
msort/2, 154
multifile/1, 43, 86, 108, 111, 313, 364, 372
must_be/2, 345
mutex_create/1, 229
mutex_create/2, 229
mutex_destroy/1, 229
mutex_lock/1, 229
mutex_property/2, 230
mutex_statistics/0, 225
mutex_trylock/1, 230
mutex_unlock/1, 230
mutex_unlock_all/0, 230
mutex_create/1, 229
mutex_create/2, 230
mutex_lock/1, 230
my_compare/3, 368
mypred/1, 193
name/1, 190
name/2, 136, 137
name_of/2, 311
nb_current/2, 205
nb_delete/1, 205
nb_getval/2, 205
nb_linkarg/3, 135
nb_linkval/2, 205
nb_set library, 336
nb_set_to_list/2, 336
nb_setarg/3, 106, 135
nb_setval/2, 106, 205
nb_getval/2, 205
nb_linkarg/3, 135
nb_linkval/2, 135, 205
nb_setarg/3, 73, 135, 336, 345
nb_setval/2, 135, 204, 205, 363
neighbours/3, 354
number
   rational, 146
number/1, 89
number_chars/2, 136
number_codes/2, 137
number_to_chars/2, 312
number_to_chars/3, 312
number_chars/2, 17, 74, 137
number_codes/2, 17, 74, 136, 137
numbervars/3, 129, 133, 134
numbervars/4, 129, 133, 134
INDEX 417

numvars/[3, 4], 52
numlist/3, 335

objective/2, 348
occurs_check, 91
on_signal/3, 102
on_signal/3, 16, 102
once/1, 95, 96, 122, 174, 176, 178, 229, 271
online_help library, 381
op/3, 108, 128, 143, 193
open/3, 38, 113–115
open/4, 14, 52, 54, 74, 114–119, 127, 344
open_chars_stream/2, 313
open_dde_conversation/3, 184
open_null_stream/1, 115
open_resource/3, 302
open_shared_object/2, 239
open_shared_object/3, 239
open_null_stream/1, 118
open_resource/3, 16, 298, 301, 302
open_shared_object/2, 40, 237, 239
operand, 373
operator, 372

and modules, 142
option library, 345, 396
option/2, 338
option/3, 338
ord_add_element/3, 339
ord_del_element/3, 339
ord_disjoint/2, 339
ord_empty/1, 339
ord_intersect/2, 339
ord_intersection/3, 339
ord_list_to_assoc/2, 309
ord_memberchk/2, 339
ord_subset/2, 339
ord_subtract/3, 339
ord_union/3, 339
ord_union/4, 339
ord_intersect/2, 339
ordsets library, 338, 339, 396
oset library, 339

pairs library, 397
pairs_keys/2, 340
pairs_keys_values/3, 340

pairing values/2, 340
parse_time/2, 168
parse_time/3, 168
parse_url/2, 356
parse_url/3, 357
parse_url_search/2, 357
parse_time/3, 168
partition/4, 308
partition/5, 308
pce_call/1, 235
pce_dispatch/1, 235
pce_xref library, 69
pce_call/1, 235
pce_dispatch/1, 235
peek_byte/1, 126
peek_byte/2, 126
peek_char/1, 126
peek_char/2, 126
peek_code/1, 126
peek_code/2, 126
peek_byte/[1, 2], 74
peek_char/[1, 2], 74
peek_code/[1, 2], 74
permission_error/3, 265
permutation/2, 334
phrase/2, 104
phrase/3, 104
phrase_from_file/2, 341
phrase_from_file/3, 341
pi/0, 152
pio library, 340, 397
PL_abort_hook(), 282
PL_abort_unhook(), 282
PL_action(), 278
PL_agc_hook(), 283
PL_atom_chars(), 246
PL_atom_nchars(), 251
PL_atom_wchars(), 252
PL_blob_data(), 267
PL_BLOB_NOCOPY, 266
PL_BLOB_TEXT, 265
PL_BLOB_UNIQUE, 266
PL_call(), 271
PL_call_predicate(), 270
PL_chars_to_term(), 262
PL_cleanup(), 288
PL_cleanup_fork(), 289
PL_close_foreign_frame(), 271
PL_close_query(), 270
PL_compare(), 276
PL_cons_functor(), 256
PL_cons_functor_v(), 256
PL_cons_list(), 256
PL_context(), 271
PL_copy_term_ref(), 242
PL_create_engine(), 234
PL_cut_query(), 270
PL_CYCLIC_TERM, 253
PL_destroy_engine(), 234
PL_discard_foreign_frame(), 271
PL_dispatch_hook(), 282
PL_domain_error(), 265
PL_erase(), 276
PL_erase_external(), 277
PL_exception(), 274
PL_existence_error(), 265
PL_fail(), 243
PL_foreign_context(), 245
PL_foreign_context_address(), 245
PL_foreign_control(), 244
PL_free(), 296
PL_functor arity(), 246
PL_functor_name(), 246
PL_get_arg(), 250
PL_get_atom(), 248
PL_get_atom_chars(), 248
PL_get_atom_ex(), 263
PL_get_atom_nchars(), 251
PL_get_blob(), 267
PL_get_bool(), 250
PL_get_bool_ex(), 264
PL_get_char_ex(), 264
PL_get_chars(), 249
PL_get_file_name(), 278
PL_get_file_nameW(), 278
PL_get_float(), 250
PL_get_float_ex(), 264
PL_get_functor(), 250
PL_get_head(), 253
PL_get_int64(), 250
PL_get_int64_ex(), 264
PL_get_integer(), 249
PL_get_integer_ex(), 263
PL_get_intptr(), 250
PL_get_intptr_ex(), 264
PL_get_list(), 253
PL_get_list_chars(), 249
PL_get_list_ex(), 264
PL_get_list_nchars(), 251
PL_get_long(), 249
PL_get_long_ex(), 263
PL_get_module(), 250
PL_get_mpq(), 268
PL_getmpz(), 268
PL_get_name_arity(), 250
PL_get_nchars(), 251
PL_get_nil(), 253
PL_get_nil_ex(), 264
PL_get_pointer(), 250
PL_get_pointer_ex(), 264
PL_get_signum_ex(), 276
PL_get_size_ex(), 264
PL_get_string_chars(), 248
PL_get_tail(), 253
PL_get_wchars(), 252
PL_halt(), 289
PL_handle_signals(), 275
PL_initialise(), 287
PL_install_readline(), 288
PL_instantiation_error(), 264
PL_is_acyclic(), 248
PL_is_atom(), 247
PL_is_atomic(), 248
PL_is_blob(), 267
PL_is_compound(), 248
PL_is_float(), 248
PL_is_functor(), 248
PL_is_ground(), 247
PL_is_initialised(), 288
PL_is_integer(), 248
PL_is_list(), 248
PL_is_number(), 248
PL_is_pair(), 248
PL_is_string(), 247
PL_is_variable(), 247
PL_license(), 378
PL_LIST, 253
PL malloc(), 296
PL_unify_term(), 260
PL_unify_thread_id(), 233
PL_unify_wchars(), 252
PL_unify_wchars_diff(), 252
PL_unregister_atom(), 246
PL_unregister_blob_type(), 266
PL_warning(), 278
plus/3, 145
PLVERSION, 296
popcount/1, 152
portable
  prolog code, 366
portray/1, 32, 61, 128–130, 270, 284, 364
portray_clause/1, 88
portray_clause/2, 88
portray_text_library, 130
portray_clause/1, 88
portray_clause/2, 88, 134
powm/3, 151
precedence, 373
pred/1, 193
predicate, 373
  dynamic, 371
  exported, 371
  imported, 372
predicate_indicator, 73, 373
predicate_property/2, 76, 110
predicate_property/2, 109, 110, 198
predsort/3, 155
prefix/2, 333
preprocessor/2, 83
print/1, 129, 130, 157, 159, 270, 388
print/2, 130
print_message/2, 99, 386
print_message_lines/3, 100
print_message/2, 16, 43, 45, 76, 81, 99–101, 131,
  183, 222, 223, 332
print_message_lines/3, 16, 100, 101
priority, 373
profile file, 22
profile/1, 180, 232, 289
profile/3, 180
profiler/2, 180
profiling
  foreign code, 296
program, 373
prolog/0, 25, 120, 174, 175, 192, 288, 361
prolog:called_by/2, 343
prolog:comment_hook/3, 365
prolog:debug_control_hook/1, 364
prolog:help_hook/1, 364
prolog_choice_attribute/3, 360
prolog_current_frame/1, 359
prolog_edit:edit_command/2, 87
prolog_edit:edit_source/1, 87
prolog_edit:load/0, 88
prolog_edit:locate/2, 87
prolog_edit:locate/3, 87
prolog_exception_hook/4, 362
prolog_file_type/2, 79
prolog_frame_attribute/3, 359
prolog_id_class, 71
prolog_id/1, 71
prolog_list_goal/1, 364
prolog_load_context/2, 80
prolog_load_file/2, 365
prolog_server_library, 120
prolog_skip_frame/1, 362
prolog_skip_level/2, 362
prolog_stack_library, 360, 362
prolog_stack_property/2, 183
prolog_to_os_filename/2, 173
prolog_trace_interception/4, 361
prolog_xref_library, 69, 188, 342
prolog_choice_attribute/3, 361
prolog_current_frame/1, 359
prolog_exception_hook/4, 99, 183, 362, 363
prolog_file_type/2, 75, 79, 171
prolog_frame_attribute/3, 113, 361, 362
prolog_id/1, 71
prolog_load_context/2, 81, 366
prolog_load_file/2, 77, 365
prolog_skip_frame/1, 362
prolog_skip_level/2, 362
prolog_stack_property/2, 183
prolog_to_os_filename/2, 173
prolog_trace_interception/4, 68, 176, 183, 359,
  360
prologxref_library, 396
prompt
  alternatives, 41
prompt/2, 132
prompt1/1, 132
property, 373
INDEX

protocol/1, 175
protocola/1, 175
protocolling/1, 175
prove, 373
public list, 373
public/1, 108, 112
pure_input library, 397
put/1, 125
put/2, 125
put_assoc/4, 309
put_attr/3, 201
put_attrs/2, 202
put_byte/1, 125
put_byte/2, 125
put_char/1, 125
put_char/2, 125
put_code/1, 125
put_code/2, 125
put_attr/3, 201, 202
put_byte/1
  2], 74
put_char/1, 125
put_char/1
  2], 74
put_code/1, 125
put_code/2, 52, 127
put_code/[1
  2], 74
qcompile/1, 75–77, 82, 86, 219
qcompile/2, 86
qsave_program/1, 298
qsave_program/2, 298, 299
qsave_program/1, 81
qsave_program/2, 15, 35, 38, 61, 71, 298, 301
qsave_program/[1
  2], 15, 16, 26, 35, 41, 112, 237, 287, 292, 299, 300
query, 371
quiet, 24, 100
quintus library, 17
random library, 153
random/1, 149, 153
rational
  number, 146
rational/1, 89, 146, 147, 149, 150
rational/3, 89, 146
rationalize/1, 146, 147, 149, 150, 348
rb_new/1, 42
rbtrees library, 42
RDF
  memory usage, 57
rdiv/2, 146, 148
reachable/3, 355
read/1, 36, 37, 54, 114, 115, 125, 130–132, 142, 178, 205, 344, 389
read/2, 124, 130
read_clause/1, 130
read_clause/2, 130
read_file_to_codes/3, 344
read_file_to_terms/3, 344
read_from_chars/2, 136, 312
read_history/6, 132
read_line_to_codes/2, 343
read_line_to_codes/3, 343
read_link/3, 173
read_pending_input/3, 127
read_stream_to_codes/2, 344
read_stream_to_codes/3, 344
read_term/2, 131
read_term/3, 132
read_term_from_chars/3, 312
read_clause/1, 130, 178
read_history/6, 132
read_line_to_codes/2, 343
read_line_to_codes/3, 343
read_stream_to_codes/2, 344
read_term/2, 36, 130–132, 137
read_term/3, 129, 131, 144, 175, 365
read_term/[2
  3], 131
readutil library, 62, 343, 397
record library, 344, 397
record/1, 344, 345
recorda/2, 106
recorda/3, 52, 105, 106, 110, 204, 276, 277
recorded/2, 106
recorded/3, 106, 300
recordz/2, 106
recordz/3, 52, 106
redefine_system_predicate/1, 105
redefine_system_predicate/1, 14, 370
reexport/1, 77, 193, 366
reexport/2, 76, 77, 193, 366
registry, 54
registry library, 346, 397
registry_delete_key/1, 346
registry_get_key/2, 346
registry_get_key/3, 346
registry_set_key/2, 346
registry_set_key/3, 346
release(), 266
reload_foreign_libraries/0, 239
reload_library_index/0, 47
reload_library_index/0, 46, 47
rem/2, 148
rename_file/2, 171
repeat/0, 93, 96
representation_error/1, 264
require/1, 78, 299, 366
reset_gensym/0, 333
reset_gensym/1, 333
reset_profiler/0, 180
reset_profiler/0, 180
resource/3, 16, 41, 298, 299, 301–303
retract/2, 199
retract. 373
retract/1, 75, 79, 104, 105, 107, 108, 111, 228
retractall/1, 104, 105
rev/3, 188
reverse/2, 188, 334
rl_add_history/1, 365
rl_read_history/1, 365
rl_read_init_file/1, 365
rl_write_history/1, 365
rlimit library, 18
round/1, 149
same_file/2, 170
same_term/2, 135
scalar_product/4, 320
see/1, 16, 113, 114, 120, 121
seeing/1, 120–122, 174
seek/4, 117–119
seen/0, 122
select/3, 18, 334
select/4, 334
select_option/3, 338
select_option/4, 338
selectchk/3, 334
selectchk/4, 334
serialized/2, 323
set_base_module/1, 194
set_end_of_stream/1, 127
set_input/1, 122
set_output/1, 122
set_prolog_flag/2, 44
set_prolog_IO/3, 120
set_prolog_stack/2, 183
set_random/1, 153
set_stream/2, 119
set_stream_position/2, 118
set_tty/2, 161
set_url_encoding/2, 357
set_input/1, 119, 121
set_output/1, 121
set_prolog_flag/2, 17, 28, 36, 43–45, 145
set_prolog_stack/2, 177, 183
set_random/1, 149, 153
set_stream/2, 52, 53, 114, 117, 118, 120, 124, 126
set_stream_position/2, 117–119
setarg/3, 73, 134, 135, 201, 205, 345
setenv/2, 163
setlocale/3, 141, 163
setof/3, 52, 156, 380
setup_call_catcher_cleanup/4, 97
setup_call_cleanup/3, 96
setup_call_cleanup/3, 96, 97, 223, 229, 230
shadow_price/3, 348
shared, 373
shell/0, 162, 164
shell/1, 60, 87, 162, 163
shell/2, 161
shell/[0-2], 163
shell/[1, 2], 162
shell_register_dde/6, 346
shell_register_file_type/4, 346
shell_register_prolog/1, 346
shell_register_file_type/4, 346
shlib library, 383, 386, 392
show_profile/1, 180
show_profile/2, 180
show_profile/1, 180
sign/1, 148
silent, 100
simplex library, 347
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index Item</th>
<th>Page Numbers</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sin/1</td>
<td>151</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>singleton</td>
<td>374</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>variable, 51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size_file/2</td>
<td>171</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size_nb_set/2</td>
<td>336</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skip/1</td>
<td>126</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skip/2</td>
<td>126</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sleep/1</td>
<td>187</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>socket library</td>
<td>124</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solaris</td>
<td>223</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>solution</td>
<td>374</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sort/2</td>
<td>154–156, 338, 339</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>source_exports/2</td>
<td>367</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>source_file/1</td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>source_file/2</td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>source_location/2</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>source_exports/2</td>
<td>366</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>source_file/1</td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>source_file/2</td>
<td>86, 111</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>source_location/2</td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spy/1</td>
<td>29, 30, 38, 39, 46, 68, 72, 73, 177, 192, 231, 364, 383</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sqrt/1</td>
<td>151</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stack</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>memory management, 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stamp_date_time/3</td>
<td>165</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stamp_date_time/3</td>
<td>165</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>startup file</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>statistics library</td>
<td>178</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>statistics/0</td>
<td>178</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>statistics/2</td>
<td>152, 178, 179, 224</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stream_pair/3</td>
<td>118</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stream_position_data/3</td>
<td>118</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stream_property/2</td>
<td>116</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stream_to_lazy_list/2</td>
<td>341</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stream_pair/3</td>
<td>114</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stream_position_data/3</td>
<td>80, 117, 131, 365</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stream_property/2</td>
<td>54, 114, 118–120, 132</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>string/1</td>
<td>89, 159</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>string_concat/3</td>
<td>142</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>string_length/2</td>
<td>142</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>string_to_atom/2</td>
<td>142</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>string_to_list/2</td>
<td>142</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strip_module/3</td>
<td>197</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strip_module/3</td>
<td>192, 196, 198</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>structure</td>
<td>374</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>style_check/1</td>
<td>177</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>style_check/1</td>
<td>51, 54, 56, 108</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub_atom/5</td>
<td>138</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub_string/5</td>
<td>142</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub Atom/5</td>
<td>142</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subset/2</td>
<td>335</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subsumes chk/2</td>
<td>92</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subsumes_term/2</td>
<td>92</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subsumes chk/2</td>
<td>107</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subsumes_term/2</td>
<td>91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subtract/3</td>
<td>336</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>succ/2</td>
<td>145</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>succeed</td>
<td>374</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sum/3</td>
<td>320</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sumlist/2</td>
<td>335</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sup/2</td>
<td>328</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swi/pce_profile library</td>
<td>178</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swi edit library</td>
<td>88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swi help library</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swritef/2</td>
<td>157</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swritef/3</td>
<td>122, 157</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TAB</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>completion</td>
<td>62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tab/1</td>
<td>125</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tab/2</td>
<td>125</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tan/1</td>
<td>151</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tdebug/0</td>
<td>231</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tdebug/1</td>
<td>231</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tell/1</td>
<td>16, 113, 114, 120, 121</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>telling/1</td>
<td>120–122, 174</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term/1</td>
<td>122</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term/attvars/2</td>
<td>202</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term expansion/2</td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_hash/2</td>
<td>107</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_hash/4</td>
<td>107</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_subsumer/3</td>
<td>92</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_to_atom/2</td>
<td>137</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term variables/2</td>
<td>134</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_variables/3</td>
<td>134</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_attvars/2</td>
<td>202</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term expansion/2</td>
<td>45, 75, 82–84, 86, 175, 213, 368</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_hash/2</td>
<td>52, 107, 109</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_hash/4</td>
<td>107</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_to_atom/2</td>
<td>122, 262</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term_variables/2</td>
<td>52, 132, 134</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
term_variables/3, 134
terms
  cyclic, 52
thread library, 37
thread_at_exit/1, 223
thread_create/3, 221
thread_create_in_pool/4, 352
thread_detach/1, 223
thread_exit/1, 223
thread_get_message/1, 225
thread_get_message/2, 226
thread_initialization/1, 223
thread_join/2, 222
thread_local/1, 228
thread_peek_message/1, 226
thread_peek_message/2, 226
thread_pool library, 400
thread_pool_create/3, 351
thread_pool_destroy/1, 351
thread_pool_property/2, 351
thread_property/2, 224
thread_self/1, 222
thread_send_message/2, 225
thread_setconcurrency/2, 223
thread_signal/2, 227
thread_statistics/3, 224
thread_at_exit/1, 222, 233
thread_create/3, 223, 235
thread_detach/1, 222
thread_exit/1, 223, 224
thread_get_message/1, 226
thread_get_message/2, 226
thread_initialization/1, 204
thread_join/2, 221–224
thread_local/1, 108, 112, 228
thread_peek_message/1, 226
thread_property/2, 222–224
thread_self/1, 42, 223, 225
thread_send_message/2, 226
thread_setconcurrency/2, 37
thread_signal/2, 96, 227, 230, 231, 275, 289
threads/0, 230
throw/1, 16, 29, 52, 98, 101, 103, 223, 224, 227, 228, 274, 362, 363
time/1, 152, 178, 180
time_file/2, 171
tmp_file/2, 173
tmp_file/stream/3, 173
tmp_file/2, 173
tmp_file/stream/3, 173
tnodebug/0, 231
tnodebug/1, 231
told/0, 122
top_sort/2, 355
top_sort/3, 355
tprofile/1, 232
trace/0, 29, 39, 68, 72, 176, 215, 228, 279, 363
trace/1, 38, 176
trace/2, 176
tracing/0, 176
transformation
  of program, 82
transitive_closure/2, 355
transparent, 372
transportation/4, 348
transpose/2, 325, 354
transpose_pairs/2, 340
trim_stacks/0, 182
trim_stacks/0, 182, 183
true/0, 41, 83, 93, 96
truncate/1, 150
tsprof/1, 231
tsprof/2, 231
tty_get_capability/3, 161
tty_goto/2, 161
tty_put/2, 161
tty_size/2, 161
tty_get_capability/3, 161
tty_goto/2, 161
tty_put/2, 161
tty_size/2, 161
ttyflush/0, 125, 157
tuples_in/2, 322
type_error/2, 101, 265
UCS, 52
ugraph library, 352
ugraph_union/3, 355
ugraphs library, 352, 398
ugraphs.pl library, 352
Unicode, 52
unifiable/3, 91, 92
unify, 374
unify_with_occurs_check/2, 91
unify_with_occurs_check/2, 40, 91
union/3, 335
Unix, 12
unix, 43
unix/1, 17, 163
unknown/2, 177, 305
unlisten/1, 311
unlisten/2, 311
unlisten/3, 312
unload_file/1, 80
unload_foreign_library/1, 239
unload_foreign_library/2, 239
unload_file/1, 77
unsetenv/1, 163
upcase_atom/2, 141
upcase_atom/2, 140
update view, 106, 374
URL, 162
url library, 337, 398
urliri/2, 357
use_foreign_library/1, 238
use_foreign_library/2, 238
use_module/1, 189
use_module/2, 189
use_foreign_library/1, 81
use_module/1, 45, 60, 76, 189, 190, 195, 366
use_module/2, 46, 76, 189, 190, 193, 366
use_module/[1
  2), 32, 68, 75, 76, 78, 195, 371
use_modules/1, 193
user library, 389
user profile file, 22
UTF-8, 52
utf-8, 74
valgrind, 296
var/1, 14, 88, 201, 246
variable, 374
  anonymous, 370
variable_value/3, 348
variant, 91
variant_sha1/2, 107
variant_sha1/2, 378
verbose, 24
vertices/2, 353
vertices_edges_to_ugraph/3, 352
view
update, 374
visible/1, 177, 361
void(), 274
volatile/1, 112, 228, 300
wait_for_input/3, 123
wait_for_input/3, 119, 123, 124
when library, 203
when/2, 52, 93, 203
wildcard_match/2, 186
win_exec/2, 162
win_folder/2, 163
win_has_menu/0, 169
win_insert_menu/2, 169
win_insert_menu_item/4, 170
win_registry_get_value/3, 162
win_shell/2, 162
win_window_pos/1, 169
win_exec/2, 162
win_folder/2, 22, 24
win_insert_menu/2, 169, 170
win_insert_menu_item/4, 169
win_shell/2, 162, 337
Window interface, 12
window_title/2, 169
Windows, 12
windows, 44
with_mutex/2, 229
with_output_to/2, 122
with_output_to_chars/2, 313
with_output_to_chars/3, 313
with_output_to_chars/4, 313
with_mutex/2, 230, 232
with_output_to/2, 114, 122, 123, 128, 137, 141, 160, 166
working_directory/2, 174
working_directory/2, 164, 171, 174
write(), 266
write/1, 44, 52, 130, 138, 157, 159, 249, 253, 266
write/2, 130
write_canonical/1, 129
write_canonical/2, 130
write_term/2, 128
write_term/3, 129
write_to_chars/2, 312
write_to_chars/3, 312
write_canonical/1, 129, 159
write_canonical/2, 134, 249
write_canonical/[1
2], 16
write_term/2, 30, 38, 42, 91, 128, 129, 134, 137,
142, 157, 159, 202
write_term/3, 44, 45, 129, 133
write_term/[2
3], 16
writef/1, 156
writef/2, 20, 50, 128, 156, 157
writef/[1
2], 156
writeln/1, 156
writeq/1, 130, 157, 159
writeq/2, 130
www_browser library, 337, 398
www_form_encode/2, 357
www_open_url/1, 337
www_open_url/1, 337
X-Windows, 12
X11, 12
xor/2, 150
XPCE, 12
xref_built_in/1, 343
xref_called/3, 342
xref_clean/1, 342
xref_current_source/1, 342
xref_defined/3, 342
xref_exported/2, 342
xref_module/2, 343
xref_source/1, 342

YAP
  prolog, 366

zcompare/3, 326