The XSB System
Version 2.5
Volume 2: Libraries, Interfaces and Packages

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Credits

Interfaces have become an increasingly important part of XSB. The interface from C to Prolog was implemented by David Warren as was the DLL interface; the interface from Prolog to C (foreign language interface) was developed by Jiyang Xu, Kostis Sagonas and Steve Dawson. The Oracle interface was written by Hassan Davulcu and Ernie Johnson. The ODBC took as its starting point the Oracle interface, and was written by Lily Dong and Baoqiu Cui, and maintained by David Warren. The interface to POSIX regular expression and wildcard matching as well as the Libwww-based Web access package was written by Michael Kifer. The interface to Perl pattern matching routines was written by Michael Kifer and Jin Yu. The SModels interface was written by Luis F. Castro.

The SLX preprocessor was written by José Júlio Alferes and Luís Moniz Pereira. Unix-style scripting libraries were written by Terrance Swift, and the ordset library was written by Richard O’Keefe.
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Chapter 1

Library Utilities

In this chapter we introduce libraries of some useful predicates that are supplied with XSB. Interfaces and more elaborate packages are documented in later chapters. These predicates are available only when imported them from (or explicitly consult) the corresponding modules.

1.1 List Processing

The XSB library contains various list utilities, some of which are listed below. These predicates should be explicitly imported from the module specified after the skeletal specification of each predicate. There are a lot more useful list processing predicates in various modules of the XSB system, and the interested user can find them by looking at the sources.

append(?List1, ?List2, ?List3) basics
Succeeds if list ?List3 is the concatenation of lists ?List1 and ?List2.

member(?Element, ?List) basics
Checks whether ?Element unifies with any element of list ?List, succeeding more than once if there are multiple such elements.

memberchk(?Element, ?List) basics
Similar to member/2, except that memberchk/2 is deterministic, i.e. does not succeed more than once for any call.

ith(?Index, ?List, ?Element) basics
Succeeds if the Index\textsuperscript{th} element of the list ?List unifies with ?Element. Fails if Index is not a positive integer or greater than the length of ?List. Either Index and ?List, or ?List and ?Element, should be instantiated (but not necessarily ground) at the time of the call.

log_ith(?Index, ?Tree, ?Element) basics
Succeeds if the Index\textsuperscript{th} element of the Tree ?Tree unifies with ?Element. Fails if Index is not a positive integer or greater than the number of elements that can be in ?Tree. Either Index and ?Tree, or ?Tree and ?Element, should be instantiated (but not necessarily ground) at the
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time of the call. Tree is a list of full binary trees, the first being of depth 0, and each one
being of depth one greater than its predecessor. So \texttt{log	extunderscore ith/3} is very similar to \texttt{ith/3} except
it uses a tree instead of a list to obtain log-time access to its elements.

\texttt{log	extunderscore ith	extunderscore bound(?Index, ?Tree, ?Element)} basics
is like \texttt{log	extunderscore ith/3}, but only if the \texttt{Index\textasciitilde} element of \texttt{Tree} is nonvariable and equal to \texttt{Element}.
This predicate can be used in both directions, and is most useful with \texttt{Index} unbound, since it
will then bind \texttt{Index} and \texttt{Element} for each non-variable element in \texttt{Tree} (in time proportional
to \(N \cdot \log N\), for \(N\) the number of non-variable entries in \texttt{Tree}.)

\texttt{length(?List, ?Length)} basics
Succeeds if the length of the list \texttt{List} is \texttt{Length}. This predicate is deterministic if \texttt{List} is
instantiated to a list of definite length, but is nondeterministic if \texttt{List} is a variable or has a
variable tail. If \texttt{List} is uninstantiated, it is unified with a list of length \texttt{Length} that contains
variables.

\texttt{same	extunderscore length(?List1, ?List2)} basics
Succeeds if list \texttt{List1} and \texttt{List2} are both lists of the same number of elements. No relation
between the types or values of their elements is implied. This predicate may be used to
generate either list (containing variables as elements) given the other, or to generate two lists
of the same length, in which case the arguments will be bound to lists of length 0, 1, 2, ...

\texttt{select(?Element, ?L1, ?L2)} basics
\texttt{List2} derives from \texttt{List1} by selecting (removing) an \texttt{Element} non-deterministically.

\texttt{reverse(+List, ?ReversedList)} basics
Succeeds if \texttt{ReversedList} is the reverse of list \texttt{List}. If \texttt{List} is not a proper list, \texttt{reverse/2}
can succeed arbitrarily many times. It works only one way.

\texttt{perm(+List, ?Perm)} basics
Succeeds when \texttt{List} and \texttt{Perm} are permutations of each other. The main use of \texttt{perm/2} is
to generate permutations of a given list. \texttt{List} must be a proper list. \texttt{Perm} may be partly
instantiated.

\texttt{subseq(?Sequence, ?SubSequence, ?Complement)} basics
Succeeds when \texttt{SubSequence} and \texttt{Complement} are both subsequences of the list \texttt{Sequence}
(the order of corresponding elements being preserved) and every element of \texttt{Sequence} which
is not in \texttt{SubSequence} is in the \texttt{Complement} and vice versa. That is,

\[
\text{length}(\text{Sequence}) = \text{length}(\text{SubSequence}) + \text{length}(\text{Complement})
\]

for example, \texttt{subseq([1,2,3,4], [1,3], [2,4])}. The main use of \texttt{subseq/3} is to generate
subsets and their complements together, but can also be used to interleave two lists in all
possible ways.

\texttt{merge(+List1, +List2, ?List3)} listutil
Succeeds if \texttt{List3} is the list resulting from “merging” lists \texttt{List1} and \texttt{List2}, i.e. the elements
of \texttt{List1} together with any element of \texttt{List2} not occurring in \texttt{List1}. If \texttt{List1} or \texttt{List2} contain
duplicates, \texttt{List3} may also contain duplicates.
absmerge(+List1, +List2, ?List3)
    listutil
   Predicate absmerge/3 is similar to merge/3, except that it uses predicate absmember/2 described below rather than member/2.

absmember(+Element, +List)
    listutil
   Similar to member/2, except that it checks for identity (through the use of predicate ‘==’/2) rather than unifiability (through ‘=/2) of Element with elements of List.

member2(?Element, ?List)
    listutil
   Checks whether Element unifies with any of the actual elements of List. The only difference between this predicate and predicate member/2 is on lists having a variable tail, e.g. [a, b, c | _ ]: while member/2 would insert Element at the end of such a list if it did not find it. Predicate member2/2 only checks for membership but does not insert the Element into the list if it is not there.

delete_i(th(+Index, +List, ?Element, ?RestList)
    listutil
   Succeeds if the Index^th element of the list List unifies with Element, and RestList is List with Element removed. Fails if Index is not a positive integer or greater than the length of List.

closetail(?List)
    listutil
   Predicate closetail/1 closes the tail of an open-ended list. It succeeds only once.

1.2 Attributed Variables

Attributed variables are a special data type that associates variables with arbitrary attributes as well as supports extensible unification. Attributed variables have proven to be a flexible and powerful mechanism to extend a classic logic programming system with the ability of constraint solving. They have been implemented in SICStus \(^1\) [13] and ECL/PS\(^2\) [5].

Attributes of variables are compound terms whose arguments are the actual attribute values. They are defined with a declaration

\[ :- \text{attribute AttributeSpec}, \ldots, \text{AttributeSpec}. \]

where each Attributes has the form Functor/Arity. Each file can have at most one such declaration.

Having declared some attribute names, these attributes can be added, updated and deleted from unbound variables using the following two predicates (get_atts/2 and put_atts/2) defined in the module atts. For each declared attribute name, any variable can have at most one such attribute (initially it has none).

get_atts(-Var, ?AccessSpec)
    atts
   Gets the attributes of Var according to AccessSpec. If AccessSpec is unbound, it will be bound to a list of all set attributes of Var. Non-variable terms in Var cause a type error. AccessSpec is either +(Attribute), -(Attribute), or a list of such (prefix + may be dropped for convenience). The prefixes in the AccessSpec have the following meaning:

\(^1\)In XSB, we try to keep the implementation of attributed variables to be compatible with SICStus.
+(Attribute): The corresponding actual attribute must be present and is unified with Attribute.

-(Attribute): The corresponding actual attribute must be absent. The arguments of Attribute are ignored, only the name and arity are relevant.

\[\text{put_atts}(-\text{Var}, +\text{AccessSpec})\]

Sets the attributes of \text{Var} according to \text{AccessSpec}. Non-variable terms in \text{Var} cause a type error. The effect of \text{put_atts}/2 are undone on backtracking. The prefixes of \text{AccessSpec} have the following meaning:

+(Attribute): The corresponding actual attribute is set to Attribute. If the actual attribute was already present, it is simply replaced.

-(Attribute): The corresponding actual attribute is removed. If the actual attribute is already absent, nothing happens.

In a file that contains an attribute declaration, one has an opportunity to extend the default unification algorithm by defining the following predicate:

\[\text{verify_attributes}(-\text{Var}, +\text{Value})\]

This predicate is called whenever an attributed variable \text{Var} (which has at least one attribute) is about to be bound to \text{Value} (a non-variable term or another attributed variable). When \text{Var} is to be bound to \text{Value}, a special interrupt called \text{attributed variable interrupt} is triggered, and then XSB’s interrupt handler (written in Prolog) calls \text{verify_attributes}/2. If it fails, the unification is deemed to have failed. It may succeed non-deterministically, in which case the unification might backtrack to give another answer.

If \text{Value} is a non-variable term, \text{verify_attributes}/2 usually inspects the attributes of \text{Var} and check whether they are compatible with \text{Value} and fail otherwise. If \text{Value} is another attributed variable, \text{verify_attributes}/2 will typically merge the attributes of \text{Var} and \text{Value}, bind \text{Var} to \text{Value}, and then update their attributes. In either case, \text{verify_attributes}/2 may determine the attributes of \text{Var} (or \text{Value}) by calling \text{get_atts}/2.

The predicate \text{verify_attributes}/2 is also called \text{user-defined unification handler}. To help users define this handler, the following predicate is provided in module \text{machine}, which can be used to bind an attributed variable to an arbitrary term (might be another attributed variable) without triggering attributed variable interrupt and thus another level call of \text{verify_attributes}/2:

\[\text{attv_unify}(-\text{Var}, +\text{Value})\]

This is an internal built-in predicate which is supposed to be used only in the definition of \text{verify_attributes}/2. It binds the attributed variable \text{Var} to \text{Value} without triggering attributed variable interrupt. \text{Value} is a non-variable term or another attributed variable.

Here, by giving the implementation of a simple finite domain constraint solver (see the file \text{fd.P} below), we show how these predicates for attributed variables can be used. In this example, only one attribute is declared: \text{dom}/1, and the value of this attribute is a list of terms.
A simple finite domain constraint solver implemented using attributed variables.

:- import put_atts/2, get_atts/2 from atts.
:- import attv_unify/2 from machine.
:- import member/2 from basics.

:- attribute dom/1.

verify_attributes(Var, Value) :-
  get_atts(Var, dom(Da)),
  (var(Value) % Value is an attributed variable
  -> get_atts(Value, dom(Db)), % has a domain
    intersection(Da, Db, [E|Es]), % intersection not empty
    (Es = [] % exactly one element
    -> attv_unify(Var, Value), % bind Var to Value
      attv_unify(Var, E) % bind Var (and Value) to E
    ; attv_unify(Var, Value), % bind Var to Value
      put_atts(Value, dom([E|Es])) % update Var’s (and Value’s) % attributes
    )
  ; member(Value, Da), % is Value a member of Da?
    attv_unify(Var, Value) % bind Var to Value
  )
).

intersection([], _, []).
intersection([H|T], L2, [H|L3]) :-
  member(H, L2), !,
  intersection(T, L2, L3).
intersection([], L2, L3) :-
  intersection(T, L2, L3).

domain(X, Dom) :-
  var(Dom), !,
  get_atts(X, dom(Dom)).

domain(X, List) :-
  List = [E1|Els], % at least one element
  (Els = [] % exactly one element
  -> X = E1 % implied binding
  ; put_atts(Fresh, dom(List)), % create a new attributed variable
    X = Fresh % may call verify_attributes/2
  ).

show_domain(X) :-
  var(X), % print out the domain of X % X must be a variable
  get_atts(X, dom(D)),
  write('Domain of '), write(X),
  write(' is '), writeln(D).
The output of some example queries are listed below, from which we can see how attributed variables are unified using `verify_attributes/2`:

```
?-'fd'.
[fd loaded]

yes
?-'domain(X,[5,6,7,1]), domain(Y,[3,4,5,6]), domain(Z,[1,6,7,8]),
    show_domain(X), show_domain(Y), show_domain(Z).
Domain of _h474 is [5,6,7,1]
Domain of _h503 is [3,4,5,6]
Domain of _h532 is [1,6,7,8]

X = _h474
Y = _h503
Z = _h532

yes
?-'domain(X,[5,6,7,1]), domain(Y,[3,4,5,6]), domain(Z,[1,6,7,8]),
    X = Y, show_domain(X), show_domain(Y), show_domain(Z).
Domain of _h640 is [5,6]
Domain of _h640 is [5,6]
Domain of _h569 is [1,6,7,8]

X = _h640
Y = _h640
Z = _h569

yes
?-'domain(X,[5,6,7,1]), domain(Y,[3,4,5,6]), domain(Z,[1,6,7,8]),
    X = Y, Y = Z.
X = 6
Y = 6
Z = 6

yes
?-
```

### 1.3 Asserting Dynamic Code

The module `consult` in directory `lib` provides several handy library predicates that can assert the contents of a file into XSB’s database. The use of these predicates may be necessary when the code needs to be dynamic (so that it is retractable), or when it contains atoms whose length is more than 255 that cannot be handled by the XSB compiler.

`load_dyn(+FileName)`  
`consult`  

Asserts the contents of file `FileName` into the database. All existing clauses of the predicates
in the file that already appear in the database, are retracted, unless there is a multifile/1
declaration for them. Clauses in the file must be in a format that read/1 will process. So, for
example, operators are permitted. As usual, clauses of predicates are not retracted if they are
compiled instead of dynamically asserted. All predicates are loaded into usermod. Module
declarations such as :- export are ignored and a warning is issued.

Dynamically loaded files can be filtered through the XSB preprocessor. To do this, put the
following in the source file:

    :- compiler_options([xpp_on]).

Of course, the name compiler_options might seem like a misnomer here (since the file is
not being compiled), but it is convenient to use the same directive both for compiling and
loading, in case the same source file is used both ways.

ensure_dyn_loaded(+FileName) consult
Is similar to load_dyn/1 except that it does nothing if the file has previously been loaded and
the file has not been changed since. However the file will be reloaded if the index declaration
of any predicate in that file has changed to require more indexing, or a larger hash table.

load_dyn(+FileName) consult
Asserts the contents of file FileName into the database. All existing clauses of the predicates
in the file that already appear in the database, are retracted unless there is a multifile/1
directive for them. The terms in the file FileName must be in “canonical” format; that
is, they must not use any operators (or list notation.) This is the format produced by the
predicate writeCanonical/1. (See cvtCanonical/2 to convert a file from the usual read/1
format to readCanonical format.) As usual, clauses of predicates are not retracted if they
are compiled instead of dynamically asserted. All predicates are loaded into usermod. :-
export declarations are ignored and a warning is issued.

Notice that this predicate can be used to load files of Datalog facts (since they will be in
canonical format). This predicate is significantly faster than load_dyn/1 and should be used
when speed is important. A file that is to be dynamically loaded often but not often modified
by hand should be loaded with this predicate. Use predicate cvt Canonical/2 (see below)
to convert a usual file to a format readable by this predicate.

As with load_dyn/1, the source file can be filtered through the C preprocessor. However,
since all clauses in such a file must be in canonical form, the compiler_options/1 directive
should look as follows:

    :- (compiler_options(.,[xpp_on,[]])).

ensure_dyn_loaded(+FileName) consult
Is similar to load_dyn/1 except that it does nothing if the file has previously been loaded and
the file has not been changed since. However the file will be reloaded if the index declaration
of any predicate in that file has changed to require more indexing, or a larger hash table.
cvt_canonical(+FileName1,+FileName2)

Converts a file from standard term format to “canonical” format. The input file name is FileName1; the converted file is put in FileName2. This predicate can be used to convert a file in standard Prolog format to one loadable by load_dync/1.

## 1.4 Ground, NumVars, Subsumption, Variant

**ground(+X)**

Succeeds if X is currently instantiated to a term that is completely bound (has no uninstantiated variables in it); otherwise it fails. Predicate ground/1 has no associated error conditions.

**numvars(+Term, +FirstN, ?LastN)**

This predicate provides a mechanism for grounding a (HiLog) term so that it may be analyzed. Each variable in the (HiLog) term Term is instantiated to a term of the form '$VAR'(N), where N is an integer starting from FirstN. FirstN is used as the value of N for the first variable in Term (starting from the left). The second distinct variable in Term is given a value of N satisfying "N is FirstN + 1" and so on. The last variable in Term has the value LastN-1.

**numvars(+Term)**

This predicate is defined as:

numvars(Term, 0, _).

It is included solely for convenience.

**unnumvars(+Term, +FirstN, ?Copy)**

This predicate is a partial inverse of predicate numvars/3. It creates a copy of Term in which all subterms of the form '$VAR'(int) where int is not less than FirstN are uniformly replaced by variables. '$VAR' subterms with the same integer are replaced by the same variable. Also a version unnumbervars/2 is provided which calls unnumbervars/3 with the second parameter set to 0.

**subsumes(?Term1, +Term2)**

Term subsumption is a sort of one-way unification. Term Term1 and Term2 unify if they have a common instance, and unification in Prolog instantiates both terms to that (most general) common instance. Term1 subsumes Term2 if Term2 is already an instance of Term1. For our purposes, Term2 is an instance of Term1 if there is a substitution that leaves Term2 unchanged and makes Term1 identical to Term2. Predicate subsumes/2 does not work as described if Term1 and Term2 share common variables.

**subsumes_chk(+Term1, +Term2)**

The subsumes_chk/2 predicate is true when Term1 subsumes Term2; that is, when Term2 is already an instance of Term1. This predicate simply checks for subsumption and does not bind any variables either in Term1 or in Term2. Term1 and Term2 should not share any variables.

Examples:
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?- subsumes_chk(a(X,f,Y,X),a(U,V,b,S)).
no
?- subsumes_chk(a(X,Y,X),a(b,b,b)).
X = _595884
Y = _595624

variant(?Term1, ?Term2)

This predicate is true when Term1 and Term2 are alphabetic variants. That is, you could imagine that \texttt{variant/2} as being defined like:

\[
\text{variant}(\text{Term1}, \text{Term2}) :\text{-} \\
\text{subsumes_chk}(\text{Term1}, \text{Term2}), \\
\text{subsumes_chk}(\text{Term2}, \text{Term1}).
\]

but the actual implementation of \texttt{variant/2} is considerably more efficient. However, in general, it does not work for terms that share variables; an assumption that holds for most (reasonable) uses of \texttt{variant/2}.

1.5 Lower-Level I/O

XSB has various low-level routines that support input and output, at both the term level and the character level. Unlike the standard Prolog stream I/O, the low-level routines use \texttt{XSB I/O ports} to refer to files. XSB I/O ports should not be confused with the file descriptors used by the OS. Both are small integers, but they refer to different things. However, the OS file descriptors are objects returned by the C \texttt{open} function; XSB I/O ports indices into the internal XSB table of open files. The OS does not know about XSB I/O ports, while XSB (obviously) does know about the OS file descriptors. An OS file descriptor (which can be returned by some predicates, such as \texttt{pipe(open/2}, can be promoted to XSB I/O port using the predicate \texttt{fd2ioprt/2}.

Typically XSB opens files for buffered I/O (whether using the standard stream I/O predicates or the predicates described here), so XSB I/O ports internally refer to \texttt{FILE} data structures (those returned by the C \texttt{fopen} function).

XSB I/O ports should not be confused with I/O streams used by the standard Prolog predicates, like \texttt{see/1}, \texttt{tell/1}, etc. The streams are higher-level objects associated with atom constants and which use I/O ports underneath. An I/O port can be promoted to an I/O stream using the predicate \texttt{ioport2iostream/2}, described below.

When it starts, XSB opens a number of standard I/O ports that it uses to print results, errors, debugging info, etc. The descriptors are described in the file \texttt{prolog_includes/standard.h}. This file provides the following symbolic definitions:

\begin{verbatim}
#define STDIN     0
#define STDOUT    1
\end{verbatim}
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#define STDERR 2
#define STDWARN 3 /* output stream for xsb warnings */
#define STDMSG 4 /* output for regular xsb messages */
#define STDDBG 5 /* output for debugging info */
#define STDFDBK 6 /* output for XSB feedback (prompt/yes/no/Aborting/answers) */

#define AF_INET 0 /* XSB-side socket request for Internet domain */
#define AF_UNIX 1 /* XSB-side socket request for UNIX domain */

In addition, the file emu/file_modes_xsb.h provides the definitions for the file opening modes:

#define OREAD 0 /* open for read */
#define OWRITE 1 /* open for write */
#define OAPPEND 2 /* open for append */
#define OSTRINGR 3 /* open string for reading */
#define OSTRINGW 4 /* open string for writing (not implemented) */

These definitions can be used in user programs, if the following is provided at the top of the source file:

compiler_options([xpp_on]).
#include "standard.h"
#include "file_modes_xsb.h"

(Note: the XSB preprocessor is not invoked on clauses typed into an interactive XSB session, so the above applies only to programs loaded from a file using consult and such.)

current_input_port(-IOport)
See current_output_port/1.

current_output_port(-IOport)

The above two predicates instantiate IOport to the XSB I/O port for the current user input and output (i.e., the things that are manipulated through see/seen and tell/told predicates). Once the I/O port is obtained, it is possible to safely use the lower-level I/O predicates described below interchangeably with stream I/O.

file_open(+FileName,+Mode,-IOport)

Opens a file with name FileName to be accessed in mode Mode and returns a file-descriptor in IOport that can be used to access the file. If Mode is atom “r”, the file is opened for reading; if it is “w”, the file is opened for writing; if it is “a”, the file is opened for appending. If Mode is “sr”, then the string making up the atom FileName is treated as the contents of the file, and a descriptor is returned that allows “file” access to that string. This is how one can use XSB’s term I/O routines to build terms from atoms. Mode “sw” is reserved for “open string for writing,” but this has not been implemented as of yet.

The old-style mode specification, 0 (OREAD), 1 (OWRITE), 2 (OAPPEND), or 3 (OSTRING), is also supported.
file_reopen(+FileName,+Mode,+I0port,-RetCode)

Takes an existing I/O port, closes it, then opens it and attaches it to a file. This can be used to redirect I/O from any of the standard streams to a file. For instance,

| ?- file_reopen('/dev/null', w, 3, Error).

redirects all warnings to the Unix black hole.

On success, RetCode is 0; on error, the return code is negative.

tmpfile_open(-I0port)

Opens a temporary file with a unique filename. The file is deleted when it is closed or when the program terminates.

file_clone(+SrcIOport,?DestIOport,-RetCode)

This is yet another way to redirect I/O. It is a prolog interface to the C dup and dup2 system calls. If DestIOport is a variable, then this call creates a new XSB I/O port that is a clone of SrcIOport. This means that I/O sent to either descriptor goes to the same place. If DestIOport is not a variable, then it must be a number corresponding to a valid I/O port. In this case, XSB closes DestIOport and makes it into a clone on SrcIOport. For instance, suppose that 10 is a I/O port that is currently open for writing to file foo.bar. Then

| ?- file_clone(10,3,_,).

causes all messages sent to XSB standard warnings port to go to file foo.bar. While this could be also done with file_reopen, there are things that only file_clone can do:

| ?- file_clone(1,10,_,).

This means that I/O port 10 now becomes clone of standard output. So, all subsequent I/O will now go to standard output instead of foo.bar.

On success, RetCode is 0; on error, the return code is negative.

file_close(+I0port)

Closes the file (or string) for descriptor I0port.

fmt_read(+Fmt,-Term,-Ret)

fmt_read(+I0port,+Fmt,-Term,-Ret)

These predicates provides a routine for reading data from the current input file (which must have been already opened by using see/1) according to a C format, as used in the C function scanf. To use it, it must be imported from the module file_io. Fmt must be a string of characters (enclosed in "") representing the format that will be passed to the C call to scanf. See the C documentation for scanf for the meaning of this string. The usual alphabetical C escape characters (e.g., \n) are recognized, but not the octal or the hexadecimal ones. Another difference with C is that, unlike most C compilers, XSB insists that a single % in the
format string signifies format conversion specification. (Some C compilers might output % if it is not followed by a valid type conversion spec.) So, to output % you must type %%.

Term is a term (e.g., args(X,Y,Z)) whose arguments will be unified with the field values read in. (The functor symbol of Term is ignored.) Special syntactic sugar is provided for the case when the format string contains only one format specifier: If Term is a variable, X, then the predicate behaves as if Term were arg(X).

If the number of arguments exceeds the number of format specifiers, a warning is produced and the extra arguments remain uninstantiated. If the number of format specifiers exceeds the number of arguments, then the remainder of the format string (after the last matching specifier) is ignored.

Note that floats do not unify with anything. Ret must be a variable and it will be assigned a return value by the predicate: a negative integer if end-of-file is encountered; otherwise the number of fields read (as returned by scanf.)

fmt_read cannot read strings (that correspond to the %s format specifier) that are longer than 16K. Attempting to read longer strings will cause buffer overflow. It is therefore recommended that one should use size modifiers in format strings (e.g., %2000s), if such long strings might occur in the input.

fmt_write(+Fmt,+Term)  
fmt_write(+IOport,+Fmt,+Term)

This predicate provides a routine for writing data to the current output file (which must have been already opened by using tell/1) according to a C format, as used in the C function printf. To use it, it must be imported from the module file_io. Fmt must be a string of characters (enclosed in "") representing the format that will be passed to the C call to printf. See the C documentation for printf for the meaning of this string. The usual alphabetical C escape characters (e.g., \n) are recognized, but not the octal or the hexadecimal ones.

In addition to the usual C conversion specifiers, %S is also allowed. The corresponding argument can be any Prolog term. This provides an easy way to print the values of Prolog variables, etc. Also %! is supported and indicates that the corresponding argument is to be ignored and will generate nothing in the output.

Another difference with C is that, unlike most C compilers, XSB insists that a single % in the format string signifies format conversion specification. (Some C compilers might output % if it is not followed by a valid type conversion spec.) So, to output % you must type %%.

Format can also be an atom, but then escape sequences are not recognized.

Term is a term (e.g., args(X,Y,Z)) whose arguments will be output. The functor symbol of Term is ignored.

Special syntactic sugar is provided for the following cases: If Term is a variable, X, then it is ignored and only the format string is printed. If Term is a string, integer or a float, then it is assumed that this is the only argument to be printed, i.e., it is equivalent to specifying arg(Term).
If the number of format specifiers is greater than the number of arguments to be printed, an error is issued. If the number of arguments is greater, then a warning is issued.

```prolog
def(fmt_write_string, (-String,+Fmt,+Term), file_io)
   This predicate works like the C function `sprintf'. It takes the format string and substitutes the values from the arguments of `Term' (e.g., `args(X,Y,Z)') for the formatting instructions `%s, %d, etc. Additional syntactic sugar, as in `fmt_write', is recognized. The result is available in `String'. `Fmt' is a string or an atom that represents the format, as in `fmt_write'.

If the number of format specifiers is greater than the number of arguments to be printed, an error is issued. If the number of arguments is greater, then a warning is issued.

`fmt_write_string' requires that the printed size of each argument (e.g., `X,Y,and Z' above) must be less than 16K. Longer arguments are cut to that size, so some loss of information is possible. However, there is no limit on the total size of the output (apart from the maximum atom size imposed by XSB).

```prolog
def(file_flush, (+IOport, -Return), file_io)
   Any buffered data gets delivered. If the call is successful, `Return' is zero; otherwise `EOF' is returned.

```prolog
def(file_seek, (+IOport, +Offset, +Place, -Return), file_io)
   Sets the file position indicator for the next input or output operation. The position is `Offset' bytes from `Place'. The value of `Place' can be 0, 1, or 2, which correspond to the beginning of the file, the current position in the file, or the end of the file, respectively. If the call is successful, `Return' is set to zero.

```prolog
def(file_pos, (+IOport, -Position), file_io)
   Unifies `Position' with the position inside the file indicated by `IOport'.

```prolog
def(file_truncate, (+IOport, +Length, -Return), file_io)
   The regular file referenced by the I/O port `IOport' is chopped to have the size of `Length' bytes. Upon successful completion `Return' is set to zero.

```prolog
def(file_write, (+IOport, +Term), xsb_write)
   Writes the term `Term' to the file (or string) with descriptor `IOport'.

```prolog
def(file_read, (+IOport, -Term), xsb_read)
   Reads a term from the file (or string) with descriptor `IOport' into `Term'. Note that the term must be terminated with a period (.) (whether it appears in a file or in a string.)

```prolog
def(file_read, (+IOport, -Term, -Vars), xsb_read)
   Reads a term from the file (or string) with descriptor `IOport' into `Term', and returns in `Vars' an open-tailed list of pairs of names of variables and the variables themselves that appear in `Term'. For example, reading a term `f(a,X,Y,X)' would result in `term' being bound to `f(a,25,26,25)' (for some internal variables) and `Vars' being bound to `[vv('X',25) vv('Y',26)] | [_83]'. Note that the pairing functor symbol is `vv/2' and it must be imported from `xsb_read' along with this read predicate. Also note that `Vars' is not a proper list, but has a free variable instead of `[]' at its end.
file_read_canonical(+IOport,-Term,-Psc)

Reads a term that is in canonical format from the I/O port indicated by IOport (as returned by file_open/3 or by stat_flag(IOport)), and returns it in Term. It also returns (in Psc) the psc address of the main functor symbol of the term, if it is the same as that of the previously read term, and the current term is a ground (non-ary) fact. (This is used for efficiency in the implementation of load_dyn/1). Otherwise Psc is set to 0. To initialize its previous psc value to zero, this predicate can be called with IOport of -1000.

file_read_line(+IOport,-String)

This is a low-level predicate that allows XSB to read input files efficiently, line by line. It returns the string read from IOport using the variable String.

This predicate fails on reaching the end of file.

file_read_line_atom(+IOport,-String)

This predicate is synonymous with file_read_line.

file_read_line_atom(-String)

Like file_read_line_atom/2, but IOport is not required. The file being read is the one previously opened with see/1.

file_read_line_list(+IOport,-CharList)

This predicate is like file_read_line_atom, but the line read from the input is converted into a list of characters. This predicate is much more efficient than fget_line/3 (see below), and is recommended when speed is important. This predicate fails on reaching the end of file.

file_read_line_list(-String)

Like file_read_line_list/3, but IOport is not required. The file being read is the one previously opened with see/1.

fget_line(+Str,-Inlist,-Next)

fget_line/3 reads one line from the input stream Str and unifies Inlist to the list of ASCII integers representing the characters in the line, and Next to the line terminator, either a newline (10) or EOF (-1).

This predicate is obsolete and file_read_line_list should be used instead.

file_write_line(+IOport, +String, +Offset)

Write String beginning with character Offset to the output file represented by the I/O port IOport. String can be an atom or a list of ASCII characters. This does not put the newline character at the end of the string (unless String already had this character). Note that escape sequences, like \n, are recognized if String is a character list, but are output as is if String is an atom.

file_write_line(+String, +Offset)

Like file_write_line/3, but output goes to the currently open output stream.

file_getbuf(+IOport, +BytesRequested, -String, -BytesRead)

Read BytesRequested bytes from file represented by I/O port IOport (which must already be open for reading) into variable String. This is analogous to fread in C. This predicate
always succeeds. It does not distinguish between a file error and end of file. You can determine if either of these conditions has happened by verifying that $BytesRead < BytesRequested$.

```
file_getbuf_atom(+IOport, +BytesRequested, -String, -BytesRead) file_io
```

This is synonymous with `file_getbuf`. Note: because XSB does not have an atom table garbage collector yet, this predicate should not be used to read large files.

```
file_getbuf_atom(+BytesRequested, -String, -BytesRead) file_io
```

Like `file_getbuf_atom/4`, but reads from the currently open input stream (using `see/1`). This predicate always succeeds. It does not distinguish between a file error and end of file. You can determine if either of these conditions has happened by verifying that $BytesRead < BytesRequested$.

```
file_getbuf_list(+IOport, +BytesRequested, -CharList, -BytesRead) file_io
```

Like `file_getbuf_atom/4`, but `CharList` is instantiated to a list of characters that represent the string read from the input.

```
file_getbuf_list(+BytesRequested, -String, -BytesRead) file_io
```

Like `file_getbuf_list/3`, but reads from the currently open input stream (i.e., with `see/1`).

```
file_putbuf(+IOport, +BytesRequested, +String, +Offset, -BytesWritten) file_io
```

Write `BytesRequested` bytes into file represented by I/O port `IOport` (which must already be open for writing) from variable `String` at position `Offset`. This is analogous to C `fwrite`. The value of `String` can be an atom or a list of ASCII characters.

```
file_putbuf(+BytesRequested, +String, +Offset, -BytesWritten) file_io
```

Like `file_putbuf/3`, but output goes to the currently open output stream.

```
ioport2iostream(+IOport, -Stream) file_io
```

Takes a valid open I/O port and returns an I/O stream. This stream can then be used by the standard I/O predicates, like `see/1`, `tell/1`, `read/1`, etc. The stream returns by this predicate is identified by a newly created atom, such as `$newstream_#123$.

### 1.6 String Manipulation

XSB has a number of powerful builtins that simplify the job of string manipulation. These builtins are especially powerful when they are combined with pattern-matching facilities provided by the `regmatch` package described in Chapter 7.

```
str_sub(+Sub, +Str, ?Pos) string
```

Succeeds if `Sub` is a substring of `Str`. In that case, `Pos` unifies with the position where the match occurred. Positions start from 0. `str_sub/2` is also available, which is equivalent to having `_` in the third argument of `str_sub/3`. 
str_match(+Sub, +Str, +Direction, ?Beg, ?End)

This is an enhanced version of the previous predicate. Direction can be forward or reverse (or any abbreviation of these). If forward, the predicate finds the first match of Sub from the beginning of Str. If reverse, it finds the first match from the end of the string (i.e., the last match of Sub from the beginning of Str). Beg and End must be integers or unbound variables. (It is possible that one is bound and another is not.) Beg unifies with the offset of the first character where Sub matched, and End unifies with the offset of the next character to the right of Sub (such a character might not exist, but the offset is still defined). Offsets start from 0.

Both Beg and End can be bound to negative integers. In this case, the value represents the offset from the second character past the end of Str. Thus -1 represents the character next to the end of Str and can be used to check where the end of Sub matches in Str. In the following examples

?- string_match(Sub,Str,forw,X,-1).
?- string_match(Sub,Str,rev,X,-1).
?- string_match(Sub,Str,forw,0,X).

does the first checks if the first match of Sub from the beginning of Str is a suffix of Str (because End represents the character next to the last character in Sub, so End=-1 means that the last characters of Sub and of Str occupy the same position). If so, X is bound to the offset (from the end of Str) of the first character of Sub. The second example checks if the last match of Sub in Str is a suffix of Str and binds X to the offset of the beginning of that match (counted from the beginning of Str). The last example checks if the first match of Sub is a prefix of Str. If so, X is bound to the offset (from the beginning of Str) of the last character of Sub.

str_cat(+Str1, +Str2, ?Result)

Concatenates Str1 with Str2. Unifies the result with Result.

In addition to this, the predicate fmt_write_string/3 described in Section 1.5 can be used to concatenate strings and do much more. However, for simple string concatenation, str_cat/3 is more efficient.

str_length(+Str, ?Result)

Unifies the Result with the length of Str.

substring(+String, +BeginOffset, +EndOffset, -Result)

String can be an atom or a list of characters, and the offsets must be integers. If EndOffset is negative, endof(String)+EndOffset+1 is assumed. Thus, -1 means end of string. If BeginOffset is less than 0, then 0 is assumed; if it is greater than the length of the string, then string end is assumed. If EndOffset is non-negative, but is less than BeginOffset, then empty string is returned.
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Offsets start from 0.
The result returned in the fourth argument is a string, if String is an atom, or a list of characters, if so is String.
The substring/4 predicate always succeeds (unless there is an error, such as wrong argument type).
Here are some examples:

| ?- substring('abcdefg', 3, 5, L).
| L = de

| ?- substring("abcdefg", 4, -1, L).
| L = [101,102]

(i.e., L = ef represented using ASCII codes).

string_substitute(+InpStr, +SubstrList, +SubstitutionList, -OutStr) string

InputStr can an atom or a list of characters. SubstrList must be a list of terms of the form s(BegOffset, EndOffset), where the name of the functor is immaterial. The meaning of the offsets is the same as for substring/4. (In particular, negative offsets represent offsets from the first character past the end of String.) Each such term specifies a substring (between BegOffset and EndOffset; negative EndOffset stands for the end of string) to be replaced. SubstitutionList must be a list of atoms or character lists.
Offsets start from 0, as in C/Java.
This predicate replaces the substrings specified in SubstrList with the corresponding strings from SubstitutionList. The result is returned in OutStr. OutStr is a list of characters, if so is InputStr; otherwise, it is an atom.
If SubstitutionList is shorter than SubstrList then the last string in SubstitutionList is used for substituting the extra substrings specified in SubstitutionList. As a special case, this makes it possible to replace all specified substrings with a single string.
As in the case of re_substring/4, if OutStr is an atom, it is not interned. The user should either intern this string or convert it into a list, as explained previously.
The string_substitute/4 predicate always succeeds.
Here are some examples:

| ?- string_substitute('qaddf', [s(2,4)], ['123'] ,L).
| L = qa123f

| ?- string_substitute('qaddf', [s(2,-1)], ['123'] ,L).
L = qa123
| ?- string_substitute("abcdefg", [s(4,-1)], ["123"],L).
L = [97,98,99,100,49,50,51]
| ?- string_substitute('1234567890123', [f(1,5),f(5,7),f(9,-2)], ["pppp", 111],X).
X = 1pppplll89lll
| ?- string_substitute('1234567890123', [f(1,5),f(6,7),f(9,-2)], ['---'],X).
X = 1---6---89---

concat_atom(+AtomList,+Sep,?Atom)  string

AtomList must be a list containing atoms, integers and/or floats. This predicate concatenates the atoms and integers into a single atom, returned in Atom. Integers and floats are converted to character strings using number_codes/2.

concat_atom(+AtomList,+Sep,?Atom)  string

AtomList must be a list containing atoms, integers and/or floats, and Sep must be an atom. This predicate concatenates the atoms and integers into a single atom, separating each by Sep, return the resulting atom in Atom. Integers and floats are converted to character strings using number_codes/2.

term_to_atom(+Term,-Atom)  string

This predicate converts an arbitrary Prolog term Term into an atom, putting the result in Atom. It uses a format similar to the canonical format of write_canonical, but uses a standard list format for lists. An atom created from a term using this predicate can be reconverted back to the original term by using atom_to_term/2.

term_to_codes(+Term,-CodeList)  string

This predicate is used in the definition of term_to_atom/2 and converts a term into a list of ascii codes.

atom_to_term(+Atom,-Term)  string

This predicate converts an atom (in Atom) consisting of the characters making up a valid term and converts it into that term, placing the result in Term. The accepted syntax is intended to be valid canonical form (with no trailing '.'), extended by a treatment of the
usual list syntax. It should be the inverse of `term_to_atom/2`. Floating point numbers are not completely handled; only a fixed point representation is used. If the atom is not a syntactically valid term, the predicate fails, quietly.

```prolog
codes_to_term(+CodeList,-Term)
```

This predicate is used in the definition of `atom_to_term/2` and converts a list of ascii codes consisting of a valid canonical term into that term. See `atom_to_term` for details.

```prolog
read_atom_to_term(+Atom,-Term)
```

This predicate converts an atom `Atom` whose characters make up a valid term that can be read by `read/1` into the term (`Term`) it represents. This predicate actually uses XSB’s `read` to process the term so the operators currently in effect are used. The atom should not contain a terminating period (‘.’). If the atom is not a syntactically correct term, then this predicate fails, quietly.

```prolog
read_atom_to_term(+Atom,-Term,-VarList)
```

This predicate is similar to `read_atom_to_term/2`, but in addition returns in the third argument an (open-tailed) list of `vv(VariableName,Variable)` pairs associating the variable names with the variables. This is exactly the list returned from `file_read/3`, so documentation for that predicate gives further details.

## 1.7 Script Writing Utilities

Prolog, (or XSB) can be useful for writing scripts in a UNIX system. Prolog’s simple syntax and declarative semantics make it especially suitable for scripts that involve text processing. Wherever noted, some of these functions are currently working under Unix only.

```prolog
date(?Date)
```

Unifies `Date` to the current date, returned as a Prolog term, suitable for term comparison. Currently this only works under Unix, is slow, and should be rewritten in C using `time()` and `localtime()`.

Example:

```prolog
> date
Thu Feb 20 08:46:08 EST 1997
> xsb -i
XSB Version 1.7
[sequential, single word, optimal mode]
| ?- [scrptutl].
[scrptutl loaded]
```
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```prolog
yes
| ?- date(D).
D = date(1997,1,20,8,47,41)
```

This predicate is obsolete and `datetime/1`, defined in `standard`, should be used instead.

```prolog
file_time(+FileName, -time(Time1,Time2))
```

Returns file’s modification time. Because XSB steals 5 bits from each word, time must be returned as two words: Time1, representing the most significant digits, and Time2, representing the less significant digits.

```prolog
file_size(+FileName, -Size)
```

Returns file size.

```prolog
directory(+Path,?Directory)
```

Unifies Directory with a list of files in the directory specified by path. Information about the files is similar to that obtained by `ls -l`, but transformed for ease of processing. This currently works for Unix only, is slow, and should be reimplemented in C using `opendir()` and `readdir()`.

```prolog
expand_filename(+FileName,-ExpandedName)
```

Expands the file name passed as the first argument and binds the variable in the second argument to the expanded name. This includes expanding Unix tildas, prepending the current directory, etc. In addition, the expanded file name is “rectified” so that multiple repeated slashes are replaced with a single slash, the intervening “./” are removed, and “../” are applied so that the preceding item in the path name is deleted. For instance, if the current directory is `/home`, then `abc/..///ff/./b` will be converted into `/home/abc/ff/b`.

Under Windows, this predicates does rectification (using backslashes when appropriate), but it does not expand the tildas.

```prolog
tilde_expand_filename(+FileName,-ExpandedName)
```

Like `expand_filename/2`, but only expands tildas and does rectification. This does not prepend the current working directory to relative file names.

```prolog
is_absolute_filename(+FileName)
```

Succeeds, if file name is absolute; fails otherwise. This predicate works also under Windows, i.e., it recognizes drive letters, etc.

```prolog
parse_filename(+FileName,-Dir,-Base,-Extension)
```

This predicate parses file names by separating the directory part, the base name part, and file extension. If file extension is found, it is removed from the base name. Also, directory
names are rectified and if a directory name starts with a tilde (in Unix), then it is expanded. Directory names always end with a slash or a backslash, as appropriate for the OS at hand. For instance, ∼john///doe/dir1//../foo.bar will be parsed into: /home/john/doe/, foo, and bar (where we assume that /home/john is what ∼john expands into).

\texttt{file_to_list(IOport, List)} \hspace{1cm} \texttt{scrptutls}

Read lines from an open I/O port. Return a list of terms, one per each line read. Each such term is a list of tokens on the corresponding line. Tokens are lists of characters separated by a space symbol (space, newline, return, tabs, formfeed). For instance, if \texttt{IOport 10} is bound to a file

\begin{verbatim}
ads sdfdsfd ee
112 444
4555
\end{verbatim}

then

\begin{verbatim}
| ?- file_to_list(10, L).
L = [[[ads,sdfdsfd,ee],[112,444],[4555]]
yes
\end{verbatim}

Note: \texttt{file_to_list/2} does not close the I/O port, so it is an application program responsibility.

\texttt{sleep(+Seconds)} \hspace{1cm} \texttt{shell}

Put XSB to sleep for a given number of seconds.

\texttt{cd(+Path)} \hspace{1cm} \texttt{shell}

Change directory.

\texttt{rename(+Old,-New)} \hspace{1cm} \texttt{shell}

Rename file.

\texttt{ls} \hspace{1cm} \texttt{shell}

Does \texttt{ls -F}. Unix only.

\texttt{rm(+Path)} \hspace{1cm} \texttt{shell}

Remove file.

\texttt{cwd(-Dir)} \hspace{1cm} \texttt{shell}

Get current working directory.

\texttt{edit(+Path)} \hspace{1cm} \texttt{shell}

Edit file using your favorite editor (specified by the environment variable \texttt{EDITOR}. Unix only.

\texttt{sys_exit(+ExitCode)} \hspace{1cm} \texttt{shell}

Exit XSB with a given exit code.
sys_pid(-Pid)                      shell
    Get Id of the current process.

In addition, the module file_io provides the following unified interface to the operations on files. All these calls succeed iff the corresponding system call succeeds.

path_sysop(isplain, +Path)        file_io
    Succeeds, if Path is a plain file.

path_sysop(isdir, +Path)          file_io
    Succeeds, if Path is a directory.

path_sysop(rename, +OldPath, +NewPath) file_io
    Renames OldPath into NewPath.

path_sysop(copy, +FromPath, +ToPath) file_io
   Copies FromPath into ToPath.

path_sysop(rm, +Path)            file_io
    Removes the plain file Path.

path_sysop(unlink, +Path)        file_io
    Same as rm.

path_sysop(link, +SrsPath, +DestPath) file_io
    Creates a hard link from SrsPath to DestPath. UNIX only.

path_sysop(cwd, -Path)           file_io
    Binds Path to the current working directory.

path_sysop(chdir, +Path)         file_io
    Changes the current working directory to Path.

path_sysop(mkdir, +Path)         file_io
    Creates a new directory, Path.

path_sysop(rmdir, +Path)         file_io
    Deletes the directory Path.

path_sysop(exists, +Path)        file_io
    Succeeds if the file Path exists.

path_sysop(readable, +Path)      file_io
    Succeeds if Path is a readable file.

path_sysop(writable, +Path)      file_io
    Succeeds if Path is a writable file.

path_sysop(executable, +Path)    file_io
    Succeeds if Path is an executable file.
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path_sysop(modtime, +Path, -Time)
  Returns a list that represents the last modification time of the file. Succeeds if file exists. In this case, Time is bound to a list \([\text{high, low}]\) where low is the least significant 24 bits of the modification time and high is the most significant bits (25th) and up. Time represents the last modification time of the file. The actual value is thus \(\text{high} \times 2^{24} + \text{low}\), which represents the number of seconds elapsed since 00:00:00 on January 1, 1970, Coordinated Universal Time (UTC).

path_sysop(newerthan, +Path1, +Path2)
  Succeeds is the last modification time of Path1 is higher than that of Path2. Also succeeds if Path1 exists but Path2 does not.

path_sysop(size, +Path, -Size)
  Returns a list that represents the byte size of Path. Succeeds if the file exists. In this case Size is bound to the list of the form \([\text{high, low}]\) where low is the least significant 24 bits of the byte-size and high is the most significant bits (25th) and up. The actual value is thus \(\text{high} \times 2^{24} + \text{low}\).

path_sysop(tmpfilename, -Name)
  Returns the name of a new temporary file. This is useful when the application needs to open a completely new temporary file.

path_sysop(extension, +Name, -Ext)
  Returns file name extension.

path_sysop(basename, +Name, -Base)
  Returns the base name of the file name (i.e., the name sans the directory and the extension).

path_sysop(dirname, +Name, -Dir)
  Returns the directory portion of the filename. The directory is slash or backslash terminated.

path_sysop(isabsolute, +Name)
  Succeeds if Name is an absolute path name. File does not need to exist.

path_sysop(expand, +Name, -ExpandedName)
  Binds ExpandedName to the expanded absolute path name of Name. The file does not need to exist. Duplicate slashes, references to the current and parent directories are factored out.

1.8 Communication with Subprocesses

In the previous section, we have seen several predicates that allow XSB to create other processes. However, these predicates offer only a very limited way to communicate with these processes. The predicate spawn_process/5 and friends come to the rescue. It allows to spawn any process (including multiple copies of XSB) and redirect its standard input and output to XSB I/O ports. XSB can then write to the process and read from it. The section of socket I/O describes yet another mode of interprocess communication.
In addition, the predicate `pipe_open/2` described in this section lets one create any number of pipes (that do not need to be connected to the standard I/O port) and talk to child processes through these pipes.

All predicates in this section, except `pipe_open/2` and `fd2ioport/2`, must be imported from module `shell`. The predicates `pipe_open/2` and `fd2ioport/2` must be imported from `file_io`.

```prolog
spawn_process(+CmdSpec,-StreamToProc,-StreamFromProc,-ProcStderrStream,-ProcId)
```

Spawn a new process specified by `CmdSpec`. `CmdSpec` must be either a single atom or a list of atoms. If it is an atom, then it must represent a shell command. If it is a list, the first member of the list must be the name of the program to run and the other elements must be arguments to the program. Program name must be specified in such a way as to make sure the OS can find it using the contents of the environment variable `PATH`. Also note that pipes, I/O redirection and such are not allowed in command specification. That is, `CmdSpec` must represent a single command. (But read about process plumbing below and about the related predicate `shell/5`.)

The next three parameters of `spawn_process` are XSB I/O ports to the process (leading to the subprocess standard input), from the process (from its standard output), and a port capturing the subprocess standard error output. The last parameter is the system process id.

Here is a simple example of how it works.

```prolog
| ?- import file_flush/2, file_read_line_atom/2 from file_io.
| ?- import file_nl/1 , file_write/2 from xsb_writ.

| ?- spawn_process([cat, '-'], To, From, Stderr, Pid),
   file_write(To, 'Hello cat!'), file_nl(To), file_flush(To,_),
   file_read_line_atom(From,Y).

To = 3
From = 4
Stderr = 5
Pid = 14328
Y = Hello cat!

yes
```

Here we created a new process, which runs the "cat" program with argument "-". This forces `cat` to read from standard input and write to standard output. The next line writes a newline-terminated string to the XSB port `To` the, which is bound to the standard input of the `cat` process. The process then copies the input to the standard output. Since standard output of the process is redirected to the XSB port `From`, the last line in our program is able to read it and return in the variable `Y`.

Note that in the second line we used `file_flush/2`. Flushing the output is extremely important here, because XSB I/O ports are buffered. Thus, `cat` might not see its input until the buffer is
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filled up, so the above clause might hang. \texttt{file\_flush/2} makes sure that the input is immediately available to the subprocess.

In addition to the above general schema, the user can tell \texttt{spawn\_process/5} to not open one of the communication ports or to use one of the existing communication ports. This is useful when you do not expect to write or read to/from the subprocess or when one process wants to write to another (see the process plumbing example below).

To tell that a certain port is not needed, it suffices to bind that port to an atom. For instance,

\begin{verbatim}
| ?- spawn_process([cat, '-'], To, none, none, _),
  file_nl(To), file_write(To,'Hello cat!'), file_nl(To), file_flush(To,_).
To = 3,
Hello cat!
\end{verbatim}

reads from XSB and copies the result to standard output. Likewise,

\begin{verbatim}
| ?- spawn_process('cat test', none, From, none, _),
  file_read_line_atom(From, S).
From = 4
S = The first line of file 'test'
\end{verbatim}

In each case, only one of the ports is open. (Note that the shell command is specified as an atom rather than a list.) Finally, if both ports are suppressed, then \texttt{spawn\_process} reduces to the usual \texttt{shell/1} call (in fact, this is how \texttt{shell/1} is implemented):

\begin{verbatim}
| ?- spawn_process([pwd], none, none).
/usr/local/foo/bar
\end{verbatim}

On the other hand, if any one of the three port variables in \texttt{spawn\_process} is bound to an already existing file port, then the subprocess will use that port (see the process plumbing example below).

One of the uses of XSB subprocesses is to create XSB servers that spawn subprocesses and control them. A spawned subprocess can be another XSB process. The following example shows one XSB process spawning another, sending it a goal to evaluate and obtaining the result:

\begin{verbatim}
| ?- spawn_process([xsb], To, From,Err,_),
  file_write(To,'assert(p(1)).'), file_nl(To), file_flush(To,_),
  file_write(To,'p(X), writeln(X).'), file_nl(To), file_flush(To,_),
  file_read_line_atom(From,XX).
XX = 1
\end{verbatim}
yes
| ?-

Here the parent XSB process sends “assert(p(1)).” and then “p(X), writeln(X).” to the spawned XSB subprocess. The latter evaluates the goal and prints (via “writeln(X)”) to its standard output. The main process reads it through the From port and binds the variable XX to that output.

Finally, we should note that the port variables in the spawn_process predicate can be used to do process plumbing, i.e., redirect output of one subprocess into the input of another. Here is an example:

| ?- file_open(test,w,IOport),
  spawn_process([cat, 'data'], none, FromCat1, none, _),
  spawn_process([sort], FromCat1, IOport, none, _).

Here, we first open file test. Then cat data is spawned. This process has the input and standard error ports blocked (as indicated by the atom none), and its output goes into port FromCat1. Then we spawn another process, sort, which picks the output from the first process (since it uses the port FromCat1 as its input) and sends its own output (the sorted version of data) to its output port IOport. However, IOport has already been open for output into the file test. Thus, the overall result of the above clause is tantamount to the following shell command:

```
cat data | sort > test
```

**Important notes about spawned processes:**

1. Asynchronous processes spawned by XSB do not disappear (at least on Unix) when they terminate, unless the XSB program executes a wait on them (see process control below). Instead, such processes become defunct zombies (in Unix terminology); they do not do anything, but consume resources (such as file descriptors). So, when a subprocess is known to terminate, it must be waited on.

2. The XSB parent process must know how to terminate the asynchronous subprocesses it spawns. The drastic way is to kill it (see process control below). Sometimes a subprocess might terminate by itself (e.g., having finished reading a file). In other cases, the parent and the child programs must agree on a protocol by which the parent can tell the child to exit. The programs in the XSB subdirectory examples/subprocess illustrate this idea. If the child subprocess is another XSB process, then it can be terminated by sending the atom end_of_file or halt to the standard input of the child. (For this to work, the child XSB must waiting at the prompt).

3. It is very important to not forget to close the I/O ports that the parent uses to communicate with the child. These are the ports that are provided in arguments 2,3,4 of spawn_process. The reason is that the child might terminate, but these ports will remain open, since they belong to the parent process. As a result, the parent will own defunct I/O ports and might eventually run out of file descriptors.
process_status(+Pid,-Status)

This predicate always succeeds. Given a process id, it binds the second argument (which must be an unbound variable) to one of the following atoms: running, stopped, exited_normaly, exited_abnormally, aborted, invalid, and unknown. The invalid status is given to processes that never existed or that are not children of the parent XSB process. The unknown status is assigned when none of the other statuses can be assigned.

Note: process status (other than running) is system dependent. Windows does not seem to support stopped and aborted. Also, processes killed using the process_control predicate (described next) are often marked as invalid rather than exited, because Windows seems to lose all information about such processes. Process status might be inaccurate in some Unix systems as well, if the process has terminated and wait() has been executed on that process.

process_control(+Pid,+Operation)

Perform a process control operation on the process with the given Pid. Currently, the only supported operations are kill (an atom) and wait(Code) (a term). The former causes the process to exit unconditionally, and the latter waits for process completion. When the process exits, Code is bound to the process exit code. The code for normal termination is 0.

This predicate succeeds, if the operation was performed successfully. Otherwise, it fails. The wait operation fails if the process specified in Pid does not exist or is not a child of the parent XSB process. The kill operation might fail, if the process to be killed does not exist or if the parent XSB process does not have the permission to terminate that process. Unix and Windows have different ideas as to what these permissions are. See kill(2) for Unix and TerminateProcess for Windows.

Note: under Windows, the programmer’s manual warns of dire consequences if one kills a process that has DLLs attached to it.

get_process_table(-ProcessList)

This predicate is imported from module shell. It binds ProcessList to the list of terms, each describing one of the active XSB subprocesses (created via spawn_process/5). Each term has the form:

process(Pid,ToStream,FromStream,StderrStream,CommandLine).

The first argument in the term is the process id of the corresponding process, the next three arguments describe the three standard ports of the process, and the last is an atom that shows the command line used to invoke the process. This predicate always succeeds.

shell(+CmdSpec,-StreamToProc, -StreamFromProc, -ProcStderr, -ErrorCode)

The arguments of this predicate are similar to those of spawn_process, except for the following: (1) The first argument is an atom or a list of atoms, like in spawn_process. However, if it is a list of atoms, then the resulting shell command is obtained by string concatenation. This is different from spawn_process where each member of the list must represent an argument to the program being invoked (and which must be the first member...
of that list). (2) The last argument is the error code returned by the shell command and not a process id. The code -1 and 127 mean that the shell command failed.

The `shell/5` predicate is similar to `spawn_process` in that it spawns another process and can capture that process' input and output ports.

The important difference, however, is that XSB will ways until the process spawned by `shell/5` terminates. In contrast, the process spawned by `spawn_process` will run concurrently with XSB. In this latter case, XSB must explicitly synchronize with the spawned subprocess using the predicate `process_control/2` (using the `wait` operation), as described earlier.

The fact that XSB must wait until `shell/5` finishes has a very important implication: the amount of data that can be sent to and from the shell command is limited (1K is probably safe). This is because the shell command communicates with XSB via pipes, which have limited capacity. So, if the pipe is filled, XSB will hang waiting for `shell/5` to finish and `shell/5` will wait for XSB to consume data from the pipe. Thus, use `spawn_process/5` for any kind of significant data exchange between external processes and XSB.

Another difference between these two forms of spawning subprocesses is that `CmdSpec` in `shell/5` can represent any shell statement, including those that have pipes and I/O redirection. In contrast, `spawn_process` only allows command of the form “program args”. For instance,

```
| ?- file_open(test,w,IOport),
   shell('cat | sort > data', IOport, none, none, ErrCode)
```

As seen from this example, the same rules for blocking I/O streams apply to `shell/5`. Finally, we should note that the already familiar standard predicates `shell/1` and `shell/2` are implemented using `shell/5`.

**Notes:**

1. With `shell/5`, you do not have to worry about terminating child processes: XSB waits until the child exits automatically. However, since communication pipes have limited capacity, this method can be used only for exchanging small amounts of information between parent and child.

2. The earlier remark about the need to close I/O streams to the child *does* apply.

```
pipe_open(-ReadPipe, -WritePipe)
```

Open a new pipe and return the read end and the write end of that pipe. If the operation fails, both `ReadPipe` and `WritePipe` are bound to negative numbers.

The pipes returned by the `pipe_open/2` predicate are small integers that represent file descriptors used by the underlying OS. They are not XSB I/O ports, and they cannot be used for I/O directly. To use them, one must call the `fd2ioport/2` predicate, as described next.\(^2\)

\(^2\) XSB does not convert pipes into I/O ports automatically. Because of the way XSB I/O ports are represented,
fd2ioport(+Pipe, -IOport)

Take a pipe and convert it to an XSB I/O port that can be used for I/O. This predicate is needed because pipes must be associated with XSB I/O ports before any I/O can be done on them by an XSB program.

The best way to illustrate how one can create a new pipe to a child (even if the child has been created earlier) is to show an example. Consider two programs, parent.P and child.P. The parent copy of XSB consults parent.P, which does the following: First, it creates a pipe and spawns a copy of XSB. Then it tells the child copy of XSB to assert the fact pipe(RP), where RP is a number representing the read part of the pipe. Next, the parent XSB tells the child XSB to consult the program child.P. Finally, it sends the message Hello!.

The child.P program gets the pipe from predicate pipe/1 (note that the parent tells the child XSB to first assert pipe(RP) and only then to consult the child.P file). After that, the child reads a message from the pipe and prints it to its standard output. Both programs are shown below:

```
%% parent.p
:- import pipe_open/2, fd2ioport/2, fmt_write/3, file_flush/2 from file_io.
%% Create the pipe and pass it to the child process
?- pipe_open(RP,WP),
   %%% WF is now the XSB I/O port bound to the write part of the pipe
   fd2io port(WP,WF),
   %%% ProcInput becomes the XSB stream leading directly to the child's stdin
   spawn_process(xsb, ProcInput, block, block, Process),
   %%% Tell the child where the reading part of the pipe is
   fmt_write(ProcInput, "assert(pipe(%d)).\n", arg(RP)),
   fmt_write(ProcInput, "[child].\n", _),
   file_flush(ProcInput, _),
   %%% Pass a message through the pipe
   fmt_write(WF, "Hello!\n", _),
   file_flush(WF, _),
   fmt_write(ProcInput, "end_of_file.\n", _), % send end_of_file atom to child
   file_flush(ProcInput, _),
   %%% wait for child (so as to not leave zombies around;
   %%% zombies quit when the parent finishes, but they consume resources)
   process_control(Process, wait),
   %%% Close the ports used to commuicate with the process
   %%% Otherwise, the parent might run out of file descriptors
   %%% (if many processes were spawned)
   file_close(ProcInput), file_close(WF).
```

```
%% child.P
```

they are not inherited by the child process and they do not make sense to the child process (especially if the child is not another xsb). Therefore, we must pass the child processes an OS file descriptor instead. The child then converts these descriptor into XSB I/O ports.
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:- import fd2ioport/2 from file_io.
:- import file_read_line_atom/2 from file_io.
:- dynamic pipe/1.
?- pipe(P), fd2ioport(P,F),
   \% Acknowledge receipt of the pipe
   fmt_write("\nPipe %d received\n", arg(P)),
   \% Get a message from the parent and print it to stdout
   file_read_line_atom(F, Line), write('Message was: '), writeln(Line).

This produces the following output:

| ?- [parent]. | <- parent XSB consults parent.P
[ parent loaded ]
| yes |
| ?- [xsb_configuration loaded] | <- parent.P spawns a child copy of XSB
[ sysinitrc loaded ] Here we see the startup messages of
[ packaging loaded ] the child copy
XSB Version 2.0 (Gouden Carolus) of June 27, 1999
[ i686-pc-linux-gnu; mode: optimal; engine: slg-wam; scheduling: batched ]
| ?- yes |
| ?- [Compiling ./child] <- The child copy of received the pipe from
[ child compiled, cpu time used: 0.1300 seconds ] the parent and then the
[ child loaded ] request to consult child.P
Pipe 15 received <- child.P acknowledges receipt of the pipe
Message was: Hello! <- child.P gets the message and prints it
yes

Observe that the parent process is very careful about making sure that the child terminates and also about closing the I/O ports after they are no longer needed.

Finally, we should note that this mechanism can be used to communicate through pipes with non-XSB processes as well. Indeed, an XSB process can create a pipe using pipe_open (before spawning a child process), pass one end of the pipe to a child process (which can be a C program), and use fd2ioport to convert the other end of the pipe to an XSB file. The C program, of course, does not need fd2ioport, since it can use the pipe file handle directly. Likewise, a C program can spawn off an XSB process and pass it one end of a pipe. The XSB child-process can then convert this pipe fd to a file using fd2ioport and then talk to the parent C program.

sys_exit(-ExitCode)
This predicate causes XSB subprocess to exit unconditionally with the exit code ExitCode. Normally 0 is considered to indicate normal termination, while other exit codes are used to report various degrees of abnormality.
1.9 Socket I/O

The XSB socket library defines a number of predicates for communication over BSD-style sockets. Most are modeled after and are interfaces to the socket functions with the same name. For detailed information on sockets, the reader is referred to the Unix man pages (another good source is Unix Network Programming, by W. Richard Stevens). Several examples of the use of the XSB sockets interface can be found in the XSB/examples/ directory in the XSB distribution.

XSB supports two modes of communication via sockets: stream-oriented and message-oriented. In turn, stream-oriented communication can be buffered or character-at-a-time.

To use buffered stream-oriented communication, system socket handles must be converted to XSB I/O ports using fd2ioport/2 and then the regular low-level file I/O primitives (described in Section 1.5) are used. In stream-oriented communication, messages have no boundaries, and communication appears to the processes as reading and writing to a file. At present, buffered stream-oriented communication works under Unix only.

Character-at-a-time stream communication is accomplished using the primitives socket_put/3 and socket_get0/3. These correspond to the usual Prolog put/1 and get0/1 I/O primitives.

In message-oriented communication, processes exchange messages that have well-defined boundaries. The communicating processes use socket_send/3 and socket_recv/3 to talk to each other. XSB messages are represented as strings where the first four bytes (sizeof(int)) is an integer (represented in the binary network format — see the functions htonl and ntohl in socket documentation) and the rest is the body of the message. The integer in the header represents the length of the message body.

We now describe the XSB socket interface. All predicates below must be imported from the module socket. Note that almost all predicates have the last argument that unifies with the error code returned from the corresponding socket operation. This argument is explained separately.

**General socket calls.** These are used to open/close sockets, to establish connections, and set special socket options.

socket(-Sockfd, ?ErrorCode)

A socket Sockfd in the AF_INET domain is created. (The AF_UNIX domain is not yet implemented). Sockfd is bound to a small integer, called socket descriptor or socket handle.

socket_set_option(+Sockfd, +OptionName, +Value)

Set socket option. At present, only the linger option is supported. “Lingering” is a situation when a socket continues to live after it was shut down by the owner. This is used in order to let the client program that uses the socket to finish reading or writing from/to the socket. Value represents the number of seconds to linger. The value -1 means do not linger at all.

socket_close(+Sockfd, ?ErrorCode)

Sockfd is closed. Sockets used in socket_connect/2 should not be closed by socket_close/1 as they will be closed when the corresponding stream is closed.
socket_bind(+Sockfd,+Port, ?ErrorCode)

The socket Sockfd is bound to the specified local port number.

socket_connect(+Sockfd,+Port,+Hostname,?ErrorCode)

The socket Sockfd is connected to the address (Hostname and Port). If socket_connect/4 terminates abnormally for any reason (connection refused, timeout, etc.), then XSB closes the socket Sockfd automatically, because such a socket cannot be used according to the BSD semantics. Therefore, it is always a good idea to check to the return code and reopen the socket, if the error code is not SOCK_OK.

socket_listen(+Socket, +Length, ?ErrorCode)

The socket Sockfd is defined to have a maximum backlog queue of Length pending connections.

socket_accept(+Sockfd,-SockOut, ?ErrorCode)

Block the caller until a connection attempt arrives. If the incoming queue is not empty, the first connection request is accepted, the call succeeds and returns a new socket, SockOut, which can be used for this new connection.

Buffered, message-based communication. These calls are similar to the recv and send calls in C, except that XSB wraps a higher-level message protocol around these low-level functions. More precisely, socket_send/3 prepends a 4-byte field to each message, which indicates the length of the message body. When socket_recv/3 reads a message, it first reads the 4-byte field to determine the length of the message and then reads the remainder of the message.

All this is transparent to the XSB user, but you should know these details if you want to use these details to communicate with external processes written in C and such. All this means that these external programs must implement the same protocol. The subtle point here is that different machines represent integers differently, so an integer must first be converted into the machine-independent network format using the functions htonl and ntohl provided by the socket library. For instance, to send a message to XSB, one must do something like this:

```c
char *message, *msg_body;
unsigned int msg_body_len, network_encoded_len;

msg_body_len = strlen(msg_body);
network_encoded_len = (unsigned int) htonl((unsigned long int) msg_body_len);
memcpy((void *) message, (void *) &network_encoded_len, 4);
strcpy(message+4, msg_body);
```

To read a message sent by XSB, one can do as follows:

```c
int actual_len;
char lenbuf[4], msg_buff;
unsigned int msglen, net_encoded_len;
```
actual_len = (long)recvfrom(sock_handle, lenbuf, 4, 0, NULL, 0);
memcpy((void *) &net_encoded_len, (void *) lenbuf, 4);
msglen = ntohl(net_encoded_len);

msg_buff = calloc(msglen+1, sizeof(char))); // check if this succeeded!!!
recvfrom(sock_handle, msg_buff, msglen, 0, NULL, 0);

If making the external processes follow the XSB protocol is not practical (because you did not
write these programs), then you should use the character-at-a-time interface or, better, the buffered
stream-based interface both of which are described in this section. At present, however, the buffered
stream-based interface does not work on Windows.

socket_recv(+Sockfd,-Message, ?ErrorCode)
   Receives a message from the connection identified by the socket descriptor Sockfd. Binds
   Message to the message. socket_recv/3 provides a message-oriented interface. It under-
   stands message boundaries set by socket_send/3.

socket_send(+Sockfd,+Message, ?ErrorCode)
   Takes a message (which must be an atom) and sends it through the connection specified
   by Sockfd. socket_send/3 provides message-oriented communication. It prepends a 4-byte
   header to the message, which tells socket_recv/3 the length of the message body.

Stream-oriented, character-at-a-time interface. Internally, this interface uses the same
sendto and recvfrom socket calls, but they are executed for each character separately. This
interface is appropriate when the message format is not known or when message boundaries are
determined using special delimiters.

socket_get0/3 creates the end-of-file condition when it receives the end-of-file character CH_EOF_P
(a.k.a. 255) defined in char_defs.h (which must be included in the XSB program). C programs
that need to send an end-of-file character should send (char)-1.

socket_get0(+Sockfd, -Char, ?ErrorCode)
The equivalent of get0 for sockets.

socket_put(+Sockfd, +Char, ?ErrorCode)
   Similar to put/1, but works on sockets.

Socket-probing. With the help of the predicate socket_select/6 one can establish a group of
asynchronous or synchronous socket connections. In the synchronous mode, this call is blocked
until one of the sockets in the group becomes available for reading or writing, as described below.
In the asynchronous mode, this call is used to probe the sockets periodically, to find out which
sockets have data available for reading or which sockets have room in the buffer to write to.

The directory XSB/examples/socket/select/ has a number of examples of the use of the
socket-probing calls.
socket_select(+SymConName,+Timeout,-ReadSockL,-WriteSockL,-ErrSockL,-?ErrorCode)

SymConName must be an atom that denotes an existing connection group, which must be previously created with socket_set_select/4 (described below). ReadSockL, WriteSockL, ErrSockL are lists of socket handles (as returned by socket/2) that specify the available sockets that are available for reading, writing, or on which exception conditions occurred. Timeout must be an integer that specifies the timeout in seconds (0 means probe and exit immediately). If Timeout is a variable, then wait indefinitely until one of the sockets becomes available.

socket_set_select(+SymConName,+ReadSockFdLst,+WriteSockFdLst,+ErrorSockFdLst)

Creates a connection group with the symbolic name SymConName (an atom) for subsequent use by socket_select/6. ReadSockFdLst, WriteSockFdLst, and ErrorSockFdLst are lists of sockets for which socket_select/6 will be used to monitor read, write, or exception conditions.

socket_select_destroy(+SymConName)

Destroys the specified connection group.

**Error codes.** The error code argument unifies with the error code returned by the corresponding socket commands. The error code -2 signifies timeout for timeout-enabled primitives (see below). The error code of zero signifies normal termination. Positive error codes denote specific failures, as defined in BSD sockets. When such a failure occurs, an error message is printed, but the predicate succeeds anyway. The specific error codes are part of the socket documentation. Unfortunately, the symbolic names and error numbers of these failures are different between Unix compilers and Visual C++. Thus, there is no portable, reliable way to refer to these error codes. The only reliably portable error codes that can be used in XSB programs defined through these symbolic constants:

```
#include "socket_defs_xsb.h"
#define SOCK_OK 0    /* indicates successful return from socket */
#define SOCK_EOF -1  /* end of file in socket_recv, socket_get0 */
#include "timer_defs_xsb.h"
#define TIMEOUT_ERR -2 /* Timeout error code */
```

**Timeouts.** XSB socket interface allows the programer to specify timeouts for certain operations. If the operations does not finish within the specified period of time, the operation is aborted and the corresponding predicate succeeds with the TIMEOUT_ERR error code. The following primitives are timeout-enabled: socket_connect/4, socket_accept/3, socket_recv/3, socket_send/3, socket_get0/3, and socket_put/3. To set a timeout value for any of the above primitives, the user should execute set_timer/1 right before the subgoal to be timed. Note that timeouts are disabled after the corresponding timeout-enabled call completes or times out. Therefore, one must use set_timer/1 before each call that needs to be controlled by a timeout mechanism.
The most common use of timeouts is to either abort or retry the operation that times out. For the latter, XSB provides the `sleep/1` primitive, which allows the program to wait for a few seconds before retrying.

The `set_timer/1` and `sleep/1` primitives are described below. They are standard predicates and do not need to be explicitly imported.

```
set_timer(+Seconds)
  Set timeout value. If a timer-enabled goal executes after this value is set, the clock begins ticking. If the goal does not finish in time, it succeeds with the error code set to `TIMEOUT_ERR`. The timer is turned off after the goal executes (whether timed out or not and whether it succeeds or fails). This goal always succeeds.

Note that if the timer is not set, the timer-enabled goals execute “normally,” without timeouts. In particular, they might block (say, on `socket_recv`, if data is not available).
```

```
sleep(+Seconds)
  Put XSB to sleep for the specified number of seconds. Execution resumes after the `Seconds` number of seconds. This goal always succeeds.
```

Here is an example of the use of the timer:

```
:- compiler_options([xpp_on]).
#include "timer_defs_xsb.h"

?- set_timer(3), % wait for 3 secs
   socket_recv(Sockfd, Msg, ErrorCode),
   (ErrorCode == TIMEOUT_ERR -> writeln('Socket read timed out, retrying'),
    try_again(Sockfd)
   ; write('Data received: '), writeln(Msg)
  )
```

Apart from the above timer-enabled primitives, a timeout value can be given to `socket_select/6` directly, as an argument.

Buffered, stream-oriented communication. In Unix, socket descriptors can be “promoted” to file streams and the regular read/write commands can be used with such streams. In XSB, such promotion can be done using the following predicate:

```
fd2ioport(+Pipe, -IOport)
  shell
  Take a socket descriptor and convert it to an XSB I/O port that can be used for regular file I/O.
```

Once `IOport` is obtained, all I/O primitives described in Section 1.5 can be used. This is, perhaps, the easiest and the most convenient way to use sockets in XSB. (This feature has not been implemented for Windows.)
Here is an example of the use of this feature:

```prolog
:- compiler_options([xpp_on]).
#include "socket_defs_xsb.h"

?- (socket(Sockfd, SOCK_OK)
   -> socket_connect(Sockfd1, 6020, localhost, Ecode),
      (Ecode == SOCK_OK
       -> fd2ioport(Sockfd, SockI0port),
          file_write(SockI0port, 'Hello Server!'),
          writeln('Can\'t connect to server')
       ),
      writeln('Can\'t open socket'), fail).
```

### 1.10 Arrays

The module `array1` in directory `lib` provides a very simple backtrackable array implementation. The predicates through which the array objects are manipulated are:

- **array new** 
  
  Creates a one dimensional empty array of size `Size`. All the elements of this array are variables.

- **array elt**
  
  True iff `Element` is the `Index`-th element of array `Array`.

- **array update**
  
  Updates the array `Array` such that the `Index`-th element of the new array is `Elem` and returns the new array in `NewArray`. The implementation is quite efficient in that it avoids the copying of the entire array.

A small example that shows the use of these predicates is the following:

```prolog

yes
| ?- array_new(A, 4), array_update(A,1,1,B), array_update(B,2,2,C),
  ( array_update(C,3,3,D), array_elt(D,3,E)
  ; array_update(C,3,6,D), array_elt(D,3,E)
  ; array_update(C,3,7,D), array_elt(D,3,E)
  ).

A = array(1,2,3,_,874600)
B = array(1,2,3,874600)
C = array(1,2,3,874600)
D = array(1,2,3,874600)
```
E = 3;
A = array(1,2,6, 874600)
B = array(1,2,6, 874600)
C = array(1,2,6, 874600)
D = array(1,2,6, 874600)
E = 6;
A = array(1,2,7, 874600)
B = array(1,2,7, 874600)
C = array(1,2,7, 874600)
D = array(1,2,7, 874600)
E = 7;

no

1.11 Asserts/Retracts using Tries

In Version 2.5, trie asserted code has been merged with standard asserted code. If the user wishes to use tries for dynamic code, the recommended programming practice is as outlined in the section Modification of the Database in Volume 1. For compatibility with previous versions, the predicates `trie_assert/1, trie_retract/1, trie_retractall/1, trie_retract_nr/1, abolish_trie_asserted/1` and `trie_dynamic/1` can be imported from the module `tables`. However, if the current index specification of these predicates is `trie` (again, see the section Modification of the Database in Volume 1, the predicates are defined as `assert/1, retract/1, retractall/1, retract_nr/1, abolish/1 and dynamic/1` respectively. If the index specification is other than `tries`, the predicate will issue a warning message and have no effect on the database.

1.12 Low-level Trie Manipulation Utilities

The following utilities are used to implement assert and retract, but they can also be used to implement special purpose operations, like backtrackable assert and retract. All the utilities in this section are very low-level and require good understanding of the trie mechanism in XSB.

The module `storage` described in Volume 1 provides a higher-level and a more convenient interface to the XSB trie-based storage mechanism.

newtrie(-Root)  
Root is instantiated to a handle for a new trie.

trie_intern(+Term,+Root,-Leaf,-Flag,-Skel)  
Term is the Prolog term to be interned. Root is the handle for a trie. Leaf is the handle for the interned Term in the trie. Flag is 1 if the term is “old” (already exists in the trie); it is 0, if the term is newly inserted. Skel represents the collection of all the variables in Term. It has the form `ret(V1,V2,...,VN)`, exactly as in `get_calls`. 
trie_intern(+Term,-Leaf,-Skel)

Interns Term into the default trie. Does not return the new/old flag.

trie_interned(?Term,+Root,?Leaf,-Skel)

This builtin will backtrack through the terms interned into the trie represented by the handle Root if Leaf is a free variable. Otherwise, if Leaf is bound, it will backtrack over the terms in the trie that unify with the term pointed to by Leaf to. Term is the term to be retrieved; it can be either (partially) bound or free. Skel is the collection of all the variables in Term; it has the form ret(V1,...,Vn).

trie_interned(?Term,?Leaf,-Skel)

Similar to trie_interned/4 but uses the default trie.

trie_unintern(+Root,+Leaf)

Uninterns (deletes) a term from the trie indicated by root. This predicate has to be called with care. Uninterning can be done only when the trie from which the term is being uninterned is not being actively accessed.

trie_unintern_nr(+Root,+Leaf)

This is a safe version of trie_unintern/2. The term pointed to by Leaf is marked as deleted, but is not deleted from the trie. This permits an efficient implementation of backtrackable updates.

unmark_uninterned_nr(+Root,+Leaf)

The term pointed to by Leaf should have been previously marked for deletion using trie_unintern_nr/2. This term is then “unmarked” (or undeleted) and becomes again a normal interned term.

reclaim_uninterned_nr(+Root)

Not yet implemented.

Runs through the chain of leaves of the trie Root and deletes the terms that have been marked for deletion by trie_unintern_nr/2. This is a garbage collection step that should be done just before returning to the top level.

delete_trie(+Root)

Deletes all the terms in the trie pointed to by Root.

1.13 Random Number Generator

The following predicates are provided in module random to generate random numbers (both integers and floating numbers):

random(-Number)

Binds Number to a random float in the interval [0.0, 1.0). Note that 1.0 will never be generated.

random(+Lower,+Upper,-Number)

Binds Number to a random integer in the interval [Lower,Upper) if Lower and Upper are
integers. Otherwise Number is bound to a random float between Lower and Upper. Upper will never be generated.

genrand(?State)  
Tries to unify State with the term rand(X,Y,Z) where X,Y, and Z are integers describing the state of the random generator.

setrand(rand(+X,+Y,+Z))  
Sets the state of the random generator. X, Y, and Z must be integers in the ranges [1,30269), [1,30307), [1,30323), respectively.

randseq(+K, +N, -RandomSeq)  
Generates a sequence of K unique integers chosen randomly in the range from 1 to N. RandomSeq is not returned in any particular order.

randset(+K, +N, -RandomSet)  
Generates an ordered set of K unique integers chosen randomly in the range from 1 to N. The set is returned in reversed order, with the largest element first and the smallest last.

1.14 Scanning in Prolog

Scanners, (sometimes called tokenizers) take an input string, usually in ASCII or similar format, and produce a scanned sequence of tokens. The requirements that various applications have for scanning differ in small but important ways – a character that is special to one application may be part of the token of another; or some applications may want lower case text converted to upper-case text. The stdscan.P library provides a simple scanner written in XSB that can be configured in several ways. While useful, this scanner is not intended to be as powerful as general-purpose scanners such as lex or flex.

scan(+List,-Tokens)  
Given as input a List of character codes, scan/2 scans this list producing a list of atoms constituting the lexical tokens. Its parameters are set via set_scan_pars/1.

Tokens produced are either a sequence of letters and/or numbers or consist of a single special character (e.g. ( or )). Whitespaces may occur between tokens.

scan(+List,+FieldSeparator,-Tokens)  
Given as input a List of character codes, along with a character code for a field separator, scan/3 scans this list producing a list of list of atoms constituting the lexical tokens in each field. scan/3 thus can be used to scan tabular information. Its parameters are set via set_scan_pars/1.

set_scan_pars(+List)  
set_scan_pars(+List)
set_scan_pars(+List) is used to configure the tokenizer to a particular need. List is a list of parameters including the following:

- **whitespace.** The default action of the scanner is to return a list of tokens, with any whitespace removed. If whitespace is a parameter, then the scanner returns the token `' ' when it finds whitespace separating two tokens (unless the two tokens are letter sequences; since two letter sequences can be two tokens ONLY if they are separated by whitespace, such an indication of whitespace would be redundant.) Including the parameter no_whitespaces undoes the effect of previously including whitespace.

- **upper_case** The default action of the parser is to treat lowercase letter differently from uppercase letters. This parameter should be set if conversion to uppercase should be done when producing a token that does not consist entirely of letters (e.g. one with mixed letters and digits). Including the parameter no_case undoes the effect of previously including upper_case.

- **upper_case_in_lit** The default action of the parser is to treat lowercase letter differently from uppercase letters. This parameter should be set if conversion to uppercase should be done when producing a token that consists entirely of letters. Including the parameter no_case_in_lit undoes the effect of previously including upper_case.

- **whitespace(Code)** adds Code as a whitespace code. By default, all ASCII codes less than or equal to 32 are regarded as whitespace.

- **letter(Code)** adds Code as a letter constituting a token. By default, ASCII codes for characters a--z and A--Z are regarded as letters.

- **special_char(Code)** adds Code as a special character. By default, ASCII codes for the following characters are regarded as special characters:

  | { } [ ] " $ % & ' ( ) * + , - . / ; < = > ? @ \ ^ _ ` ~ ' |

get_scan_pars(-List)

get_scan_pars/1 returns a list of the currently active parameters.

1.15 Other Libraries

Not all XSB libraries are currently documented. We provide brief summaries of some of these other libraries.

1.15.1 AVL Trees

AVL trees provide a mechanism to maintain key value pairs so that loop up, insertion, and deletion all have complexity $O(\log n)$. This library contains predicates to transform a sorted list to an AVL tree and back, along with predicates to manipulate the AVL trees. This library was originally written for Sicstus by Mats Carlsson.
1.15.2 Justification

Most Prolog debuggers, including XSB’s, are based on a mechanism that allows a user to trace the evaluation of a goal by interrupting the evaluation at call, success, retry, or failure of various subgoals. While this has proved an excellent mechanism for evaluating SLD(NF) executions, it is difficult at best to use such a mechanism during a tabled evaluation. This is because, unlike with SLD(NF), SLG requires answers to be returned to tabled subgoals at various times (depending on whether batched or local evaluation is used), negative subgoals to be sometimes be delayed and/or simplified, etc.

One approach to understanding tabled evaluation better is to abstract away the procedural aspects of debugging and to use the tables produced by an evaluation to construct a justification after the evaluation has finished. The justification library does just this using algorithms described in [9].

1.15.3 Ordered Sets

ordset.P provides an XSB port of the widely used ordset library, written by Richard O’Keefe, whose summary we paraphrase here. In the ordset library, sets are represented by ordered lists with no duplicates. Thus \{c,r,a,f,t\} is represented as \[a,c,f,r,t\]. The ordering is defined by the \(<\) family of term comparison predicates, which is the ordering used by sort/2 and setof/3. The benefit of the ordered representation is that the elementary set operations can be done in time proportional to the sum of the argument sizes rather than their product. Some of the unordered set routines, such as member/2, length/2, or select/3 can be used unchanged.
Chapter 2

Foreign Language Interface

When XSB is used to build real-world systems, a foreign-language interface may be necessary to:

- combine XSB with existing programs and libraries, thereby forming composite systems;
- interface XSB with the operating system, graphical user interfaces or other system level programs;
- speed up certain critical operations.

XSB has both the high-level and the low-level interfaces to C. The low-level interface is much more flexible, but it requires greater attention to details of how the data is passed between XSB and C. To connect XSB to a C program using the high-level interface requires very little work, but the program must be used “as is” and it must take the input and produce the output supported by this high-level interface. We first describe the low-level interface.

2.1 Compiler Directives for Foreign C Modules

Foreign predicates must always appear in modules, which can contain only foreign predicates. The main difference between a normal module and a foreign module is the very natural one: the source file of the module implementation, which is in C, must appear in a *.c file rather than a *.P file. This *.c file cannot contain a main() function. Furthermore, a *.P file with the same name must not be present or else the *.c file is ignored and the module is compiled as a regular Prolog module. The interface part of a foreign module, which has the same syntax as that of a normal module, is written in Prolog and hence must appear in a *.H file. This *.H file contains export declarations for each and every one of the foreign predicates that are to be used by other modules. Here is an example of a *.H file for a foreign module:

```
:- export minus_one/2, my_sqrt/2, change_char/4.

:- ldoption('-lm'). % link together with the math library
```
Directives such as `index`, `hilog`, `table`, `auto_table` or even `import` make no sense in the case of a foreign module and thus are ignored by the compiler. However, another directive, namely `ldoption`, is recognized in a foreign module and is used to instruct the dynamic loading and linking of the module. The syntax of the `ldoption` directive is simply:

```
:- ldoption(Option).
```

where `Option` should either be an atom or a list of atoms. Multiple `ldoption` directives may appear in the same `.H` file of a foreign module.

The foreign language interface of XSB uses the Unix command `ld` that combines object programs to create an executable file or another object program suitable for further `ld` processing. Version 2.5 of XSB assumes that the `ld` command resides in the file `/usr/bin/ld`.

C functions that implement foreign predicates must return values of type `int`. If a non-zero is returned, the foreign predicate succeeds; a zero return value means failure.

A well-designed foreign predicate must check that its arguments are of the correct types and modes. However, such checks can also be done using Prolog-side wrappers that invoke a foreign predicate.

At the C level, the procedure that implements the foreign predicate must have the same name as the predicate (that is declared in the `*.H` file), and it must be parameterless. The Prolog level arguments are converted to C data structures through several predefined functions rather than through direct parameter passing.

In the current implementation, the Prolog procedures that are attached to foreign predicates are deterministic, in the sense that they succeed at most once for a given call and are not re-entered on backtracking. Note that this requirement imposes no serious limitation, since it is always possible to divide a foreign predicate into the part to be done on the first call and the part to be redone on backtracking. Backtracking can then take place at the Prolog level where it is more naturally expressed.

A foreign module can be compiled or consulted just like a normal Prolog module. Currently, predicates `consult/[1,2]` recompile both the `*.c` and the `*.H` files of a foreign module when at least one of them has been changed from the time the corresponding object files have been created (see the section `Compiling and Consulting` in Volume 1. The C compiler used to compile the `*.c` files can be set as a compilation option or defaults to that used for the configuration of XSB (refer to the section `Getting Started with XSB` in Volume 1. Moreover, the user can control the compiler options that can be passed to the C compiler. To give an example, the following command will compile file `file.c` using the Gnu C Compiler with optimization and by including `/usr/local/X11/R6/include` to the directories that will be searched for header files.

```
:- consult(file, [cc(gcc), cc_opts('-O2 -I/usr/local/X11/R6/include')]).
```

If no C compiler options are specified, the compilation of the C-file defaults to `CC -c file.c` where `CC` is the name of the C compiler used to install XSB. In addition, if XSB was compiled with the `-g` debugging option, then `-g` option will be automatically added to the C compiler options list for the foreign module. Any Prolog compiler options are ignored when compiling a foreign module.
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2.2 Foreign Modules That Link Dynamically with Other Libraries

Sometimes a foreign module might have to link dynamically with other (non-XSB) libraries. Typically, this happens when the foreign module implements an interface to a large external library of utilities. One example of this is the package libwww in the XSB distribution, which provides a high-level interface to the W3C’s Libwww library for accessing the Web. The library is compiled into a set of shared objects and the libwww module has to link with them as well as with XSB.

The problem here is that the loader must know at run time where to look for the shared objects to link with. On Unix systems, this is specified using the environment variable LD_LIBRARY_PATH; on Windows, the variable name is LIBPATH. For instance, under Bourne shell or its derivatives, the following will do:

```bash
LD_LIBRARY_PATH=dir1:dir2:dir3
export LD_LIBRARY_PATH
```

One problem with this approach is that this variable must be set before starting XSB. The other problem is that such a global setting might interact with other foreign modules.

To alleviate the problem, XSB dynamically sets LD_LIBRARY_PATH (LIBPATH on Windows) before loading foreign modules by adding the directories specified in the -L option in ldoption. Unfortunately, this works on some systems (Linux), but not on others (Solaris). One route around this difficulty is to build a runtime library search path directly into the object code of the foreign module. This can be specified using a loader flag in ldoption. The problem here is that different systems use a different flag! To circumvent this, XSB provides a predicate that tries to guess the right flag for your system:

```prolog
runtime_loader_flag(+Hint,-Flag)
```

Currently it knows about a handful of the most popular systems, but this will be expanded. The argument Hint is not currently used. It might be used in the future to provide runtime_loader_flag with additional information that can improve the accuracy of finding the right runtime flags for various systems.

The above predicate can be used as follows:

```prolog
...,
runtime_loader_flag(_,Flag),
fmt_write_string(LDoptions, '%sdir1:dir2:dir2 %s', args(Flag,OldLDoption)),
fmt_write(File, ':- ldoption(%s.).', LDoptions),
file_nl(File).
```

2.3 Passing Data between XSB and C

The XSB foreign language interface can be split in two parts. The basic interface supports the exchange of Prolog’s atomic data types (atoms, integers, and floating-point numbers). The advanced interface allows passing lists and terms between XSB and C.
2.3.1 Exchanging Basic Data Types

The basic interface assumes that correct modes (i.e., input or output) and types are being passed between C and the Prolog level. So, output unification should be explicitly performed in the Prolog level. The function prototypes should be declared before the corresponding functions are used. This is done by including the "cinterf.h" header file. Under Unix, the XSB foreign C interface automatically finds this file in the XSB/emu directory. Under Windows (including Cygwin), the user must compile and create the DLL out of the C file manually, so the compiler option ‘/I...\XSB\emu’ is necessary.

The following C functions are used to convert basic Prolog and C data types to each other.

```c
int ptoc_int(int N)
    Argument N is assumed to hold a Prolog integer, and this function returns its integer value in C format.

float ptoc_float(int N)
    Argument N is assumed to hold a Prolog floating point number, and this function returns its floating point value in C format. (Precision is less than single word floating point).

char *ptoc_string(int N)
    Argument N is assumed to hold a Prolog atom, and this function returns the C string (of type char *) that corresponds to this Prolog atom.

void ctop_int(int N, int V)
    Argument N is assumed to hold a Prolog free variable, and this function binds that variable to an integer of value V.

void ctop_float(int N, float V)
    Argument N is assumed to hold a Prolog free variable, and this function binds that variable to a floating point number of value V.

void ctop_string(int N, char * V)
    Argument N is assumed to hold a Prolog free variable, and this function binds that variable to a Prolog atom of value V. In C, V is of type char *.

Note that the atom of value V is not interned, i.e. it is not inserted into the Prolog atom table. For that reason, the string_find(char *V, int Insert) function should be used. Function string_find() searches the symbol table for the symbol, and if the symbol does not appear there and the value of Insert is non-zero, it inserts it. Thus, the most common use of this function is as follows:

```c
ctop_string(N, string_find(V, 1))
```

Refer to the example simple_foreign in the examples directory to see a use of this function.
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Examples of Using the Basic C interface

We end by a very simple example of using the foreign language interface of XSB. The programs above and below are programs simple_foreign.{H,c} in the examples directory.

```c
#include <math.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <alloca.h>

/*----- Make sure your C compiler finds the following header file. -----
----- The best way to do this is to include the directory XSB/emu -----
----- on compiler's command line with the -I (/I in Windows) option -----*/
#include "cinterf.h"

/*-----------------------------------------------*/

int minus_one(void)
{
    int i = ptoc_int(1);
    ctop_int(2, i-1);
    return TRUE;
}

/*-----------------------------------------------*/

int my_sqrt(void)
{
    int i = ptoc_int(1);
    ctop_float(2, (float) pow((double)i, 0.5));
    return TRUE;
}

/*-----------------------------------------------*/

int change_char(void)
{
    char *str_in;
    int  pos;
    int c;
    char *str_out;

    str_in = (char *) ptoc_string(1);
    str_out = (char *) alloca(strlen(str_in)+1);
    strcpy(str_out, str_in);
    pos = ptoc_int(2);
    ```
\texttt{c = ptoc\_int(3);}  
\texttt{if (c < 0 \textbar| c > 255) /* not a character */}  
\texttt{return FALSE; /* this predicate will fail on the Prolog side */}  
\texttt{str\_out[pos-1] = c;}  
\texttt{/* Now that we have constructed a new symbol, we must ensure that it}  
\texttt{appears in the symbol table. This can be done using function}  
\texttt{string\_find()} \texttt{that searches the symbol table for the symbol, and}  
\texttt{if the symbol does not appear there, it inserts it. If we are}  
\texttt{sure that the symbol already appeared in the symbol table there}  
\texttt{is no need to use string\_find().}  
\texttt{*/}  
\texttt{ctop\_string(4, (char *) string\_find(str\_out,1)); /* 1 = INSERT */}  
\texttt{return TRUE;} 

Here is a sample session illustrating the use of these files.

XSB Version 2.0 (Gouden Carolus) of June 26, 1999  
[i686-pc-linux-gnu; mode: optimal; engine: slg-wam; scheduling: batched]  
| ?- [simple\_foreign].  
[Compiling C file ./simple\_foreign.c using gcc]  
[Compiling Foreign Module ./simple\_foreign]  
[simple\_foreign compiled, cpu time used: 0.0099993 seconds]  
[simple\_foreign loaded]  

\texttt{yes}  
| ?- change\_char('Kostis', 2, 119, TempStr), \% 119 is w  
\texttt{change\_char(TempStr, 5, 104, GrkName). \% 104 is h}  

\texttt{TempStr = Kwstis}  
\texttt{GrkName = Kwsths;}  

\texttt{no}  
| ?- minus\_one(43, X).  
\texttt{X = 42;}  

\texttt{no}  
| ?- minus\_one(43, 42). % No output unification is allowed  
\texttt{Wrong arg in ctop\_int 2a2 (Reg = 2)}  

\texttt{yes}  
| ?- my\_sqrt(4,X).  
\texttt{X = 2}
yes
| ?- my_sqrt(23,X).

X = 4.7958;

no

There are additional sample programs in the examples directory that exhibit most of the features of the foreign language interface.

2.3.2 Exchanging Complex Data Types

The advanced XSB/Prolog interface uses only one data type: prolog_term. A Prolog term (as the name suggests) can be bound to any XSB term. On the C side, the type of the term can be checked and then processed accordingly. For instance, if the term turns out to be a structure, then it can be decomposed and the functor can be extracted along with the arguments. If the term happens to be a list, then it can be processed in a loop and each list member can be further decomposed into its atomic components. The advanced interface also provides functions to check the types of these atomic components and for converting them into C types.

As with the basic C interface, the file emu/cinterf.h must be included in the C program in order to make the prototypes of the relevant functions known to the C compiler.

The first set of functions is typically used to check the type of Prolog terms passed into the C program.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{xsbBool is\_attv((prolog\_term) T)} & \quad \text{is\_attv(T) returns TRUE if T represents an XSB attributed variable, and FALSE otherwise.} \\
\text{xsbBool is\_float((prolog\_term) T)} & \quad \text{is\_float(T) returns TRUE if T represents an XSB float value, and FALSE otherwise.} \\
\text{xsbBool is\_functor((prolog\_term) T)} & \quad \text{is\_functor(T) returns TRUE if T represents an XSB structure value (not a list), and FALSE otherwise.} \\
\text{xsbBool is\_int((prolog\_term) T)} & \quad \text{is\_int(T) returns TRUE if T represents an XSB integer value, and FALSE otherwise.} \\
\text{xsbBool is\_list((prolog\_term) T)} & \quad \text{is\_list(T) returns TRUE if T represents an XSB list value (not nil), and FALSE otherwise.} \\
\text{xsbBool is\_nil((prolog\_term) T)} & \quad \text{is\_nil(T) returns TRUE if T represents an XSB [] (nil) value, and FALSE otherwise.} \\
\text{xsbBool is\_string((prolog\_term) T)} & \quad \text{is\_string(T) returns TRUE if T represents an XSB atom value, and FALSE otherwise.}
\end{align*}
\]
xsbBool is_var((prolog_term) T)
    is_var(T) returns TRUE if T represents an XSB variable, and FALSE otherwise.

    After checking the types of the arguments passed in from the Prolog side, the next task usually
    is to convert Prolog data into the types understood by C. This is done with the following functions.
    The first three convert between the basic types. The last two extract the functor name and the
    arity. Extraction of the components of a list and the arguments of a structured term is explained
    later.

    int p2c_int((prolog_term) V)
        The prolog_term argument must represent an integer, and p2c_int returns the value of that
        integer.

    double p2c_float((prolog_term) V)
        The prolog_term argument must represent a floating point number, and p2c_float returns
        the value of that floating point number.

    char *p2c_string((prolog_term) V)
        The prolog_term argument must represent an atom, and p2c_string returns the name of
        that atom as a string. The pointer returned points to the actual atom name in XSB’s space,
        and thus it must NOT be modified by the calling program.

    char *p2c_functor((prolog_term) V)
        The prolog_term argument must represent a structured term (not a list). p2c_functor
        returns the name of the main functor symbol of that term as a string. The pointer returned
        points to the actual functor name in XSB’s space, and thus it must NOT be modified by the
        calling program.

    int p2c_arity((prolog_term) V)
        The prolog_term argument must represent a structured term (not a list). p2c_arity returns
        the arity of the main functor symbol of that term as an integer.

    The next batch of functions support conversion of data in the opposite direction: from basic C
    types to the type prolog_term. These c2p_* functions all return a boolean value TRUE if successful
    and FALSE if unsuccessful. The XSB term argument must always contain an XSB variable, which
    will be bound to the indicated value as a side effect of the function call.

    xsbBool c2p_int((int) N, (prolog_term) V)
        c2p_int binds the prolog_term V (which must be a variable) to the integer value N.

    xsbBool c2p_float((double) F, (prolog_term) V)
        c2p_float binds the prolog_term V (which must be a variable) to the (double) float value F.

    xsbBool c2p_string((char *) S, (prolog_term) V)
        c2p_string binds the prolog_term V (which must be a variable) to the atom whose name is
        the value of S, which must be of type char *. 
The following functions create Prolog data structures within a C program. This is usually done in order to pass these structures back to the Prolog side.

```c
xsbBool c2p_functor((char *) S, (int) N, (prolog_term) V)
    c2p_functor binds the prolog_term V (which must be a variable) to an open term whose main functor symbol is given by S (of type char *) and whose arity is N. An open term is one with all arguments as new distinct variables.

xsbBool c2p_list((prolog_term) V)
    c2p_list binds the prolog_term V (which must be a variable) to an open list term, i.e., a list term with both car and cdr as new distinct variables. Note: to create an empty list use the function c2p_nil described below.

xsbBool c2p_nil((prolog_term) V)
    c2p_nil binds the prolog_term V (which must be a variable) to the atom [] (nil).
```

```c
prolog_term p2p_new()
    Create a new Prolog variable. This is sometimes needed when you want to create a Prolog term on the C side and pass it to the Prolog side.
```

To use the above functions, one must be able to get access to the components of the structured Prolog terms. This is done with the help of the following functions:

```c
prolog_term p2p_arg((prolog_term) T, (int) A)
    Argument T must be a prolog_term that is a structured term (but not a list). A is a positive integer (no larger than the arity of the term) that specifies an argument position of the term T. p2p_arg returns the A\textsuperscript{th} subfield of the term T.

prolog_term p2p_car((prolog_term) T)
    Argument T must be a prolog_term that is a list (not nil). p2p_car returns the car (i.e., head of the list) of the term T.

prolog_term p2p_cdr((prolog_term) T)
    Argument T must be a prolog_term that is a list (not nil). p2p_cdr returns the cdr (i.e., tail of the list) of the term T.
```

It is very important to realize that these functions return the actual Prolog term that is, say, the head of a list or the actual argument of a structured term. Thus, assigning a value to such a prolog term also modifies the head of the corresponding list or the relevant argument of the structured term. It is precisely this feature that allows passing structured terms and lists from the C side to the Prolog side. For instance,

```c
prolog_term plist,       /* a Prolog list */
    /* something like f(a,b,c) */
structure;
prolog_term tail, arg;
............
```
tail = p2p_cdr(plist);    /* get the list tail */
arg = p2p_arg(structure, 2);  /* get the second arg */

/* Assume that the list tail was supposed to be a prolog variable */
if (is_var(tail))
    c2p_nil(tail);  /* terminate the list */
else {
    fprintf(stderr, "Something wrong with the list tail!");
    exit(1);
}

/* Assume that the argument was supposed to be a prolog variable */
c2p_string("abcdef", arg);

In the above program fragment, we assume that both the tail of the list and the second argument of the term were supposed to be bound to Prolog variables. In case of the tail, we check if this is, indeed, the case. In case of the argument, no checks are done; XSB will issue an error (which might be hard to track down) if the second argument is not currently bound to a variable.

The last batch of functions is useful for passing data in and out of the Prolog side of XSB. The first function is the only way to get a prolog term out of the Prolog side; the second function is sometimes needed in order to pass complex structures from C into Prolog.

prolog_term reg_term((int) R)

Argument R is an argument number of the Prolog predicate implemented by this C function (range 1 to 255). The function reg_term returns the prolog term in that predicate argument.

xsbBool p2p_unify(prolog_term T1, prolog_term T2)

Unify the two Prolog terms. This is useful when an argument of the Prolog predicate (implemented in C) is a structured term or a list, which acts both as input and output parameter.

For instance, consider the Prolog call test(X, f(Z)), which is implemented by a C function with the following fragment:

```c
prolog_term newterm, newvar, z_var, arg2;
...  
/* process argument 1 */
c2p_functor("func",1,reg_term(1));
c2p_string("str",p2p_arg(reg_term(1),1));  /* process argument 2 */
arg2 = reg_term(2);
z_var = p2p_arg(arg2, 1);  /* get the var Z */
/* bind newterm to abc(V), where V is a new var */
c2p_functor("abc", 1, newterm);
newvar = p2p_arg(newterm, 1);
newvar = p2p_new();
```
On exit, the variable $X$ will be bound to the term $\text{func}($str$)$. Processing argument 2 is more interesting. Here, argument 2 is used both for input and output. If $\text{test}$ is called as above, then on exit $Z$ will be bound to $\text{abc($h_{123}$)}$, where $h_{123}$ is some new Prolog variable. But if the call is $\text{test($X,f(1)$)}$ or $\text{test($X,f(Z,V)$)}$ then this call will fail (fail as in Prolog, i.e., it is not an error), because the term passed back, $\text{abc($h_{123}$)}$, does not unify with $f(1)$ or $f(Z,V)$. This effect is achieved by the use of $\text{p2p_unify}$ above.

We conclude with two real examples of functions that pass complex data in and out of the Prolog side of XSB. These functions are part of the Posix regular expression matching package of XSB. The first function uses argument 2 to accept a list of complex prolog terms from the Prolog side and does the processing on the C side. The second function does the opposite: it constructs a list of complex Prolog terms on the C side and passes it over to the Prolog side in argument 5.

/* XSB string substitution entry point: replace substrings specified in Arg2 with strings in Arg3.  
In:  
  Arg1: string  
  Arg2: substring specification, a list [s(B1,E1),s(B2,E2),...]  
  Arg3: list of replacement string  
Out:  
  Arg4: new (output) string  
  Always succeeds, unless error.  
*/
int do_regsubstitute__(void)
{
    /* Prolog args are first assigned to these, so we could examine the types  
    of these objects to determine if we got strings or atoms. */
    prolog_term input_term, output_term;
    prolog_term subst_reg_term, subst_spec_list_term, subst_spec_list_term1;
    prolog_term subst_str_term=(prolog_term)0,
        subst_str_list_term, subst_str_list_term1;
    char *input_string=NULL; /* string where matches are to be found */
    char *subst_string=NULL;
    prolog_term beg_term, end_term;
    int beg_offset=0, end_offset=0, input_len;
    int last_pos = 0; /* last scanned pos in input string */
    /* the output buffer is made large enough to include the input string and the  
    substitution string. */
    char subst_buf[MAXBUFSIZE];
    char *output_ptr;
    int conversion_required=FALSE; /* from C string to Prolog char list */
input_term = reg_term(1); /* Arg1: string to find matches in */
if (is_string(input_term)) /* check it */
    input_string = string_val(input_term);
else if (is_list(input_term)) {
    input_string =
        p_charlist_to_c_string(input_term, input_buffer, sizeof(input_buffer),
        "RE_SUBSTITUTE", "input string");
    conversion_required = TRUE;
} else
    xsb_abort("RE_SUBSTITUTE: Arg 1 (the input string) must be an atom or a character list");

input_len = strlen(input_string);

/* arg 2: substring specification */
subst_spec_list_term = reg_term(2);
if (!is_list(subst_spec_list_term) && !is_nil(subst_spec_list_term))
    xsb_abort("RE_SUBSTITUTE: Arg 2 must be a list [s(B1,E1),s(B2,E2),...]");

/* handle substitution string */
subst_str_list_term = reg_term(3);
if (!is_list(subst_str_list_term))
    xsb_abort("RE_SUBSTITUTE: Arg 3 must be a list of strings");

output_term = reg_term(4);
if (!is_var(output_term))
    xsb_abort("RE_SUBSTITUTE: Arg 4 (the output) must be an unbound variable");

subst_spec_list_term1 = subst_spec_list_term;
subst_str_list_term1 = subst_str_list_term;

if (is_nil(subst_spec_list_term1)) {
    strncpy(output_buffer, input_string, sizeof(output_buffer));
    goto EXIT;
}
if (is_nil(subst_str_list_term1))
    xsb_abort("RE_SUBSTITUTE: Arg 3 must not be an empty list");

/* initialize output buf */
output_ptr = output_buffer;
do {
    subst_reg_term = p2p_car(subst_spec_list_term1);
    subst_spec_list_term1 = p2p_cdr(subst_spec_list_term1);

    if (!is_nil(subst_str_list_term1)) {
CHAPTER 2. FOREIGN LANGUAGE INTERFACE

```c
subst_str_term = p2p_car(subst_str_list_term1);
subst_str_list_term1 = p2p_cdr(subst_str_list_term1);

if (is_string(subst_str_term)) {
    subst_string = string_val(subst_str_term);
} else if (is_list(subst_str_term)) {
    subst_string =
        p_charlist_to_c_string(subst_str_term, subst_buf, sizeof(subst_buf),
        "RE_SUBSTITUTE", "substitution string");
} else
    xsb_abort("RE_SUBSTITUTE: Arg 3 must be a list of strings");
}

beg_term = p2p_arg(subst_reg_term,1);
end_term = p2p_arg(subst_reg_term,2);

if (!is_int(beg_term) || !is_int(end_term))
    xsb_abort("RE_SUBSTITUTE: Non-integer in Arg 2");
else{
    beg_offset = int_val(beg_term);
    end_offset = int_val(end_term);
}
/* -1 means end of string */
if (end_offset < 0)
    end_offset = input_len;
if ((end_offset < beg_offset) || (beg_offset < last_pos))
    xsb_abort("RE_SUBSTITUTE: Substitution regions in Arg 2 not sorted");

/* do the actual replacement */
strncpy(output_ptr, input_string + last_pos, beg_offset - last_pos);
output_ptr = output_ptr + beg_offset - last_pos;
if (sizeof(output_buffer) > (output_ptr - output_buffer + strlen(subst_string)))
    strcpy(output_ptr, subst_string);
else
    xsb_abort("RE_SUBSTITUTE: Substitution result size %d > maximum %d",
            beg_offset + strlen(subst_string),
            sizeof(output_buffer));

last_pos = end_offset;
output_ptr = output_ptr + strlen(subst_string);
}
```

}`
strcat(output_ptr, input_string+end_offset);

EXIT:
/* get result out */
if (conversion_required)
c_string_to_p_charlist(output_buffer, output_term, "RE_SUBSTITUTE", "Arg 4");
else /* DO NOT intern. When atom table garbage collection is in place, then replace the instruction with this:
c2p_string(output_buffer, output_term);
The reason for not interning is that in Web page manipulation it is often necessary to process the same string many times. This can cause atom table overflow. Not interning allows us to circumvent the problem. */
ctop_string(4, output_buffer);
return(TRUE);
}

/* XSB regular expression matcher entry point
In:
Arg1: regexp
Arg2: string
Arg3: offset
Arg4: ignorecase
Out:
Arg5: list of the form [match(bo0,e00), match(bo1,e01),...]
    where bo*,eo* specify the beginning and ending offsets of the matched substrings.
    All matched substrings are returned. Parenthesed expressions are ignored.
*/
int do_bulkmatch__ (void)
{
    prolog_term listHead, listTail;
    /* Prolog args are first assigned to these, so we could examine the types of these objects to determine if we got strings or atoms. */
    prolog_term regexp_term, input_term, offset_term;
    prolog_term output_term = p2p_new();
    char *regexp_ptr=NULL;    /* regular expression ptr */
    char *input_string=NULL;  /* string where matches are to be found */
    int ignorecase=FALSE;
    int return_code, paren_number, offset;
    regmatch_t *match_array;
int last_pos=0, input_len;
char regexp_buffer[MAXBUFSIZE];

if (first_call)
    initialize_regexp_tbl();

regexp_term = reg_term(1); /* Arg1: regexp */
if (is_string(regexp_term)) /* check it */
    regexp_ptr = string_val(regexp_term);
else if (is_list(regexp_term))
    regexp_ptr =
        p_charlist_to_c_string(regexp_term, regexp_buffer, sizeof(regexp_buffer),
                               "RE_MATCH", "regular expression");
else
    xsb_abort("RE_MATCH: Arg 1 (the regular expression) must be an atom or a character list");

input_term = reg_term(2); /* Arg2: string to find matches in */
if (is_string(input_term)) /* check it */
    input_string = string_val(input_term);
else if (is_list(input_term)) {
    input_string =
        p_charlist_to_c_string(input_term, input_buffer, sizeof(input_buffer),
                               "RE_MATCH", "input string");
} else
    xsb_abort("RE_MATCH: Arg 2 (the input string) must be an atom or a character list");

input_len = strlen(input_string);

offset_term = reg_term(3); /* arg3: offset within the string */
if (! is_int(offset_term))
    xsb_abort("RE_MATCH: Arg 3 (the offset) must be an integer");
offset = int_val(offset_term);
if (offset < 0 || offset > input_len)
    xsb_abort("RE_MATCH: Arg 3 (%d) must be between 0 and %d", input_len);

/* If arg 4 is bound to anything, then consider this as ignore case flag */
if (! is_var(reg_term(4)))
    ignorecase = TRUE;

last_pos = offset;
/* returned result */
listTail = output_term;
while (last_pos < input_len) {
    c2p_list(listTail); /* make it into a list */
    listHead = p2p_car(listTail); /* get head of the list */
return_code = xsb_re_match(regexp_ptr, input_string+last_pos, ignorecase, 
    &match_array, &paren_number);

/* exit on no match */
if (! return_code) break;

/* bind i-th match to listHead as match(beg,end) */
c2p_functor("match", 2, listHead);
c2p_int(match_array[0].rm_so+last_pos, p2p_arg(listHead,1));
c2p_int(match_array[0].rm_eo+last_pos, p2p_arg(listHead,2));

listTail = p2p_cdr(listTail);
last_pos = match_array[0].rm_eo+last_pos;
}
c2p_nil(listTail); /* bind tail to nil */
return p2p_unify(output_term, reg_term(5));

2.4 High Level Foreign Predicate Interface

The high-level foreign predicate interface was designed to release the programmer from the burden of having to write low-level code to transfer data from XSB to C and vice-versa. Instead, all the user needs to do is to describe each C function and its corresponding Prolog predicates in the .H files. The interface then automatically generates the wrappers that translate Prolog terms and structures to proper C types, and vice-versa. The wrappers are then automatically used when the foreign predicates are compiled.¹

2.4.1 Declaration of high level foreign predicates

The basic format of a foreign predicate declaration is:

\[
:- \text{foreign pred } \text{predname}([+-]\text{parg1}, [+-]\text{parg2}, \ldots) \\
\text{from funcname(carg1:type1, carg2:type2, \ldots):functype.}
\]

where:

predname
is the name of the foreign predicate. This is the name of the Prolog predicate that will be created.

parg1, parg2, ...
are the predicate arguments. Each argument is preceded by either '+' or '-', indicating its

¹Please see the special instructions for Windows.
mode as input or output respectively. The names of the arguments must be the same as those used in the declaration of the corresponding C function. If a C argument is used both for input and output, then the corresponding Prolog argument can appear twice: once with “+” and once with “-”. Also, a special argument *retval* is used to denote the argument that corresponds to the return value of the C function; it must always have the mode ‘-’.

**funcname**

is the name of the C function being *wrapped*. This is the C function given by the user, which will be exported as a Prolog foreign predicate.

**carg1, carg2, ...**

is the list of arguments of the C function. The names used for the arguments must match the names used in the Prolog declaration.

**type1, type2, ...**

are the types associated to the arguments of the C function. This is not the set of C types, but rather a set of descriptive types, as defined in Table 2.4.1.

**functype**

is the return type of the C function.

Table 2.4.1 provides the correspondence between the types allowed on the C side of a foreign module declaration and the types allowed on the Prolog side of the declaration.

In all modes and types, checks are performed to ensure the types of the arguments. Also, all arguments of type ‘-’ are checked to be free variables at call time.

### 2.5 Compiling Foreign Modules on Windows and under Cygwin

Due to the complexity of creating makefiles for the different compilers under Windows, XSB doesn’t attempt to compile and build DLL’s for the Windows foreign modules automatically. However, for almost all typical cases the user should be able to easily adapt the sample makefile for Microsoft VC++:

```
XSB/examples/XSB_calling_c/MakefileForCreatingDLLs
```

It is important that the C program will have the following lines near the top of the file:

```c
#include "xsb_config.h"
#ifdef WIN_NT
#define XSB_DLL
#endif
#include "cinterf.h"
```

Note that these same DLLs will work under Cygwin — XSB’s C interface under Cygwin is like that under Windows rather than Unix.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptive Type</th>
<th>Mode Usage</th>
<th>Associated C Type</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>int</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>int</td>
<td>integer numbers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>float</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>double</td>
<td>floating point numbers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atom</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>unsigned long</td>
<td>atom represented as an unsigned long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chars</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>char</td>
<td>the textual representation of an atom is passed to C as a string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chars(size)</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>char</td>
<td>the textual representation of an atom is passed to C as a string in a buffer of size size</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>string</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>char</td>
<td>a prolog list of characters is passed to C as a string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>string(size)</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>char</td>
<td>a prolog list of characters is passed to C as a string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>term</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>prolog_term</td>
<td>the unique representation of a term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intptr</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>int *</td>
<td>the location of a given integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>floatptr</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>double *</td>
<td>the location of a given floating point number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomptr</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>unsigned long *</td>
<td>the location of the unique representation of a given atom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>charsptr</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>char **</td>
<td>the location of the textual representation of an atom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stringptr</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>char **</td>
<td>the location of the textual representation of a list of characters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>termptr</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>prolog_term *</td>
<td>the location of the unique representation of a term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intptr</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>int *</td>
<td>the integer value returned is passed to Prolog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>floatptr</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>double *</td>
<td>the floating point number is passed back to Prolog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>charsptr</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>char **</td>
<td>the string returned is passed to Prolog as an atom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stringptr</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>char **</td>
<td>the string returned is passed back as a list of characters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomptr</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>unsigned long *</td>
<td>the number returned is passed back to Prolog as the unique representation of an atom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>termptr</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>prolog_term *</td>
<td>the number returned is passed to Prolog as the unique representation of a term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chars(size)</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>char</td>
<td>the atom is copied from Prolog to a buffer, passed to C and converted back to Prolog afterwards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>string(size)</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>char</td>
<td>the list of characters is copied from Prolog to a buffer, passed to C and back to Prolog afterwards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intptr</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>int *</td>
<td>an integer is passed from Prolog to C and from C back to Prolog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>floatptr</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>double *</td>
<td>a float number is passed from Prolog to C, and back to Prolog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomptr</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>unsigned long *</td>
<td>the unique representation of an atom is passed to C, and back to Prolog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>charsptr</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>char **</td>
<td>the atom is passed to C as a string, and a string is passed to Prolog as an atom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stringptr</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>char **</td>
<td>the list of characters is passed to C, and a string passed to Prolog as a list of characters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>termptr</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>prolog_term *</td>
<td>the unique representation of a term is passed to C, and back to Prolog</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1: Allowed combinations of types and modes, and their meanings
If the above makefile cannot be adapted, then the user has to create the DLL herself. The process is, roughly, as follows: first, compile the module from within XSB. This will create the XSB-specific object file, and (if using the higher-level C interface) the wrappers. The wrappers are created in a file named \texttt{xsb\_wrap\_modulename\_c}.

Then, create a project, using the compiler of choice, for a dynamically-linked library that exports symbols. In this project, the user must include the source code of the module along with the wrapper created by XSB. This DLL should be linked against the library

\begin{verbatim}
XSB\config\x86-pc-windows\bin\xsb.lib
\end{verbatim}

which is distributed with XSB. In VC++, this library should be added as part of the linkage specification. In addition, the following directories for included header files must be specified as part of the preprocessor setup:

\begin{verbatim}
XSB\config\x86-pc-windows
XSB\prolog\includes
XSB\emu
\end{verbatim}

In VC++, make sure you check off the “No precompiled headers” box as part of the “Precompiled headers” specification. All these options are available through the \texttt{Project>>Settings} menu item.
Chapter 3

Calling XSB from C

There are many situations in which it may be desirable to use XSB as a rule-processing subcomponent of a larger system, which is written in another language. To do this, one wants to be able to call XSB from the host language, often C, providing queries for XSB to evaluate and retrieving back the answers. An interface for calling XSB from C (or other language) is provided for this purpose and is described in this chapter. Simple examples of the use of this interface are given in the XSB/examples/c/calling_XSB subdirectory, in files cmain.c, cmain2.c, ctest.P, and Makefile.

3.1 C Functions for Calling XSB

XSB provides several C functions (declared in XSB/emu/cinterf.h and defined in XSB/emu/cinterf.c), which can be called from C to interact with XSB as a subroutine. These functions allow a C program to initialize XSB (most easily with a call to xsb_init_string(options)) and then to interact with XSB to have it execute commands or queries. A command is a deterministic query which simply succeeds or fails (without returning any interesting data value.) A non-deterministic query can be evaluated so that its answers are retrieved one at a time, as they are produced. There are several levels of interface provided. The highest level interface uses the XSB-specific C-type definition for variable-length strings (Section 3.2), to communicate queries to XSB and to get answers back. The xsb_command_string(cmd) function allows you to pass a command as a (period-terminated) string to XSB. The xsb_query_string_string(query,buff,sep) function allows you to pass a query to XSB as a string, and have its (first) answer returned as a string. Subsequent answers can be calculated and retrieved using xsb_next_string(buff,sep).

The second level provides routines that return answers with an interface that does not require variable-length strings. The routines at this level are:

- xsb_query_string_string(b(query,buff,bufflen,anslen,sep),
- xsb_next_string(b(buff,bufflen,anslen,sep), and
- xsb_get_last_answer(buff,bufflen,anslen).
They are normally intended to be used with the initialization routines above.

There are lower-level interfaces that allow you to manipulate directly the XSB data structures (both to construct queries and to retrieve answers) and thus avoid the overhead of converting to and from strings. See the detailed descriptions of the routines below to see how to use the lower level interface.

Currently, only one query can be active at a time. I.e., one must completely finish processing one query (either by retrieving all the answers for it, or by issuing a call to `xsb_close_query()`), before trying to evaluate another. The routines to perform all these functions are described below:

```c
int xsb_init(int argc, char *argv[])

This is a C-callable function that initializes XSB. It must be called before any other calls can be made. `argc` is the count of the number of arguments in the `argv` vector. The `argv` vector is exactly as would be passed from the command line to XSB. It must contain at least the following two things:

- `argv[0]` must be an absolute or relative path name of the XSB installation directory (i.e., `$XSB_DIR`). Here is an example, which assumes that we invoke the C program from the XSB installation directory.

```c
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    int myargc = 2;
    char *myargv[2];

    /* XSB_init relies on the calling program to pass the addr of the XSB
        installation directory. From here, it will find all the libraries */
    myargv[0] = ".";
    myargv[1] = "-n";

    /* Initialize xsb */
    xsb_init(myargc,myargv);
```

- `argv[1]` must be the `-n` flag. This flag tells XSB not to start the read-eval-print top loop, but to act as a subroutine to a calling C routine.

Other flags are optional, but can be used to modify sizes of the various spaces used in XSB. `xsb_init` returns 0 if initialization is completed, and 1 if an error is encountered.

```c
int xsb_init_string(char *options)

This is a variant of `xsb_init` which takes the command line as a string argument (rather than as a argc/argv pair.) For example, a call could be

```c
xsb_init_string(". -n");
```

Note that just as with `xsb_init`, you must pass the path name of the XSB installation directory. In the above, we pass ".", assuming that we are invoking the C program from the
CHAPTER 3. CALLING XSB FROM C

XSB installation directory. The parameters following the file name are just as those that could appear on a command line. The function of this subroutine is exactly the same as `xsb_init`, and its return codes are the same.

```c
int xsb_command()
```

This function passes a command to XSB. No query can be active when this command is called. Before calling `xsb_command`, the calling program must construct the XSB term representing the command in register 1 in XSB’s space. This can be done by using the `c2p_` (and `p2p_`) routines, which are described in Section 2.3.2 below. Register 2 may also be set before the call to `xsb_query` (using `xsb_make_vars(int)` and `xsb_set_var_*(0)`) in which case any variables set to values in the `ret/n` term will be so bound in the call to the command goal. `xsb_command` invokes the command represented in register 1 and returns 0 if the command succeeds and 1 if it fails. In either case it resets register 1 back to a free variable. If there is an error, it returns 2.

```c
int xsb_command_string(char *cmd)
```

This function passes a command to XSB. The command is a string consisting of a term that can be read by the XSB reader. The string must be terminated by a period (.). Any previous query must have already been closed. In all other respects, `xsb_command_string` is similar to `xsb_command`.

```c
int xsb_query()
```

This function passes a query to XSB. Any previous query must have already been closed. A query is expected to return possibly multiple data answers. The first is found and made available to the caller as a result of this call. To get subsequent answers, `xsb_next` must be called. Before calling `xsb_query` the caller must construct the term representing the query in XSB’s register 1 (using routines described in Section 2.3.2 below.) If the query has no answers (i.e., just fails), register 1 is set back to a free variable and `xsb_query` returns 1. If the query has at least one answer, the variables in the query term in register 1 are bound to those answers and `xsb_query` returns 0. In addition, register 2 is bound to a term whose main functor symbol is `ret/n`, where n is the number of variables in the query. The main subfields of this term are set to the variable values for the first answer. (These fields can be accessed by the functions `p2c_`, or the functions `xsb_var_`, described in Section 2.3.2 below.) Thus there are two places the answers are returned. Register 2 is used to make it easier to access them. To get subsequent answers, `xsb_next` must be called. Register 2 may also be set before the call to `xsb_query` (using `xsb_make_vars(int)` and `xsb_set_var_*(0)`) in which case any variables set to values in the `ret/n` term will be so bound in the call to the goal.

```c
int xsb_query_string(char *query)
```

This function passes a query to XSB. The query is a string consisting of a term that can be read by the XSB reader. The string must be terminated with a period (.). Any previous query must have already been closed. In all other respects, `xsb_query_string` is similar to `xsb_query`, except the only way to retrieve answers is through Register 2. The ability to create the return structure and bind variables in it is particularly useful in this function.

```c
int xsb_query_string_string(char *query, VarString *buff, char *sep)
```

This function is a variant of `xsb_query_string` that returns its answer (if there is one) as a
string. An example call is:

```c
rc = xsb_query_string_string("append(X,Y,[a,b,c]).","buff",";");
```

The first argument is the period-terminated query string. The second argument is a variable string buffer in which the subroutine returns the answer (if any.) The variable string data type `VarString` is explained in Section 3.2. (Use the following function if you cannot declare a parameter of this type in your programming language.) The last argument is a string provided by the caller, which is used to separate fields in the returned answer. For the example query, `buff` would be set to the string:

```
[ ];[a,b,c]
```

which is the first answer to the append query. There are two fields of this answer, corresponding to the two variables in the query, `X` and `Y`. The bindings of those variables make up the answer and the individual fields are separated by the `sep` string, here the semicolon (`;`). Its returns are just as for `xsb_query_string`. In the answer string, XSB atoms are printed in their in their standard print form (without quotes). Complex terms are printed in a canonical form, with atoms quoted if necessary, and lists produced in the normal list notation.

```c
int xsb_query_string_string_b(char *query, char *buff, int bufflen, int *anslen, char *sep)
```

This function provides a lower-level interface to `xsb_query_string_string` (not using the `VarString` type), which makes it easier for non-C callers (such as Visual Basic or Delphi) to access XSB functionality. The first and last arguments are the same as in `xsb_query_string_string`. The `buff`, `bufflen`, and `anslen` parameters are used to pass the answer (if any) back to the caller. `buff` is a buffer provided by the caller in which the answer is returned. `bufflen` is the length of the buffer (`buff`) and is provided by the caller. `anslen` is returned by this routine and is the length of the computed answer. If that length is less than `bufflen`, then the answer is put in `buff` (and null-terminated). If the answer is longer than will fit in the buffer (with the null terminator), then the answer is not copied to the buffer and 3 is returned. In this case the caller can retrieve the answer by providing a bigger buffer (of size greater than the returned `anslen`) in a call to `xsb_get_last_answer_string`.

```c
int xsb_get_last_answer_string(char *buff, int bufflen, int *anslen)
```

This function is used only when a call to `xsb_query_string_string_b` or to `xsb_next_string_b` returns a 3, indicating that the buffer provided was not big enough to contain the computed answer. In that case the user may allocate a larger buffer and then call this routine to retrieve the answer (that had been saved.) Only one answer is saved, so this routine must called immediately after the failing call in order to get the right answer. The parameters are the same as the 2nd through 4th parameters of `xsb_query_string_string_b`.

```c
int xsb_next()
```

This routine is called after `xsb_query` (which must have returned 0) to retrieve more answers. It rebinds the query variables in the term in register 1 and rebinds the argument fields of the `ret/n` answer term in register 2 to reflect the next answer to the query. It returns 0 if an
answer is found, and returns 1 if there are no more answers and no answer is returned. On a return of 1, the query has been closed. After a query is closed, another \texttt{xsb\_command} or \texttt{xsb\_query} invocation can be made.

\begin{verbatim}
int xsb\_next\_string(VarString *buff, char *sep)
    This routine is a variant of \texttt{xsb\_next} that returns its answer (if there is one) as a string. Its treatment of answers is just as \texttt{xsb\_query\_string\_string}. For example after the example call

    rc = xsb\_query\_string\_string("append(X,Y,[a,b,c]).",buff,";");

which returns with buff set to

    [];[a,b,c]

Then a call:

    rc = xsb\_next\_string(buff,";");

returns with buff set to

    [a];[b,c]

the second answer to the indicated query. \texttt{xsb\_next\_string} returns codes just as \texttt{xsb\_next}.

int xsb\_next\_string\_b(char *buff, int bufflen, int *anslen, char *sep)
    This routine is a variant of \texttt{xsb\_next\_string} that does not use the \texttt{VarString} type. Its parameters are the same as the 2nd through 5th parameters of \texttt{xsb\_query\_string\_string\_b}. The next answer to the current query is returned in \texttt{buff}, if there is enough space. If the buffer would overflow, this routine returns 3, and the answer can be retrieved by providing a larger buffer in a call to \texttt{xsb\_get\_last\_answer\_string\_b}. In any case, the length of the answer is returned in \texttt{anslen}.

int xsb\_close\_query()
    This routine closes a query, before all its answers have been retrieved. Since XSB is (usually) a tuple-at-a-time system, answers that are not retrieved are not computed. It is an error to call \texttt{xsb\_query} again without first either retrieving all the answers to the previous query or calling \texttt{xsb\_close\_query} to close it.

int xsb\_close()
    This routine closes the entire connection to XSB. After this, no more calls can be made (including calls to \texttt{xsb\_init}.)
3.2 The Variable-length String Data Type

XSB uses variable-length strings to communicate with certain C subroutines when the size of the output that needs to be passed from the Prolog side to the C side is not known. Variable-length strings adjust themselves depending on the size of the data they must hold and are ideal for this situation. For instance, as we have seen the two subroutines `xsb_query_string_string(query, buff, sep)` and `xsb_next_string(buff, sep)` use the variable string data type, `VarString`, for their second argument. To use this data type, make sure that

```c
#include "cinterf.h"
```

appears at the top of the program file. Variables of the `VarString` type are declared using a macro that must appear in the declaration section of the program:

```c
XSB_StrDefine(buf);
```

There is one important consideration concerning `VarString` with the `automatic` storage class: they must be destroyed on exit (see `XSB_StrDestroy`, below) from the procedure that defines them, or else there will be a memory leak. It is not necessary to destroy static `VarString`'s.

The public attributes of the type are `int length` and `char *string`. Thus, `buf.string` represents the actual contents of the buffer and `buf.length` is the length of that data. Although the length and the contents of a `VarString` string is readily accessible, the user must not modify these items directly. Instead, he should use the macros provided for that purpose:

- `XSB_StrSet(VarString *vstr, char *str)`: Assign the value of the regular null-terminated C string to the `VarString vstr`. The size of `vstr` is adjusted automatically.
- `XSB_StrSetV(VarString *vstr1, VarString *vstr2)`: Like `XSB_StrSet`, but the second argument is a variable-length string, not a regular C string.
- `XSB_StrAppend(VarString *vstr, char *str)`: Append the null-terminated string `str` to the `VarString vstr`. The size of `vstr` is adjusted.
- `XSB_StrPrepend(VarString *vstr, char *str)`: Like `XSB_StrAppend`, except that `str` is prepended.
- `XSB_StrAppendV(VarString *vstr1, VarString *vstr2)`: Like `XSB_StrAppend`, except that the second string is also a `VarString`.
- `XSB_StrPrependV(VarString *vstr1, VarString *vstr2)`: Like `XSB_StrAppendV`, except that the second string is prepended.
- `XSB_StrCompare(VarString *vstr1, VarString *vstr2)`: Compares two `VarString`. If the first one is lexicographically larger, then the result is positive; if the first string is smaller, than the result is negative; if the two strings have the same content (i.e., `vstr1->string` equals `vstr2->string` then the result is zero.
• XSB_StrCmp(VarString *vstr, char *str): Like XSB_StrCompare but the second argument is a regular, null-terminated string.

• XSB_StrAppendBlk(VarString *vstr, char *blk, int size): This is like XSB_StrAppend, but the second argument is not assumed to be null-terminated. Instead, size characters pointed to by blk are appended to vstr. The size of vstr is adjusted, but the content is not null terminated.

• XSB_StrPrependBlk(VarString *vstr, char *blk, int size): Like XSB_StrPrepend, but blk is not assumed to point to a null-terminated string. Instead, size characters from the region pointed to by blk are prepended to vstr.

• XSB_StrNullTerminate(VarString *vstr): Null-terminates the VarString string vstr. This is used in conjunction with XSB_StrAppendBlk, because the latter does not null-terminate variable-length strings.

• XSB_StrEnsureSize(VarString *vstr, int minsize): Ensure that the string has room for at least minsize bytes. This is a low-level routine, which is used to interface to procedures that do not use VarString internally. If the string is larger than minsize, the size might actually shrink to the nearest increment that is larger minsize.

• XSB_StrShrink(VarString *vstr, int increment): Shrink the size of vstr to the minimum necessary to hold the data. increment becomes the new increment by which vstr is adjusted. Since VarString is automatically shrunk by XSB_StrSet, it is rarely necessary to shrink a VarString explicitly. However, one might want to change the adjustment increment using this macro (the default increment is 128).

• XSB_StrDestroy(VarString *vstr): Destroys a VarString. Explicit destruction is necessary for VarString’s with the automatic storage class. Otherwise, memory leak is possible.

### 3.3 Passing Data into an XSB Module

The previous chapter described the low-level XSB/C interface that supports passing the data of arbitrary complexity between XSB and C. However, in cases when data needs to be passed into an executable XSB module by the main C program, the following higher-level interface should suffice. (This interface is actually implemented using macros that call the lower level functions.) These routines can be used to construct commands and queries into XSB’s register 1, which is necessary before calling xsb_query() or xsb_command().

```c
void xsb_make_vars((int) N)
    xsb_make_vars creates a return structure of arity N in Register 2. So this routine may called before calling any of xsb_query, xsb_query_string, xsb_command, or xsb_command_string if parameters are to be set to be sent to the goal. It must be called before calling one of the xsb_set_var_* routines can be called. N must be the number of variables in the query that is to be evaluated.
```
void xsb_set_var_int((int) Val, (int) N)
    set_and_int sets the $N^{th}$ field in the return structure to the integer value $Val$. It is used to set the value of the $N^{th}$ variable in a query before calling `xsb_query` or `xsb_query_string`. When called in XSB, the query will have the $N^{th}$ variable set to this value.

void xsb_set_var_string((char *) Val, (int) N)
    set_and_string sets the $N^{th}$ field in the return structure to the atom with name $Val$. It is used to set the value of the $N^{th}$ variable in a query before calling `xsb_query` or `xsb_query_string`. When called in XSB, the query will have the $N^{th}$ variable set to this value.

void xsb_set_var_float((float) Val, (int) N)
    set_and_float sets the $N^{th}$ field in the return structure to the floating point number with value $Val$. It is used to set the value of the $N^{th}$ variable in a query before calling `xsb_query` or `xsb_query_string`. When called in XSB, the query will have the $N^{th}$ variable set to this value.

prolog_int xsb_var_int((int) N)
    xsb_var_int is called after `xsb_query` or `xsb_query_string` returns an answer. It returns the value of the $N^{th}$ variable in the query as set in the returned answer. This variable must have an integer value (which is cast to `long` in a 64-bit architecture).

char* xsb_var_string((int) N)
    xsb_var_string is called after `xsb_query` or `xsb_query_string` returns an answer. It returns the value of the $N^{th}$ variable in the query as set in the returned answer. This variable must have an atom value.

prolog_float xsb_var_float((int) N)
    xsb_var_float is called after `xsb_query` or `xsb_query_string` returns an answer. It returns the value of the $N^{th}$ variable in the query as set in the returned answer. This variable must have a floating point value (which is cast to `double` in a 64-bit architecture).

### 3.4 Creating an XSB Module that Can be Called from C

To create an executable that includes calls to the above C functions, these routines, and the XSB routines that they call, must be included in the link (ld) step.

**Unix instructions:** You must link your C program, which should include the main procedure, with the XSB object file located in

```
$XSB_DIR/config/<your-system-architecture>/saved.o/xsb.o
```

Your program should include the file `cinterf.h` located in the XSB/emu subdirectory, which defines the routines described earlier, which you will need to use in order to talk to XSB. It is therefore recommended to compile your program with the option `-I$XSB_DIR/XSB/emu`. 
The file `$XSB_DIR/config/your-system-architecture/modMakefile` is a makefile you can use to build your programs and link them with XSB. It is generated automatically and contains all the right settings for your architecture, but you will have to fill in the name of your program, etc.

It is also possible to compile and link your program with XSB using XSB itself as follows:

```prolog
:- xsb_configuration(compiler_flags,CFLAGS),
    xsb_configuration(loader_flags,LDFLAGS),
    xsb_configuration(config_dir,CONFDIR),
    xsb_configuration(emudir,EMUDIR),
    xsb_configuration(compiler,Compiler),
    str_cat(CONFDIR, '/saved.o/', ObjDir),
    write('Compiling myprog.c ... '),
    shell([Compiler, ' -I', EMUDIR, ' -c ', CFLAGS, ' myprog.c ']),
    shell([Compiler, ' -o ', './myprog ', ObjDir, 'xsb.o ', ' myprog.o ', LDFLAGS]),
    writeln(done).
```

This works for every architecture and is often more convenient than using the make files.

There are simple examples of C programs calling XSB in the `$XSB_DIR/examples/c/calling_XSB` directory, in files `cmain.c`, `ctest.P`, `cmain2.c`.

**Windows instructions:** To call XSB from C, you must build it as a DLL, which is done as follows:

```
cd $XSB_DIR\XSB\build
makexsb_wind DLL="yes"
```

The DLL, which you can call dynamically from your program is then found in

```
$XSB_DIR\config\x86-pc-windows\bin\xsb.dll
```

Since your program must include the file `cinterf.h`, it is recommended to compile it with the option `/I$XSB_DIR\XSB\emu.`
Chapter 4

XSB - Oracle Interface

By Hassan Davulcu and Ernie Johnson

4.1 Introduction

The XSB - Oracle interface provides the programmer with two levels of interaction. The first, relation level interface, offers a tuple-at-a-time retrieval of information from the Oracle tables. The second, view level interface, can translate an entire Prolog clause into a single SQL query to the Oracle, including joins and aggregate operations.

This interface allows Oracle tables to be accessed from XSB’s environment as though they existed as facts. All database accesses are done on the fly allowing XSB to sit alongside other concurrent tasks.

Our interface gives an Oracle programmer all the features of Prolog as a query language including intensional database specification, recursion, the ability to deal with incomplete knowledge, inference control through the cut operation, and the representation of negative knowledge through negation.

4.1.1 Interface features

- Concurrent access for multiple XSB systems to Oracle 7.1.3 running under Solaris
- Full data access and cursor transparency including support for
  - Full data recursion through XSB’s tabling mechanism
  - Runtime type checking
  - Automatic handling of NULL values for insertion, deletion and querying
  - Partial recovery for cursor losses due to cuts
- Full access to Oracle’s SQLplus including
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- Transaction support
- Cursor reuse for cached SQL statements with bind variables (by avoiding re-parsing and re-declaring).
- Caching compiler generated SQL statements with bind variables and efficient cursor management for cached statements

- A powerful Prolog / SQL compiler based on [8].
- Full source code availability for ports to other versions of Oracle or other platforms
- Independence from database schema by employing relation level
- Performance as SQL by employing view level
- No mode specification is required for optimized view compilation

4.2 Installation

General information on XSB installation procedures can be found in Chapter 2 of Volume 1 of the XSB Programmer’s Manual. The following instructions build upon that foundation, and assume that Oracle component(s) are currently installed.

Unix instructions:

1. Set the environment variable LDFLAGS to indicate the Oracle libraries needed to build the system. For instance:

   LDFLAGS=-lclntsh -lcommon -lcore4 -lnlsrtl3

   or

   setenv LDFLAGS "-lclntsh -lcommon -lcore4 -lnlsrtl3"

depending on the shell that you are using. We have found that the required libraries are frequently dependent upon the version of Oracle, the version of any additional Oracle component — such as SQL*Net — and possibly the operating system. Hence, they will likely differ from those shown. We further warn that the order in which the libraries are listed may be important. We have also witnessed that certain libraries may require multiple listings. Please refer to your Oracle documentation.

2. Change directory to $XSB_DIR/build and run the XSB configuration script, configure, with the options

   --with-oracle --site-static-libraries=OracleLibPath

where OracleLibPath is the directory that contains the Oracle client libraries.

With some configurations, compilation of Pro*C files requires that you use a C compiler other than the default one. If such is the case, then additionally pass the option
--with-cc=compiler

to configure, indicating that compiler compiler should instead be used.

As a final measure, if Oracle include files cannot be located automatically, then employ the option

--site-includes=OracleHeaderPath

where OracleHeaderPath is the directory that contains the Oracle client header files.

Note the final message that configure produces before completing. It indicates how you should invoke makexsb to build an Oracle-enabled version of XSB (step 4).

3. Change directory to $XSB_DIR/emu and create the file orastuff.c from orastuff.pc by invoking the Pro*C preprocessor:

make -f proc.mk orastuff.c

A sample makefile, proc.mk, is provided, but you should use the one included with your version of Oracle. This used to be found with sample SQL*Plus and Pro*C files in the Oracle installation hierarchy.

Note: this file may provide insight into the library paths and linking options required by your Oracle installation.

4. Run makexsb as directed by the message displayed at the end of the run of the configure script (from step 2).

If errors ensue, then review the cause(s) and consider employing the additional options mentioned in step 2. If one or more are appropriate, then apply them, repeating this process from that step.

When makexsb completes, it will provide you with the name of the XSB executable. Unless you have used the configuration option

--config-tag=

this will likely be ../bin/xsb-ora.

Windows instructions: To build XSB with Oracle support, type the following in the emu directory:

NMAKE /f "MS_VC_Mfile.mak" CFG="release" ORACLE="yes" SITE_LIBS="libraries"

The SITE_LIBS parameter should include the list of necessary Oracle support libraries (per Oracle instructions). When the compiler is done, the XSB executable is found in its usual place:

$XSB_DIR\config\x86-pc-windows\bin\xsb.exe
CHAPTER 4. XSB - ORACLE INTERFACE

4.3 Using the Interface

Begin by starting XSB and loading the interface:

| ?- [ora_call].

4.3.1 Connecting to and disconnecting from Oracle

Assuming the Oracle server is running, you have an account, and the environment variables ORACLE_SID and ORACLE_HOME are set, you can login to Oracle by invoking db_open/1 as:

| ?- db_open(oracle(Name, Password)).

If the login is successful, there will be a response of yes.

To reach a remote server you can use:

| ?- db_open(oracle('Name@dblink', Password)).

where dblink contains the machine name, and optionally the protocol and server instance name. For example

| ?- db_open(oracle('SCOTT@T:compserv1gw:INST', 'TIGER')).

indicates to the runtime system that we want to contact an Oracle server instance on the host compserv1gw, whose ORACLE_SID is INST, using the TCP/IP protocol. Further, we want to access that database as the user SCOTT with password TIGER.

To disconnect from the current session use:

| ?- db_close.

4.3.2 Accessing an Oracle Table: Relation Level Interface

Assuming you have access permission for the table you wish to import, you can use db_import/2 as:

| ?- db_import('TABLENAME'('FIELD1', 'FIELD2', .., 'FIELDn'), 'Pname').

where 'TABLENAME' is the name of the table you wish to access and 'Pname' is the name of the predicate you wish to use to access the table from XSB. 'FIELD1' through 'FIELDn' are the exact attribute names as defined in the database catalog. The chosen attributes define the view and the order of arguments for the database predicate 'Pname'. For example, to create a link to the DEPT table through the 'dept' predicate:
Backtracking can then be used to retrieve the next row of the table DEPT.

Records with particular field values may be selected in the same way as in Prolog. (In particular, no mode specification for database predicates is required). For example:

\[
\text{?- dept(A, 'ACCOUNTING', C).}
\]
generates the query:

\[
\text{SELECT DEPTNO, LOC FROM DEPT rel1 WHERE rel1.DNAME = :BIND1;}
\]

and

\[
\text{?- dept('NULL'(_, 'ACCOUNTING', C).}
\]
generates: (See section 4.3.7)

\[
\text{SELECT NULL , rel1.DNAME , rel1.LOC FROM DEPT rel1 WHERE rel1.DEPTNO IS NULL AND rel1.DNAME = :BIND1;}
\]

During the execution of this query the :BIND1 variable will be bound to 'ACCOUNTING'.

If a field includes a quote (') then this should be represented by using two quotes.

Note that the relation level interface can be used to define and access simple project views of single tables. For example:

\[
\text{?- db_import('DEPT'('DEPTNO', 'DNAME'), deptview).}
\]
defines deptview/2.

The predicate \text{db\_import/2} (and other Oracle interface predicates) automatically asserts data dictionary information. You can use the Prolog predicate \text{listing/2} to see the asserted data dictionary information at any time.

Note: as a courtesy to Quintus Prolog users we have provided compatibility support for some PRODBI predicates which access tables at a relational level.
CHAPTER 4. XSB - ORACLE INTERFACE

i) \[?-\] db\_attach(Pname, table(Tablename)).

   eg. execute

   \[?-\] db\_attach(dept, table('DEPT')).

then execute

\[?-\] dept(Depno, Dname, Loc).

to retrieve the rows.

ii) \[?-\] db\_record('DEPT', R).

   \[R = [20,RESEARCH,DALLAS];\]

   \[R = ...\]

You can use \texttt{db\_record/2} to treat the whole database row as a single list structure.

4.3.3 View Level Interface

The view level interface can be used for the definition of rules whose bodies includes only imported database predicates (by using the relation level interface) described above and aggregate predicates (defined below). In this case, the rule is translated into a complex database query, which is then executed taking advantage of the query processing ability of the database system.

One can use the view level interface through the predicate \texttt{db\_query/2}:

\[?-\] db\_query('Rulename'(Arg1, ... , Argn), DatabaseGoal).

All arguments are standard Prolog terms. \texttt{Arg1} through \texttt{Argn} defines the attributes to be retrieved from the database, while \texttt{DatabaseGoal} defines the selection restrictions and join conditions.

The compiler is a simple extension of [8] which generates SQL queries with bind variables and handles NULL values as described below (see section 4.3.7). It allows negation, the expression of arithmetic functions, and higher-order constructs such as grouping, sorting, and aggregate functions.

Database goals are translated according to the following rules from [8]:

- Disjunctive goals translate to distinct SQL queries connected through the UNION operator.
- Goal conjunctions translate to joins.
• Negated goals translate to negated EXISTS subqueries.
• Variables with single occurrences in the body are not translated.
• Free variables translate to grouping attributes.
• Shared variables in goals translate to equi-join conditions.
• Constants translate to equality comparisons of an attribute and the constant value.
• Nulls are translated to IS NULL conditions.

For more examples and implementation details see the demo in $XSB\_DIR/\texttt{examples/xsb\_ora\_demo.P}$, and [8].

In the following, we show the definition of a simple join view between the two database predicates $\text{emp}$ and $\text{dept}$.

Assuming the declarations:

\begin{verbatim}
| ?- db_import('EMP'(\texttt{'ENAME'},\texttt{'JOB'},\texttt{'SAL'},\texttt{'COMM'},\texttt{'DEPTNO'}),emp).
| ?- db_import('DEPT'(\texttt{'DEPTNO'},\texttt{'DNAME'},\texttt{'LOC'}),dept).
use:
| ?- db_query(rule1(Ename,Dept,Loc),
  (emp(Ename,_,_,_,Dept),dept(Dept,Dname,Loc))).
yes
| ?- rule1(Ename,Dept,Loc).
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
generates the SQL statement:

SELECT rel1.ENAME , rel1.DEPTNO , rel2.LOC
FROM emp rel1 , DEPT rel2
WHERE rel2.DEPTNO = rel1.DEPTNO;

Ename = CLARK
Dept = 10
Loc = NEW YORK

Backtracking can then be used to retrieve the next row of the view.

| ?- rule1('CLARK',Dept,'NULL'(\_)).
\end{verbatim}
generates the SQL statement:

```
SELECT rel1.ENAME , rel1.DEPTNO , NULL
FROM emp rel1 , DEPT rel2
WHERE rel1.ENAME = :BIND1 AND rel2.DEPTNO = rel1.DEPTNO AND rel2.LOC IS NULL;
```

The view interface also supports aggregate functions predicates sum, avg, count, min and max.
For example

```
?- db_query(a(X),(X is avg(Sal,A1 ^ A2 ^ A4 ^ A5 ^ emp(A1,A2,Sal,A4,A5)))).
```

yes.
```
?- a(X).
```

generates the query:

```
SELECT AVG(rel1.SAL)
FROM emp rel1;
```

```
X = 2023.2
```

yes

A more complicated example:

```
?- db_query(harder(A,B,D,E,S),
           (emp(A,B,S,E,D),
            not dept(D,P,C),
            not (A = 'CAROL'),
            S > avg(Sal,A1 ^ A2 ^ A4 ^ A5 ^ A6 ^ A7 ^(emp(A1,A2,Sal,A4,A5),
              dept(A5,A7,A6),
              not (A1 = A2)))).
```

```
?- harder(A,B,D,E,S).
```

generates the SQL query:

```
SELECT rel1.ENAME , rel1.JOB , rel1.DEPTNO , rel1.COMM , rel1.SAL
```
FROM emp rel1
WHERE NOT EXISTS
 (SELECT *
  FROM DEPT rel2
  WHERE rel2.DEPTNO = rel1.DEPTNO)
  AND rel1.ENAME <> 'CAROL'
  AND rel1.SAL >
(SELECT AVG(rel3.SAL)
  FROM emp rel3 , DEPT rel4
  WHERE rel4.DEPTNO = rel3.DEPTNO
  AND rel3.ENAME <> rel3.JOB);

A = SCOTT
B = ANALYST
D = 50
E = NULL(null1)
S = 2300

All database rules defined by db_query can be queried with any mode: For example:

| ?- harder(A,'ANALYST',D,'NULL'(.),S).

generates the query:

SELECT rel1.ENAME , rel1.JOB , rel1.DEPTNO , NULL , rel1.SAL
FROM emp rel1
WHERE rel1.JOB = :BIND1 AND rel1.COMM IS NULL AND NOT EXISTS
 (SELECT *
  FROM DEPT rel2
  WHERE rel2.DEPTNO = rel1.DEPTNO
  ) AND rel1.ENAME <> 'CAROL' AND rel1.SAL >
(SELECT AVG(rel3.SAL)
  FROM emp rel3 , DEPT rel4
  WHERE rel4.DEPTNO = rel3.DEPTNO AND rel3.ENAME <> rel3.JOB);

A = SCOTT
D = 50
S = 2300;

no
Notice that at each call to a database relation or rule, the communication takes place through bind variables. The corresponding restrictive SQL query is generated, and if this is the first call with that adornment, it is cached. A second call with same adornment would try to use the same database cursor if still available, without parsing the respective SQL statement. Otherwise, it would find an unused cursor and retrieve the results. In this way efficient access methods for relations and database rules can be maintained throughout the session.

4.3.4 Connecting to an SQL query

It is also possible to connect to any SQL query using the `db_sql_select/2` predicate which takes an SQL string as its input and returns a list of field values. For example:

```prolog
?- db_sql_select('SELECT * FROM EMP',L).
L = [7369,SMITH,CLERK,7902,17-DEC-80,800,NULL,20];
L = etc ...
```

And you can use `db_sql/1` for any other non-query SQL statement request. For example:

```prolog
?- db_sql('create table test ( test1 number, test2 date')).
yes
```

4.3.5 Insertions and deletions of rows

Inserts are communicated to the database array at a time. To flush the buffered inserts one has to invoke `flush/0` at the end of his inserts.

For setting the size of the input array See section 4.3.6.

Assuming you have imported the related base table using `db_import/2`, you can insert to that table by using `db_insert/2` predicate. The first argument is the declared database predicate for insertions and the second argument is the imported database relation. The second argument can be declared with with some of its arguments bound to constants. For example assuming `empall` is imported through `db_import`:

```prolog
?- db_import('EMP'( 'EMPNO','ENAME','JOB','MGR','HIREDATE','SAL','COMM', 'DEPTNO'), empall).
yes
?- db_insert(emp_ins(A1,A2,A3,A4,A5,A6,A7),(empall(A1,A2,A3,A4,A5,A6,A7,10))).
```
Inserts the row: 9001,NULL,'qqq',9999,'14-DEC-88',8888,NULL,10 Note that any call to \texttt{emp_ins/7} should have all its arguments bound.

See section 4.3.7 for information about NULL values.

Deletion of rows from database tables is supported by the \texttt{db_delete/2} predicate. The first argument is the declared delete predicate and the second argument is the imported database relation with the condition for requested deletes, if any. The condition is limited to simple comparisons. For example assuming \texttt{dept/3} is imported as above:

\begin{verbatim}
| ?- db_delete(dept_del(A), (dept(A,'ACCOUNTING',B), A > 10)).

yes
\end{verbatim}

After this declaration you can use:

\begin{verbatim}
| ?- dept_del(10).

yes
\end{verbatim}

to generate the SQL statement:

\begin{verbatim}
DELETE DEPT rel1
WHERE rel1.DEPTNO = :BIND1
    AND rel1.DNAME = 'ACCOUNTING'
    AND rel1.DEPTNO > 10;
\end{verbatim}

Note that you have to commit your inserts or deletes to tables to make them permanent. (See section 4.3.11).

\subsection*{4.3.6 Input and Output arrays}

To enable efficient array at a time communication between the XSB client and the database server we employ input and output buffer areas.

The input buffer size specifies the size of the array size to be used during insertions. The output buffer size specifies the size of the array size to be used during queries. The default sizes of these arrays are set to 200. The sizes of these arrays can be queried by \texttt{stat_flag/2} and they can be modified by \texttt{stat_set_flag/2}. The flag number assigned for input array length is 58 and the flag number assigned for output array length is 60.
4.3.7 Handling NULL values

The interface treats NULL’s by introducing a single valued function ‘NULL’/1 whose single value is a unique (Skolem) constant. For example a NULL value may be represented by

‘NULL’(null123245)

Under this representation, two distinct NULL values will not unify. On the other hand, the search condition IS NULL Field can be represented in XSB as Field = ‘NULL’(_)

Using this representation of NULL’s the following protocol for queries and updates is established.

Queries

\[
\text{?- dept('NULL'(null2745),_,_).} \rightarrow \text{fails always.}
\]

Generates the query:

SELECT NULL , rel1.DNAME , rel1.LOC
FROM DEPT rel1
WHERE rel1.DEPTNO IS NULL;

Hence, ‘NULL’(_)_ can be used to retrieve rows with NULL values at any field.
‘NULL’/1 fails the predicate whenever it is used with a bound argument.

\[
\text{?- dept('NULL'(null2745),_,_).} \rightarrow \text{fails always.}
\]

Query Results

When returning NULL’s as field values, the interface returns NULL/1 function with a unique integer argument serving as a skolem constant.

Notice that the above guarantees the expected semantics for the join statements. In the following example, even if Deptno is NULL for some rows in emp or dept tables, the query still evaluates the join successfully.

\[
\text{?- emp(Enamel_,_,_,_,Deptno),dept(Deptno,Dname,Loc)_.}
\]

Inserts

To insert rows with NULL values you can use Field = ‘NULL’(_) or Field = ‘NULL’(null2346). For example:
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| ?- emp_ins('NULL'(_), ...). → inserts a NULL value for ENAME
| ?- emp_ins('NULL'('bound'), ...). → inserts a NULL value for ENAME.

Deletes

To delete rows with NULL values at any particular FIELD use Field = 'NULL'(_), 'NULL'/1 with a free argument. When 'NULL'/1's argument is bound it fails the delete predicate always. For example:

| ?- emp_del('NULL'(_), ..). → adds ENAME IS NULL to the generated SQL statement
| ?- emp_del('NULL'('bound'), ...). → fails always

The reason for the above protocol is to preserve the semantics of deletes, when some free arguments of a delete predicate get bound by some preceding predicates. For example in the following clause, the semantics is preserved even if the Deptno field is NULL for some rows.

| ?- emp(_,_,_,_,_,Deptno), dept_del(Deptno).

4.3.8 Data dictionary

The following utility predicates access the data dictionary. Users of Quintus Prolog may note that these predicates are all PRODBI compatible. The following predicates print out the indicated information:

**db_show_schema(accessible)** Shows all accessible table names for the user. This list can be long!

**db_show_schema(user)** Shows just those tables that belongs to you.

**db_show_schema(tuples('TABLE'))** Shows the contents of the base table named 'TABLE'.

**db_show_schema(arity('TABLE'))** The number of fields in the table 'TABLE'.

**db_show_schema(columns('TABLE'))** The field names of a table.

For retrieving above information use:

- `db_get_schema(accessible,List)`
- `db_get_schema(user,List)`
- `db_get_schema(tuples('TABLE'),List)`
- `db_get_schema(arity('TABLE'),List)`
- `db_get_schema(columns('TABLE'),List)`

The results of above are returned in List as a list.
4.3.9 Other database operations

\[\text{db_create_table}'('TABLE\_NAME', 'FIELDS')'\]  
FIELDS is the field specification as in SQL.

\[\text{eg. db_create_table}'('DEPT', 'DEPTNO NUMBER(2), DNAME VARCHAR2(14), LOC VARCHAR2(13)')'.\]

\[\text{db_create_index}'('TABLE\_NAME', 'INDEX\_NAME', index(_,Fields))'\]  
Fields is the list of columns for which an index is requested. For example:

\[\text{db_create_index}'('EMP', 'EMP\_KEY', index(_, 'DEPTNO, EMPNO')).'\]

\[\text{db_delete_table}'('TABLE\_NAME')'\]  
To delete a table named 'TABLE\_NAME'

\[\text{db_delete_view}'('VIEW\_NAME')'\]  
To delete a view named 'VIEW\_NAME'

\[\text{db_delete_index}'('INDEX\_NAME')'\]  
To delete an index named 'INDEX\_NAME'

These following predicates are the supported PRODBI syntax for deleting and inserting rows:

\[\text{db_add_record}'('DEPT', [30, 'SALES', 'CHICAGO'])'\]  
arguments are a list composed of field values and the table name to insert the row.

\[\text{db_delete_record}'('DEPT', [40, _])'\]  
to delete rows from 'DEPT' matching the list of values mentioned in second argument.

For other SQL statements use \text{db_sql} with the SQL statement as the first argument. For example:

\[\text{db_sql}'('grant connect to fred identified by bloggs').'\]

4.3.10 Interface Flags

If you wish to see the SQL query generated by the interface use the predicate \text{db_flag}/3. The first parameter indicates the function you wish to change. The second argument is the old value, and the third argument specifies the new value. For example:

\[| ?- \text{db_flag}(\text{show_query}, \text{Old}, \text{on}).\]

\[\text{Old} = \text{off}\]
CHAPTER 4. XSB - ORACLE INTERFACE

SQL statements will now be displayed for all your queries (the default). To turn it off use 
\texttt{db\_flag(show\_query, on, off)}.

To enable you to control the error behavior of either the interface or Oracle database use 
\texttt{db\_flag/3} with \texttt{fail\_on\_error} as first argument. For example:

\texttt{| ?- db\_flag(fail\_on\_error, on, off)} Gives all the error control to you, (default), hence all 
requests to Oracle returns true. You have to check each action of yours and take the responsibility for your actions. (See 4.3.12)

\texttt{| ?- db\_flag(fail\_on\_error, off, on)} Interface fails whenever something goes wrong.

4.3.11 Transaction management

Normally any changes to the database will not be committed until the user disconnects from the database. In order to provide the user with some control over this process, \texttt{db\_transaction/1} is provided.

\texttt{db\_transaction(commit)} Commits all transactions up to this point.

\texttt{db\_transaction(rollback)} Rolls back all transactions since the last commit.

Other services provided by Oracle such that \texttt{SET TRANSACTION} can be effected by using \texttt{db\_sql/1}.

Note that depending on Oracle’s MODE of operation some or all data manipulation statements may execute a commit statement implicitly.

4.3.12 SQLCA interface

You can use \texttt{db\_SQLCA/2} predicate to access the SQLCA for error reporting or other services.

\texttt{db\_SQLCA(Comm, Res)} Where Comm is any one of the below and Res is the result from Oracle.

- \texttt{SQLCODE}: The most recent error code
- \texttt{SQLERRML}: Length of the most recent error msg
- \texttt{SQLERRMC}: The error msg

\texttt{eg. | ?- db\_SQLCA(’SQLERRD’(2), Rows).}

returns in \texttt{Rows} number of rows processed by the most recent statement.

For \texttt{SQLCAID}, \texttt{SQLCABC}, \texttt{SQLERRP}, \texttt{’SQLERRD’(0)} to \texttt{’SQLERRD’(5)}, \texttt{’SQLWARN’(0)} to \texttt{’SQLWARN’(5)}, \texttt{’SQLEXT’} see \texttt{ORACLE’s C PRECOMPILER} user’s manual.
4.3.13 Datalog

You can write recursive Datalog queries with exactly the same semantics as in XSB using imported database predicates or database rules. For example assuming `db_parent/2` is an imported database predicate, the following recursive query computes its transitive closure.

```
:- table(ancestor/2).
ancestor(X,Y) :- db_parent(X,Y).
ancestor(X,Z) :- ancestor(X,Y), db_parent(Y,Z).
```

4.3.14 Guidelines for application developers

1. Try to group your database predicates and use the view level interface to generate efficient SQL queries.

2. Avoid cuts over cursors since they leave cursors open and can cause a leak of cursors.

3. Whenever you send a query get all the results sent by the Oracle by backtracking to avoid cursor leaks. This interface automatically closes a cursor only after you retrieve the last row from the active set.

4. Try to use tabled database predicates for caching database tables.

4.4 Demo

A file demonstrating most of the examples introduced here is included with this installation in the `examples` directory. Load the package and call the goal `go/2` to start the demo which is self documenting. Do not forget to load `ora_call.P` first.

```
| ?- [ora_call].
| ?- [ora_demo].
[ora_demo loaded]
```

```
yes
| ?- go(user, passwd).
```

where user is your account name, and passwd is your passwd.

4.5 Limitations

The default limit on open cursors per session in most Oracle installations is 50, which is also the default limit for our interface. There is also a limit imposed by the XSB interface of 100 cursors,
which can be changed upon request. If your Oracle installation allows more than 50 cursors but less than 100 then change the line

```
#define MAX_OPEN_CURSORS 20
```

in XSB_DIR/emu/orastuff.pc to your new value, and uncomment enough many cases to match the above number of cursors plus one, in the switch statements. Currently this number is 21. Then re-build the system. In XSB_DIR/emu/orastuff.pc we provide code for up to 100 cursors. The last 80 of these cursors are currently commented out.

### 4.6 Error msgs

**ERR - DB: Connection failed** For some reason you can not connect to Oracle.

- Diagnosis: Try to see if you can run sqlplus. If not ask your Oracle admin about it.

**ERR - DB: Parse error** The SQL statement generated by the Interface or the first argument to `db_sql/1` or `db_sql_select/2` can not be parsed by the Oracle. The character number is the location of the error.

- Diagnosis: Check your SQL statement. If our interface generated the erroneous statement please contact us at xsb-contact@cs.sunysb.edu.

**ERR - DB: No more cursors left** Interface run out of non-active cursors either because of a leak (See 4.3.14) or you have more then MAX_OPEN_CURSORS concurrently open searches.

- Diagnosis: System fails always with this error. `db.transaction(rollback)` or `db.transaction(commit)` should resolve this by freeing all cursors. Please contact us for more help since this error is fatal for your application.

**ERR - DB: FETCH failed** Normally you should never get this error if the interface running properly.

- Diagnosis: Please contact us at xsb-contact@cs.sunysb.edu

### 4.7 Future work

We plan to write a precompiler to detect base conjunctions (a sequence of database predicates and arithmetic comparison predicates) to build larger more restrictive base conjuncts by classical methods of rule composition, predicate exchange etc. and then employ the view level interface to generate more efficient queries and programs. Also we want to explore the use of tabling for caching of data and queries for optimization.

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Chapter 5

XSB-ODBC Interface

By Baoqiu Cui, Lily Dong, and David S. Warren

5.1 Introduction

The XSB-ODBC interface is a subsystem that allows XSB users to access databases through ODBC connections. This is mostly of interest to Microsoft Windows users. The interface allows XSB users to access data in any ODBC compliant database management system (DBMS). Using this uniform interface, information in different DBMS’s can be accessed as though it existed as Prolog facts. The XSB-ODBC interface provides users with three levels of interaction: an SQL level, a relation level and a view level. The SQL level allows users to write explicit SQL statements to be passed to the interface to retrieve data from a connected database. The relation level allows users to declare XSB predicates that connect to individual tables in a connected database, and which when executed support tuple-at-a-time retrieval from the base table. The view level allows users to use a complex XSB query, including conjunction, negation and aggregates, to specify a database query. A listing of the features that the XSB-ODBC interface provides is as follows:

- Concurrent access from multiple XSB processes to a single DBMS
- Access from a single XSB process to multiple ODBC DBMS’s
- Full data access and cursor transparency including support for
  - Full data recursion through XSB’s tabling mechanism (depending on the capabilities of the underlying ODBC driver.
  - Runtime type checking
  - Automatic handling of NULL values for insertion, deletion and querying
- Full access to data source including
  - Transaction support
– Cursor reuse for cached SQL statements with bind variables (thereby avoiding re-parsing and re-optimizing).
– Caching compiler generated SQL statements with bind variables and efficient cursor management for cached statements

• A powerful Prolog / SQL compiler based on [8].
• Full source code availability
• Independence from database schema by the relation level interface
• Performance as SQL by employing a view level
• No mode specification is required for optimized view compilation

We use the Hospital database as our example to illustrate the usage of XSB-ODBC interface in this manual. We assume the basic knowledge of Microsoft ODBC interface and its ODBC administrator throughout the text. Please refer to “Inside Windows™ 95” (or more recent documentation) for information on this topic.

5.2 Using the Interface

The XSB-ODBC module is a module and as such exports the predicates it supports. In order to use any predicate defined below, it must be imported from odbc_call. For example, before you can use the predicate to open a data source, you must include:

:- import odbc_open/3 from odbc_call.

5.2.1 Connecting to and Disconnecting from Data Sources

Assuming that the data source to be connected to is available, i.e. it has an entry in ODBC.INI file which can be checked by running Microsoft ODBC Administrator, it can be connected to in the following way:

| ?- odbc_open(data_source_name, username, passwd).

If the connection is successfully made, the predicate invocation will succeed. This step is necessary before anything can be done with the data sources since it gives XSB the opportunity to initialize system resources for the session.

This is an executable predicate, but you may want to put it as a query in a file that declares a database interface and will be loaded.

To close the current session use:

| ?- odbc_close.
and XSB will give all the resources it allocated for this session back to the system.

If you are connecting to only one data source at a time, the predicates above are sufficient. However, if you want to connect to multiple data sources at the same time, you must use extended versions of the predicates above. When connecting to multiple sources, you must give an atomic name to each source you want to connect to, and use that name whenever referring to that source. The names may be chosen arbitrarily but must be used consistently. The extended versions are:

\[
\text{?- odbc_open(data_source_name, username, passwd, connectionName).}
\]

and

\[
\text{?- odbc_close(connectionName).}
\]

A list of existing Data Source Names and descriptions can be obtained by backtracking through odbc_data_sources/2. For example:

\[
\text{?- odbc_data_sources(DSN,DSNDescr).}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{DSN} & = \text{myoms} \\
\text{DSNDescr} & = \text{MySQL driver}; \\
\text{DSN} & = \text{mywinoms} \\
\text{DSNDescr} & = \text{TDS driver (Sybase/MS SQL)};
\end{align*}
\]

### 5.2.2 Accessing Tables in Data Sources Using SQL

There are several ways that can be used to extract information from or modify a table in a data source. The most basic way is to use predicates that pass an SQL statement directly to the ODBC driver. The basic call is:

\[
\text{?- odbc_sql(BindVals,SQLStmt,ResultRow).}
\]

where \text{BindVals} is a list of (ground) values that correspond to the parameter indicators in the SQL statement (the ’?’s); \text{SQLStmt} is an atom containing an SQL statement; and \text{ResultRow} is a returned list of values constituting a row from the result set returned by the SQL query. Thus for a select SQL statement, this call is nondeterministic, returning each retrieved row in turn.

The \text{BindVals} list should have a length corresponding to the number of parameters in the query, in particular being the empty list ([]) if \text{SQLStmt} contains no ’?’s. If \text{SQLStmt} is not a select statement returning a result set, then \text{ResultRow} will be the empty list, and the call is deterministic. Thus this predicate can be used to do updates, DDL statements, indeed any SQL statement.

\text{SQLStmt} need not be an atom, but can be a (nested) list of atoms which flattens (or concatenates) to form an SQL statement.

When connecting to multiple data sources, you should use the form:
For example, we can define a predicate, `get_test_name_price`, which given a test ID, retrieves the name and price of that test from the test table in the hospital database:

```
get_test_name_price(Id,Nam,Pri) :-
    odbc_sql([Id], 'SELECT TName, Price FROM Test WHERE TId = ?', [Nam,Pri]).
```

The interface uses a cursor to retrieve this result and caches the cursor, so that if the same query is needed in the future, it does not need to be re-parsed, and re-optimized. Thus, if this predicate were to be called several times, the above form is more efficient than the following form, which must be parsed and optimized for each and every call:

```
get_test_name_price(Id,Nam,Pri) :-
    odbc_sql([], ['SELECT TName, Price FROM Test WHERE TId = '''',Id, ''''], [Nam,Pri]).
```

Note that to include a quote (') in an atom, it must be represented by using two quotes.

### 5.2.3 Accessing Tables in Data Sources through the Relation Level

While all access to a database is possible using SQL as described above, the XSB-ODBC interface supports higher-level interaction for which the user need not know or write SQL statements; that is done as necessary by the interface. With the relation level interface, users can simply declare a predicate to access a table and the system generates the necessary underlying code, generating specialized code for each mode in which the predicate is called.

To declare a predicate to access a database table, a user must use the `odbc_import/2` interface predicate.

The syntax of `odbc_import/2` is as follows:

```
| ?- odbc_import('TableName'('FIELD1', 'FIELD2', ..., 'FIELDn'), 'PredicateName').
```

where `TableName` is the name of the database table to be accessed and `PredicateName` is the name of the XSB predicate through which access will be made. `FIELD1`, `FIELD2`, ..., `FIELDn` are the exact attribute names(case sensitive) as defined in the database table schema. The chosen columns define the view and the order of arguments for the database predicate `PredicateName`.

For example, to create a link to the `Test` table through the `test` predicate:

```
| ?- odbc_import('Test'('TId','TName','Length','Price'), test).
```

**yes**

When connecting to multiple data sources, you should use the form:
5.2.4 Using the Relation Level Interface

Once the links between tables and predicates have been successfully established, information can then be extracted from these tables using the corresponding predicates. Continuing from the above example, now rows from the table Test can be obtained:

\[
\text{?- test}(\text{TId, TName, L, P}).
\]

\[
\text{TId} = \text{t001} \\
\text{TName} = \text{X-Ray} \\
\text{L} = 5 \\
\text{P} = 100
\]

Backtracking can then be used to retrieve the next row of the table Test.

Records with particular field values may be selected in the same way as in Prolog; no mode specification for database predicates is required. For example:

\[
\text{?- test}(\text{TId, 'X-Ray', L, P}).
\]

will automatically generate the query:

\[
\text{SELECT rel1.TId, rel1.TName, rel1.Length, rel1.Price} \\
\text{FROM Test rel1} \\
\text{WHERE rel1.TName = ?}
\]

and

\[
\text{?- test('NULL'(_), 'X-Ray', L, P)}.
\]

generates: (See Section 4.3.7)

\[
\text{SELECT NULL, rel1.TName, rel1.Length, rel1.Price} \\
\text{FROM Test rel1} \\
\text{WHERE rel1.TId IS NULL AND rel1.TName = ?}
\]

During the execution of this query the bind variable ? will be bound to the value 'X-Ray'.

Also as a courtesy to Quintus Prolog users we have provided compatibility support for some PRODBI predicates which access tables at a relational level.
| ?- odbc_attach(PredicateName, table(TableName)).

eg. invoke

| ?- odbc_attach(test2, table('Test')).
and then execute

| ?- test2(TId, TName, L, P).
to retrieve the rows.

5.2.5 The View Level Interface

The view level interface can be used to define XSB queries which include only imported database
predicates (by using the relation level interface) described above and aggregate predicates (defined
below). When these queries are invoked, they are translated into complex database queries, which
are then executed taking advantage of the query processing ability of the DBMS.

One can use the view level interface through the predicate odbc_query/2:

| ?- odbc_query('QueryName'(ARG1, ..., ARGn), DatabaseGoal).

All arguments are standard XSB terms. ARG1, ARG2, ..., ARGn define the attributes to be retrieved
from the database, while DatabaseGoal is an XSB goal (i.e. a possible body of a rule) that defines
the selection restrictions and join conditions.

The compiler is a simple extension of [8] which generates SQL queries with bind variables and
handles NULL values as described in Section 4.3.7. It allows negation, the expression of arithmetic
functions, and higher-order constructs such as grouping, sorting, and aggregate functions.

Database goals are translated according to the following rules from [8]:

- Disjunctive goals translate to distinct SQL queries connected through the UNION operator.
- Goal conjunctions translate to joins.
- Negated goals translate to negated EXISTS subqueries.
- Variables with single occurrences in the body are not translated.
- Free variables translate to grouping attributes.
- Shared variables in goals translate to equi-join conditions.
- Constants translate to equality comparisons of an attribute and the constant value.
- Nulls are translated to IS NULL conditions.
For more examples and implementation details see [8].

In the following, we show the definition of a simple join view between the two database predicates Room and Floor.

Assuming the declarations:

```
?- odbc_import('Room'('RoomNo','CostPerDay','Capacity','FId'),room).
?- odbc_import('Floor'('FId','','FName'),floor).
```

use

```
?- odbc_query(query1(RoomNo,FName),
    (room(RoomNo,_,_,FId),floor(FId,_,FName))).
```

yes

```
?- query1(RoomNo,FloorName).
```

Prolog/SQL compiler generates the SQL statement:

```
SELECT rel1.RoomNo , rel2.FName FROM Room rel1 , Floor rel2
WHERE rel2.FId = rel1.FId;
```

Backtracking can then be used to retrieve the next row of the view.

```
?- query1('101','NULL'(_)).
```

generates the SQL statement:

```
SELECT rel1.RoomNo, NULL
FROM Room rel1 , Floor rel2
WHERE rel1.RoomId = ? AND rel2.FId = rel1.FId AND rel2.FName IS NULL;
```

The view interface also supports aggregate functions such as sum, avg, count, min and max. For example

```
?- odbc_import('Doctor'('DId', 'FId', 'DName','PhoneNo','ChargePerMin'),doctor).
```

yes

```
?- odbc_query(avgchargepermin(X),
    (doctor(DId,FId,DName,PhoneNo,ChargePerMin))).
```

yes
(X is avg(ChargePerMin, A1 ^ A2 ^ A3 ^ A4 ^
doctor(A1,A2, A3,A4,ChargePerMin)))).

yes
| ?- avgchargepermin(X).

SELECT AVG(rel1.ChargePerMin)
FROM doctor rel1;
X = 1.64

yes

A more complicated example is the following:

| ?- odbc_query(nonsense(A,B,C,D,E),
  (doctor(A, B, C, D, E),
   not floor('First Floor', B),
   not (A = 'd001'),
   E > avg(ChargePerMin, A1 ^ A2 ^ A3 ^ A4 ^
     (doctor(A1, A2, A3, A4, ChargePerMin))))).

| ?- nonsense(A,'4',C,D,E).

SELECT rel1.DId , rel1.FId , rel1.DName , rel1.PhoneNo , rel1.ChargePerMin
FROM doctor rel1
WHERE rel1.FId = ? AND NOT EXISTS
  (SELECT *
   FROM Floor rel2
   WHERE rel2.FName = 'First Floor' and rel2.FId = rel1.FId
  ) AND rel1.Did <> 'd001' AND rel1.ChargePerMin >
  (SELECT AVG(rel3.ChargePerMin)
   FROM Doctor rel3
  );

A = d004
C = Tom Wilson
D = 516-252-100
E = 2.5

All database queries defined by odbc_query can be queried with any mode.

Note that at each call to a database relation or rule, the communication takes place through
bind variables. The corresponding restrictive SQL query is generated, and if this is the first call
with that adornment, it is cached. A second call with same adornment would try to use the same
database cursor if still available, without reparsing the respective SQL statement. Otherwise, it
would find an unused cursor and retrieve the results. In this way efficient access methods for
relations and database rules can be maintained throughout the session.

If connecting to multiple data sources, use the form:

```prolog
:- odbc_query(connectionName,'QueryName' (ARG1, ..., ARGn), DatabaseGoal).
```

### 5.2.6 Insertions and Deletions of Rows through the Relational Level

Insertion and deletion operations can also be performed on an imported table. The two predicates to
accomplish these operations are `odbc_insert/2` and `odbc_delete/2`. The syntax of `odbc_insert/2`
is as follows: the first argument is the declared database predicate for insertions and the second
argument is some imported data source relation. The second argument can be declared with some
of its arguments bound to constants. For example after `Room` is imported through `odbc_import`:

```prolog
|?- odbc_import('Room'('RoomNo','CostPerDay','Capacity','FId'), room).
  yes

  Now we can do

  | ?- odbc_insert(room_ins(A1,A2,A3), (room(A1,A2,A3,'3'))).
    yes
    | ?- room_ins('306','NULL'(_),2).
      yes
```

This will insert the row: ('306',NULL, 2,'3') into the table `Room`. Note that any call to `room_ins/7`
should have all its arguments bound.

See Section 4.3.7) for information about NULL value handling.

The first argument of `odbc_delete/2` predicate is the declared delete predicate and the second
argument is the imported data source relation with the condition for requested deletes, if any. The
condition is limited to simple comparisons. For example assuming `Room/3` has been imported as
above:

```prolog
|?- odbc_delete(room_del(A), (room('306',A,B,C), A > 2)).
  yes
```

After this declaration you can use:
| ?- room_del(3).

to generate the SQL statement:

```
DELETE From Room rel1
```

Note that you have to commit your inserts or deletes to tables to make them permanent. (See section 5.2.9).

These predicates also have the form in which an additional first argument indicates a connection, for use with multiple datasources.

Also, some ODBC drivers have been found that do not accept the form of SQL generated for deletes. In these cases, you must use the lower-level interface: `odbc_sql`.

### 5.2.7 Access to Data Dictionaries

The following utility predicates provide users the tools to access data dictionaries. Users of Quintus Prolog may note that these predicates are all PRODBI compatible. A brief description of these predicates is as follows:

- `odbc_show_schema(accessible(Owner))` Shows the names of all accessible tables that are owned by Owner. (This list can be long!) If Owner is a variable, all tables will be shown, grouped by owner.

- `odbc_show_schema(user)` Shows just those tables that belongs to user.

- `odbc_show_schema(tuples('Table'))` Shows the contents of the base table named 'Table'.

- `odbc_show_schema(arity('Table'))` The number of fields in the table 'Table'.

- `odbc_show_schema(columns('Table'))` The field names of a table.

For retrieving above information use:

- `odbc_get_schema(accessible(Owner),List)`

- `odbc_get_schema(user,List)`

- `odbc_get_schema(arity('Table'),List)`

- `odbc_get_schema(columns('Table'),List)`

The results of above are returned in List as a list.
5.2.8 Other Database Operations

odbc_create_table('TableName', 'FIELDS') FIELDS is the field specification as in SQL.

eg. odbc_create_table('MyTable', 'Col1 NUMBER,
    Col2 TEXT(50),
    Col3 TEXT(13')).

odbc_create_index('TableName', 'IndexName', index(_, Fields)) Fields is the list of columns for which an index is requested. For example:

odbc_create_index('Doctor', 'DocKey', index(_, 'DId')).

odbc_delete_table('TableName') To delete a table named 'TableName'

odbc_delete_view('ViewName') To delete a view named 'ViewName'

odbc_delete_index('IndexName') To delete an index named 'IndexName'

5.2.9 Transaction Management

Depending on how the transaction options are set in ODBC.INI for data sources, changes to the data source tables may not be committed (i.e., the changes become permanent) until the user explicitly issues a commit statement. Some ODBC drivers support autocommit, which, if on, means that every update operation is immediately committed upon execution. If autocommit is off, then an explicit commit (or rollback) must be done by the program to ensure the updates become permanent (or are ignored.).

The predicate odbc_transaction/1 supports these operations.

odbc_transaction(autocommit(on)) Turns on autocommit, so that all update operations will be immediately committed on completion.

odbc_transaction(autocommit(off)) Turns off autocommit, so that all update operations will not be committed until explicitly done so by the program (using one of the following operations.)

odbc_transaction(commit) Commits all transactions up to this point. (Only has an effect if autocommit is off).

odbc_transaction(rollback) Rolls back all update operations done since the last commit point. (Only has an effect if autocommit is off).
5.2.10 Handling NULL Values

Null value is handled in the same way as that of XSB Oracle interface. Please refer to Section 4.3.7 for details.

5.2.11 Interface Flags

Users are given the option to monitor the SQL queries generated by the interface and their execution status by using the predicate `odbc_flag/3`. The first parameter indicates the function to be changed. The second argument is the old value, and the third argument specifies the new value. For example:

```
| ?- odbc_flag(show_query, Old, on).

          Old = off

          SQL statements will now be displayed for all SQL queries (the default). To turn it off use odbc_flag(show_query, on, off). The default value for show_query is on.

          To control the error behavior of either the interface or data sources use odbc_flag/3 with fail_on_error as first argument. For example:

          | ?- odbc_flag(fail_on_error, on, off) Gives all the error control to users, hence all requests to data sources return true. It’s the users’ responsibility to check each of their actions and do error handling.

          | ?- odbc_flag(fail_on_error, on, on) Interface fails whenever error occurs.

          The default value of fail_on_error is on.
```

5.2.12 Datalog

Users can write recursive Datalog queries with exactly the same semantics as in XSB using imported database predicates or database rules. For example assuming `odbc_parent/2` is an imported database predicate, the following recursive query computes its transitive closure.

```
:- table(ancestor/2).
ancestor(X, Y) :- odbc_parent(X, Y).
ancestor(X, Z) :- ancestor(X, Y), odbc_parent(Y, Z).
```

This works with drivers that support multiple open cursors to the same connection at the same time. (Sadly, some don’t.) In the case of drivers that don’t support multiple open cursors, one can often replace each `odbc_import-ed predicate call`
...predForTable(A,B,C),...

by

...findall([A,B,C],predForTable(A,B,C),PredList),
member([A,B,C],PredList)...

and get the desired effect.

5.3 Limitation and Guidelines for Application Developers

Since XSB-ODBC interface is a simulation of XSB-ORACLE interface on UNIX platform, it inherits all limitations of the XSB-ORACLE interface, i.e. limited number of usable cursors, cursor leaking when using cuts and etc. Hence the guidelines for XSB-ORACLE interface application developers are also for XSB-ODBC interface application developers. Please refer to Sections 4.3 and 4.5 for details.

5.4 Error messages

ERR - DB: Connection failed For some reason the attempt to connect to data source failed.

- Diagnosis: Try to see if the data source has been registered with Microsoft ODBC Administrator, the username and password are correct and MAXCURSORNUM is not set to a very large number.

ERR - DB: Parse error The SQL statement generated by the Interface or the first argument to odbc_sql/1 or odbc_sql_select/2 can not be parsed by the data source driver.

- Diagnosis: Check the SQL statement. If our interface generated the erroneous statement please contact us at xsb-contact@cs.sunysb.edu.

ERR - DB: No more cursors left Interface run out of non-active cursors either because of a leak (See Section 4.3) or no more free cursors left.

- Diagnosis: System fails always with this error. odbc_transaction(rollback) or odbc_transaction(commit) should resolve this by freeing all cursors.

ERR - DB: FETCH failed Normally this error should not occur if the interface running properly.

- Diagnosis: Please contact us at xsb-contact@cs.sunysb.edu
5.5 Notes on specific ODBC drivers

MyODBC The ODBC driver for MySQL is called MyODBC, and it presents some particularities that should be noted.

First, MySQL, as of version 3.23.55, does not support strings of length greater than 255 characters. XSB’s ODBC interface has been updated to allow the use of the BLOB datatype to encode larger strings.

More importantly, MyODBC implements SQLDescribeCol such that, by default, it returns actual lengths of columns in the result table, instead of the formal lengths in the tables. For example, suppose you have, in table A, a field \( f \) declared as “VARCHAR (200)”. Now, you create a query of the form “SELECT \( f \) FROM A WHERE ...” If, in the result set, the largest size of \( f \) is 52, that’s the length that SQLDescribeCol will return. This breaks XSB’s caching of query-related datastructures. In order to prevent this behavior, you should configure your DSN setup so that you pass “Option=1” to MyODBC.
Chapter 6

Introduction to XSB Packages

An XSB package is a piece of software that extends XSB functionality but is not critical to programming in XSB. Around a dozen packages are distributed with XSB, ranging from simple meta-interpreters to complex software systems. Some packages provide interfaces from XSB to other software systems, such as Perl, SModels or Web interfaces (as in the libwww package). Others, such as the CLP(R) and Flora packages, extend XSB to different programming paradigms.

Each package is distributed in the $XSB_DIR/packages subdirectory, and has two parts: an initialization file, and a subdirectory in which package source code files and executables are kept. For example, the xsbdoc package has files xsbdoc.P, xsbdoc.xwam, and a subdirectory, xsbdoc. If a user doesn’t want to retain xsbdoc (or any other package) he or she may simply remove the initialization files and the associated subdirectory without affecting the core parts of the XSB system.

Several of the packages are documented in this manual in the various chapters that follow. However, many of the packages contain their own manuals. For these packages, we provide only a summary of their functionality in Chapter 11.
Chapter 7

XSB’s POSIX Regular Expression and Wildcard Matching Packages

By Michael Kifer

XSB has an efficient interface to POSIX pattern regular expression and wildcard matching functions. To take advantage of these features, you must build XSB using a C compiler that supports POSIX 1.0 (for regular expression matching) and the forthcoming POSIX 2.0 (for wildcard matching). The recent versions of GCC and SunPro compiler will do, as probably will many other compilers. This also works under Windows, provided you install Cygnus’ CygWin and use GCC to compile.

7.1 regmatch: Regular Expression Matching and Substitution

The following discussion assumes that you are familiar with the syntax of regular expressions and have a reasonably good idea about their capabilities. One easily accessible description of POSIX regular expressions is found in the on-line Emacs manual.

The regular expression matching functionality is provided by the package called Regmatch. To use it interactively, type:

    :- [regmatch].

If you are planning to use pattern matching from within an XSB program, then you need to include the following directive:

    :- import re_match/5, re_bulkmatch/5, re_substitute/4, re_substring/4, re_charlist_to_string/2 from regmatch.
Matching. The predicates `re_match/5` and `re_bulkmatch/5` perform regular expression matching. The predicate `re_substitute/4` replaces substrings in a list with strings from another list and returns the resulting new string.

The `re_match/5` predicate has the following calling sequence:

```
re_match(+Regexp, +InputStr, +Offset, ?IgnoreCase, -MatchList)
```

*Regexp* is a regular expression, *e.g.*, “abc([-;*,]*); (dd|ee)*;”. It can be a Prolog atom or string (*i.e.*, a list of characters). The above expression matches any substring that has “abc” followed by a sequence of characters none of which is a “;” or a “,”, followed by a “;”, followed by a sequence that consists of zero or more of “dd” or “ee” segments, followed by a “;”. An example of a string where such a match can be found is “123abc&*^; ddeedd;poi”.

*InputStr* is the string to be matched against. It can be a Prolog atom or a string (list of characters). *Offset* is an integer offset into the string. The matching process starts at this offset. *IgnoreCase* indicates whether the case of the letters is to be ignored. If this argument is an uninstantiated variable, then the case is not ignored. If this argument is bound to a non-variable, then the case is ignored.

The last argument, *MatchList*, is used to return the results. It must unify with a list of the form:

```
[match(beg_off0,end_off0), match(beg_off1,end_off1), ...]
```

The term `match(beg_off0,end_off0)` represents the substring that matches the *entire* regular expression, and the terms `match(beg_off1,end_off1), ...`, represent the matches corresponding to the *parenthesized subexpressions* of the regular expression. The terms `beg_off` and `end_off` above are integers that specify beginning and ending offsets of the various matches. Thus, `beg_off0` is the offset into *InputStr* that points to the start of the maximal substring that matches the entire regular expression; `end_off0` points to the end of such a substring. In our case, the maximal matching substring is “abc&*^; ddeedd;” and the first term in the list returned by

```
| ?- re_match('abc([-;*,]*); (dd|ee)*;', '123abc&*^; ddeedd;poi', 0, _,L).
```

is `match(3,18)`.

The most powerful feature of POSIX pattern matching is the ability to remember and return substrings matched by parenthesized subexpressions. When the above predicate succeeds, the terms 2,3, etc., in the above list represent the offsets for the matches corresponding to the parenthesized expressions 1,2,etc. For instance, our earlier regular expression “abc([-;*,]*); (dd|ee)*;” has two parenthetical subexpressions, which match “&*^” and “dd”, respectively. So, the complete output from the above call is:

```
L = [match(3,18),match(6,9),match(15,17)]
```

The maximal number of parenthetical expressions supported by the Regmatch package is 30. Partial matches to parenthetical expressions 31 and over are discarded.
The match-terms corresponding to parenthetical expressions can sometimes report “no-use.” This is possible when the regular expression specifies that zero or more occurrences of the parenthesized subexpression must be matched, and the match was made using zero subexpressions. In this case, the corresponding match term is `match(-1,-1)`. For instance,

```
| ?- re_match('ab(de)*', 'abcd',0,_,L).
L = [match(0,2),match(-1,-1)]
yes
```

Here the match that was found is the substring “ab” and the parenthesized subexpression “de” was not used. This fact is reported using the special match term `match(-1,-1)`.

Here is one more example of the power of POSIX regular expression matching:

```
| ?- re_match("a(b*|e*)cd\1", 'abbbcddbbbo', 0, _, M).
Here the result is:
M = [match(0,9),match(1,4)]
```

The interesting features here are the positional parameter `\1` and the alternating parenthetical expression `a(b*|e*)`. The alternating parenthetical expression here can match any sequence of b’s or any sequence of e’s. Note that if the string to be matched is not known when we write the program, we will not know a priori which sequence will be matched: a sequence of b’s or a sequence of e’s. Moreover, we do not even know the length of that sequence.

Now, suppose, we want to make sure that the matching substrings look like this:

```
abbbcddb
aeeeeedeee
abbbbbcdcd
```

How can we make sure that the suffix that follows “cd” is exactly the same string that is stuck between “a” and “cd”? This is what `\1` precisely does: it represents the substring matched by the first parenthetical expression. Similarly, you can use `\2`, etc., if the regular expression contains more than one parenthetical expression.

The following example illustrates the use of the offset argument:

```
| ?- re_match("a(b*|e*)cd\1",'abbbcddbbboabbbcddbbbo',2,_,M).
M = [match(12,21),match(13,16)]
```

Here, the string to be matched is double the string from the previous example. However, because we said that matching should start at offset 2, the first half of the string is not matched.

The `re_match/5` predicate fails if `Regexp` does not match `InputStr` or if the term specified in `MatchList` does not unify with the result produced by the match. Otherwise, it succeeds.
We should also note that parenthetical expressions can be represented using the \(\ (...)\) notation. What if you want to match a “(” then? You must escape it with a “\" then:

\[
| ?- \text{re\_match}("a(b*)cd\(","'abbbcd(bbo', 0, _, M).}  
\]

\[
M = [\text{match}(0,7),\text{match}(1,4)]  
\]

Now, what about matching the backslash itself? Try harder: you need four backslashes:

\[
| ?- \text{re\_match}("a(b*)cd\\\\","'abbbcd\bbo', 0, _, M).}  
\]

\[
M = [\text{match}(0,7),\text{match}(1,4)]  
\]

The predicate \text{re\_bulkmatch/5} has the same calling sequence as \text{re\_match/5}, and the meaning of the arguments is the same, except the last (output) argument. The difference is that \text{re\_bulkmatch/5} ignores parenthesized subexpressions in the regular expression and instead of returning the matches corresponding to these parenthesized subexpressions it returns the list of all matches for the top-level regular expression. For instance,

\[
| ?- \text{re\_bulkmatch}('[^a-zA-Z0-9]+', '123&*-456 )7890% 123', 0, 1, X).}  
\]

\[
X = [\text{match}(3,6),\text{match}(9,11),\text{match}(15,17)]  
\]

\textbf{Extracting the matches.} The predicate \text{re\_match/5} provides us with the offsets. How can we actually get the matched substrings? This is done with the help of the predicate \text{re\_substring/4}:  

\[
\text{re\_substring}(\text{+String}, \text{+BeginOffset}, \text{+EndOffset}, \text{-Result}).}  
\]

This predicate works exactly like \text{substring/4} described in Section 1.6, except that the resulting substring is not interned (if it is an atom). All you can do with this string is to immediately convert it into a list (using \text{atom\_codes/2}) or into a true atom (using \text{intern\_string/2}, which must be imported from module machine).

The reason for these complications is to allow the user to control the size of the atom table. At present, XSB does not have atom table garbage collection, so heavy use of string manipulation functions can result in atom table overflow. This danger is particularly severe when XSB is used for processing HTML pages. This predicate will become an alias to \text{substring/4} when atom garbage collection will be added to XSB.

On the other hand, converting strings into lists (without interning them first) is safe, because lists are garbage-collected in XSB Version 2.0.

Here is a complete example that shows matching followed by a subsequent extraction of the matches:

\[
| ?- \text{import intern\_string/2 from machine}.}  
\]
CHAPTER 7. XSB'S POSIX REGULAR EXPRESSION AND WILDCARD MATCHING PACKAGES

| ?- Str = 'abbbcd\bbo',
  re_match("a(b*)cd\b\b",Str,0,_,[match(X,Y), match(V,W)|L]),
  re_substring(Str,X,Y,UninternedMatch),
  intern_string(UninternedMatch,Match),
  re_substring(Str,V,W,UninternedParen1),
  atom_codes(UninternedParen1,Paren1).

Str = abbbcd\bbo
X = 0
Y = 7
V = 1
W = 4
L = []
UninternedMatch = abbbcd\b
Match = abbbcd\b
UninternedParen1 = bbb
Paren1 = [98,98,98]

Note that the strings UninternedMatch and UninternedParen1 cannot be used by themselves. In the first case, we converted the string into a Prolog atom and in the second case into a string. The resulting objects (Match and Paren1) can be used in further computations.

Observe that XSB reports that UninternedMatch and UninternedParen1 are both equal the string “bbb”, while Match — the atom obtained from UninternedMatch — is different. This is because UninternedMatch and UninternedParen1 are uninterned and both occupy the same physical space. Thus, the second call to re_substring/4 overrides the value stored in this location by the first call.

Substitution. The predicate re_substitute/4 has the following invocation:

re_substitute(+InputStr, +SubstrList, +SubstitutionList, -OutStr)

This predicate works exactly like string_substitute/4 described in Section 1.6, except that the result of the substitution is not interned (for the same reason as in re_substring/4. This predicate will become an alias to string_substitute/4 when atom garbage collection will be added to XSB.

| ?- re_bulkmatch(’[^a-zA-Z0-9\-]+’, '123&*-456 )7890| 123', 0, _, X),
  re_substitute('123&*-456 )7890| 123', X, [’+++’], Y).

X = [match(3,6),match(9,11),match(15,17)]
Y = 123+++456+++7890+++123

Efficiency considerations.
Try not to work with too many regular expressions at once. Before a regular expression can be used, it must be compiled (which \texttt{re\_match/5} does automatically). \texttt{re\_match/5} maintains a cache of compiled regular expressions, so they do not need to be compiled each time they are used. However, if more than 8–10 expressions are used simultaneously, repeated recompilation might result.

When a list of characters is passed to any one of the above predicates, it is converted into a C string. This can be expensive, if done too often for the same string.

One way to circumvent the problem is to use \texttt{atom\_codes/2} to first convert the list into an atom and then use that atom repeatedly in the match operations. One problem here might be the aforementioned overflow of the atom table. So, if this is a concern, the following predicate (which always succeeds) can help:

\begin{verbatim}
re\_charlist\_to\_string(+ListOfCharacters, -String)
\end{verbatim}

This predicate converts lists of characters into uninterned strings, which can be used without the fear of atom table overflow:

\begin{verbatim}
?- re\_charlist\_to\_string("abcdefg",L).
L = abcdefg
\end{verbatim}

The resulting string can be passed to \texttt{re\_match/5}, \texttt{re\_substitute/5}, and \texttt{re\_substring/4} for further processing.

Note, however: you cannot call \texttt{re\_charlist\_to\_string} before you finished working with the string generated by the previous call: all calls to this function use the same static buffer to hold the output string, so each subsequent call to \texttt{re\_charlist\_to\_string} will override the previously generated strings.

## 7.2 \texttt{wildmatch}: Wildcard Matching and Globing

These interfaces are implemented using the \texttt{Wildmatch} package of XSB. This package provides the following functionality:

1. Telling whether a wildcard, like the ones used in Unix shells, match against a given string. Wildcards supported are of the kind available in tcsh or bash. Alternating characters (e.g., \texttt{[abc]} or \texttt{[^abc]}) are supported.

2. Finding the list of all file names in a given directory that match a given wildcard. This facility generalizes \texttt{directory/2} (in module \texttt{directory}), and it is much more efficient.

3. String conversion to lower and upper case.

To use this package, you need to type:
### Chapter 7. XSB’s POSIX Regular Expression and Wildcard Matching Packages

If you are planning to use it in an XSB program, you need this directive:

```
:- import glob_directory/4, wildmatch/3, convert_string/3 from wildmatch.
```

The calling sequence for `glob_directory/4` is:

```
glob_directory(+Wildcard, +Directory, ?MarkDirs, -FileList)
```

The parameter `Wildcard` can be either a Prolog atom or a Prolog string. `Directory` is also an atom or a string; it specifies the directory to be globbed. `MarkDirs` indicates whether directory names should be decorated with a trailing slash: if `MarkDirs` is bound, then directories will be so decorated. If `MarkDirs` is an unbound variable, then trailing slashes will not be added.

`FileList` gets the list of files in `Directory` that match `Wildcard`. If `Directory` is bound to an atom, then `FileList` gets bound to a list of atoms; if `Directory` is a Prolog string, then `FileList` will be bound to a list of strings as well.

This predicate succeeds if at least one match is found. If no matches are found or if `Directory` does not exist or cannot be read, then the predicate fails.

The calling sequence for `wildmatch/3` is as follows:

```
wildmatch(+Wildcard, +String, ?IgnoreCase)
```

`Wildcard` is the same as before. `String` represents the string to be matched against `Wildcard`. Like `Wildcard`, `String` can be an atom or a string. `IgnoreCase` indicates whether case of letters should be ignored during matching. Namely, if this argument is bound to a non-variable, then the case of letters is ignored. Otherwise, if `IgnoreCase` is a variable, then the case of letters is preserved.

This predicate succeeds when `Wildcard` matches `String` and fails otherwise.

The calling sequence for `convert_string/3` is as follows:

```
convert_string(+InputString, +OutputString, +ConversionFlag)
```

The input string must be an atom or a character list. The output string must be unbound. Its type will “atom” if so was the input and it will be a character list if so was the input string. The conversion flag must be the atom `tolower` or `toupper`.

This predicate always succeeds, unless there was an error, such as wrong type argument passed as a parameter.
Chapter 8

perlmach: Using Perl as a Pattern Matching and String Substitution Server

By Michael Kifer and Jin Yu

XSB has an efficient interface to the Perl interpreter, which allows XSB programs to use powerful Perl pattern matching capabilities. This interface is provided by the perlmach package. You need Perl 5.004 or later to be able to take advantage of this service.

This package is mostly superseded by the the more efficient POSIX Regmatch package described in the previous section. However, Perl regular expressions provide certain features not available in the Regmatch package, such as the ability to perform global replacements of matched substrings. Also, the Perlmatch package has a different programming interface, which is modeled after the interface provided by Perl itself. So, if you are a big fan of Perl, this package is for you.

The following discussion assumes that you are familiar with the syntax of Perl regular expressions and have a reasonably good idea about the capabilities of Perl matching and string substitution functions.

In the interactive mode, you must first load the Perlmatch package:

    :- [perlmach].

In a program, you must import the package predicates:

    :- import bulk_match/3, get_match_result/2, try_match/2,
       next_match/0, perl_substitute/3, load_perl/0, unload_perl/0
       from perlmach.
8.1 Iterative Pattern Matching

There are two ways to do matching. One is to first do the matching operation and then count the beans. To find the first match, do:

```prolog
:- try_match(+String, +Pattern).
```

Both arguments must be of the XSB string data types. If there is a match in the string, the submatches $1, \$, etc., the prematch substring $'$ (i.e., the part before the match), the postmatch substring $'$ (i.e., the part after the match), the whole matched substring $\&, and the last parentheses match substring $+$ will be stored into a global data structure, and the predicate `try_match(string, pattern)` succeeds. If no match is found, this predicate fails.

The ability to return parts of the match using the Perl variables $+, $, $, etc., is an extremely powerful feature of Perl. As we said, a familiarity with Perl matching is assumed, but we’ll give an example to stimulate the interest in learning these capabilities of Perl. For instance, `m/\d+\.\d*/g` — matches a valid number. Moreover, if the number had the form ‘xx.yy’, then the Perl variable $1 will hold ‘xx’ and $1 will hold ‘yy’. If the number was of the form ‘.zz’, then $1 and $2 will be empty, and $3 will hold ‘zz’.

XSB-Perl interface provides access to all these special variables using the predicate `get_match_result()`. The input variables string and pattern are of XSB string data types. For example:

For instance,

```prolog
:- try_match('First 11.22 ; next: 3.4', 'm/(.+)+\d*/g').
yes.
```

finds the character which precedes by ’s’ in the string ’this is a test’. The first match is ‘is’.

Now, we can use `get_match_result()` to find the submatches. The first argument is a tag, which can be 1 through 20, denoting the Perl variables $1 – $20. In addition, the entire match can be found using the tag `match`, the part before that is hanging off the tag `prematch` and the part of the string to the right of the match is fetched with the tag `postmatch`. For instance, in the above, we shall have:

This function is used to fetch the pattern match results $1, $2, etc., $, $', $& and $+, as follows:

```prolog
:- get_match_result(1,X).
X=11
yes
:- get_match_result(2,X).
X=22
yes
:- get_match_result(3,X).
no
:- get_match_result(4,X).
```
As you noticed, if a tag fetches nothing (like in the case of Perl variables $3, $4, etc.), then the predicate fails.

The above is not the only possible match, of course. If we want more, we can call:

`: - next_match.`

This will match the second number in the string. Correspondingly, we shall have:

`: - get_match_result(1,X). X=3 yes `
`: - get_match_result(2,X). X=4 yes `
`: - get_match_result(3,X). no `
`: - get_match_result(4,X). no `
`: - get_match_result(prematch,X) X=First 11.22 ; next `
`: - get_match_result(postmatch,X) no `
`: - get_match_result(match,X) 3.4 yes

The next call to next_match would fail, because there are no more matches in the given string. Note that next_match and get_match_result do not take a string and a pattern as argument—they work off of the previous try_match. If you want to change the string or the pattern, call try_match again (with different parameters).

**Note:** To be able to iterate using next_match, the perl pattern must be *global i.e., it must have the modifier ‘g’ at the end (e.g., m/a.b*/g). Otherwise, next_match simply fails and only one (first)
match will be returned.

### 8.2 Bulk Matching

XSB-perl interface also supports bulk matching through the predicate `bulk_match/3`. Here, you get all the substrings that match the patterns at once, in a list, and then you can process the matches as you wish. However, this does not give you full access to submatches. More precisely, if you use parenthesized expressions, then you get the list of non-null values in the variables $1, $2, etc. If you do not use parenthesized regular expressions, you get the result of the full match. For instance,

```prolog
:- bulk_match('First 11.22 ; next: 3.4', 'm/\d+\.?\d*/g', Lst).
Lst=[11.22,3.4]
yes
:- bulk_match('First 11.22 ; next: 3.4', 'm/\d+\.?\d*/g', Lst).
Lst=[11.22,3.4]
yes
```

`bulk_match/3` never fails. If there is no match, it returns an empty list.

Please note that you must specify ‘g’ at the end of the pattern in order to get something useful. This is a Perl thing! If you do not, instead of returning a list of matches, Perl will think that you just want to test if there is a match or not, and it will return `[1]` or `[]`, depending on the outcome.

### 8.3 String Substitution

The last feature of the XSB-Perl interface is string substitution based on pattern matching. This is achieved through the predicate `string_substitute/3`:

```prolog
:- perl_substitute(+String, +PerlSubstitutionExpr, -ResultString).
```

We assume you are familiar with the syntax of Perl substitution expressions. Here we just give an example of what kind of things are possible:

```prolog
:- perl_substitute('this is fun', 's/(this) (is)\.(.*)/\2 \1\3?/', Str).
Str=is this fun?
```

### 8.4 Unloading Perl

Playing with Perl is nice, but this also means that both XSB and the Perl interpreter are loaded in the main memory. If you do not need Perl for some time and memory is at premium, you can unload the Perl interpreter:
:- unload_perl.

This predicate always succeeds. If you need Perl matching features later, you can always come back to it: it is loaded automatically each time you use a pattern matching or a string substitution predicate.
Chapter 9

libwww: The XSB Internet Access Package

By Michael Kifer

9.1 Features and Configuration

This package was inspired by the PiLLoW project. The XSB Libwww package offers much better performance and a superset of the PiLLoW functionality as related to the HTTP protocol, but this package does not implement the part of PiLLoW that deals with construction of Web pages.

The XSB Libwww is implemented in C and relies on the basic HTTP functions provided by the Libwww library developed by the WWW Consortium (http://www.w3c.org/Library). Therefore, this library must be installed in order for the XSB Libwww package to work. In addition, XSB must be configured to work with the Libwww library as follows:

```
configure --with-libwww=directory-where-Libwww-is-installed
```

If you forgot to configure XSB for use with the Libwww library, you do not need to reconfigure and recompile XSB. Instead, you can cd to packages/libwww and type the above command in that directory. This will enable the previously compiled version of XSB to work with Libwww.

Note that the Libwww library cannot be moved after you configured it. If it is moved, XSB will not be able to find it, because hard path names are built into some parts of this library at configuration time. Use the --prefix argument of configure to specify where you want to install the Libwww library.

One of the most important aspects of the Libwww package is that it allows XSB to dispatch multiple HTTP requests, which interleave their Web access phases. This can be a significant performance boost. Furthermore, the HTML, the XML, and the RDF parsers begin their work as the fragments of pages arrive, so by the time the page is fully accepted, it is also parsed. Here is a list of features provided by the XSB Libwww package:
• HTML-4 parser.
• XML parser (non-validating).
• RDF parser.
• Page fetching (without parsing).
• Form handling.
• HTTP header information.
• Multiple, interleaved HTTP requests.
• Basic and digest authentication.
• Redirection and proxies.

9.2 Accessing Internet with Libwww

To start using the package, you must load it first:

    :- [libwww].

9.2.1 Syntax

The general form of a Web call is as follows:

    :- libwww_request([request1, request2, ..., request_n]).

Each request has the following syntax:

    request_type(+URL, +RequestParams, -ResponseParams, -Result, -Status)

The request type functor must be either htmlparse, xmlparse, rdfparse, fetch, or header. The first two are requests to parse HTML/XML pages, respectively. Fetch is a request to bring in a page without parsing, nd header is a request to retrieve only the header information (which is returned in the ResponseParams argument—see below). The URL must be an atom or a string (list of characters).\(^1\)

---

\(^1\) The string feature will be deprecated when XSB will have working atom garbage collection. When URL is a list of characters, then Result is also a list of characters, which eases the burden on the atom table and allows XSB to work longer before memory is exhausted.
9.2.2 Request Parameters

Request parameters must be either a variable (in which case the request is considered to not have special parameters) or a list. The following terms are allowed in that list:

- **timeout(+Secs)** – request timeout. If it is not specified, a default value (5 seconds) is used. Only the first request in a list should have the timeout value set. Timeouts that appear in subsequent requests are ignored.

- **authentication([c(+Realm,+Username,+Password),...])** – If the site requires authentication, you should specify it in a list as an argument to the `authentication/1` functor. Realm is a string that the servers return to let applications know which username/password pair to send (in case the application works with several pages that require different authentication). They are used as page identifiers for the authentication purposes. If Realm is an atom (e.g., `authentication('FooSite', boo, moo)`), then when a Web server requests authentication for the FooSite realm, the Libwww package will send the foo/moo user-password pair. If Realm is a variable, then it is considered to match every realm. The Libwww package searches for matching authentication triples in the order they appear in the authentication list. Thus, the triple where Realm is a variable should appear last and serve as a default username/password pair.

- **formdata([attval_pair1, attval_pair2, ...])** — list of attribute/value pairs to fill out a form (in case URL is a CGI script). Each attribute/value pair must be an atom of the form `attr=val`.

- **selection(Taglist1,Taglist2,Taglist3)** — if the request is `htmlparse` or `xmlparse`, then this term provides control over which tags to parse. Taglist1 is a list of tags that specifies inside which tags to parse. For instance, if it is `[ul,form]` then parsing will be done only inside these elements. Other elements will be ignored. Taglist2 tells the system to stop parsing inside the corresponding elements. For instance, `[table]` means that parsing should be done only inside ul and form elements. However, if we hit a table during parsing, then parsing should stop unless we hit ul or form inside the table element. This switching of parsing on and off can continue to arbitrary depth. Taglist3 is a list of tags that are to be ignored completely. That is, the parsing process will simply strip these tags (but not the text inside them). For instance, if Taglist3 is `[p,i]` and the page contains “<p>foo <i>moo</i>” then parsing will be done as if the page contained just “foo moo”.

- **if_modified_since(Date)** — fetch the document only if it has been modified after the specified date. The date must be given as an atom string in the GMT format, e.g., ’Tue, 21 Sep 1999 14:46:36 GMT’. Otherwise, the status code `WWW_EXPIRED_DOC` is returned.

9.2.3 Response Parameters

The `ResponseParams` argument is a list of terms returned by the `libwww_request` call. It contains two kinds of information: header information and sub-request information. The header information consists of terms like: `header('Content-Type', 'text/html'), header('Server',
'Netscape-Enterprise/3.6 SP2'), etc., as defined by the HTTP protocol (header/2 is a function and its arguments are atoms). The sub-request information consists of terms of the form: subrequest('http://www.foo.org/test/file.html', -401). It indicates that during processing of the current request, it was necessary to access another page, http://www.foo.org/test/file.html, but the server responded with the error code -401 (authentication error). Such sub-requests might be spawned during XML parsing.

9.2.4 Result of a Libwww Call

The type of the Result returned by a libwww_request call depends on the request type.

Page fetching. In case of fetch, Result is an atom or a list of characters (depending on whether URL was specified as an atom or a list of characters), or it might be an unbound variable in case of an error. For header requests, Result is always an unbound variable.

HTML and XML parsing. For htmlparse and xmlparse, Result is a variable in case of an error and a complex term otherwise. In the latter case, it is a list of the form \([elt_1, ..., elt_n]\), where each \(elt_i\) is of the form:

\[elt(\text{tag}, [\text{attval}(	ext{attrname}, \text{value}), ...], [elt'_1, ..., elt'_m])\]

The second argument here represents the list of attribute-value pairs. In HTML, some attributes, like checked, can be binary, in which case the corresponding value will be unbound. The third argument represents HTML or XML elements that are within the scope of tag. These elements have the same syntax as the parent element: \(elt(\text{tag}', \text{atts}, \text{sub-elements})\). If a tag has no attributes or if it does not have sub-elements, the corresponding lists will be empty. One special tag, pcdata, is introduced to represent pieces of text that appear in the document. This tag is our own creation—neither HTML nor XML use tags to represent text. One important difference between pcdata and other tags is that the third argument in \(elt(\text{pcdata}, ..., ...)\) is an atom or a list of characters, not a list (unlike other tags). If URL was specified as an atom, then the third argument of the pcdata-element is an atom as well. If URL is a character list, then so is the corresponding argument in the pcdata-element.

RDF parsing. The form of the Result returned by an rdfparse call is a list of terms of the form:

\([\text{triple}_1, \text{triple}_2, ..., \text{triple}_n]\)

where each triple is of the form:

\(\text{rdftriple}(<\text{predicate}, \text{subject}, \text{object}>)\)

which is the usual representation of RDF elements.
9.2.5 Status Code

Finally, Status is bound to an integer that represents the return code from the HTTP request. A complete list of return codes is given in XSB/prolog.includes/http_errors.h. If you need to refer to error codes in your Prolog application, it is advisable to use symbolic notation (e.g., HT_TIMEOUT) rather than specific numbers (e.g., -905). To make this happen, put the following lines at the top of your program:

```prolog
:- compiler_options([xpp_on]).
#include "http_errors.h"
```

The Libwww package also includes a predicate, http_liberr/3, that is convenient for providing English language explanations to the errors:

```prolog
:- import http_liberr/3 from usermod.
```

The first argument of this predicate is the status code returned by an earlier call to Libwww_request, the second is an English explanation of the status, and the last is an atom that describes the class of the error (e.g., internal, server error, client error, etc.). For full details see XSB/packages/libwww/http_liberr.P. Note that the status code for a successful call is HT_LOADED (=200), not 0 or 1!

9.3 Example

Here is a complete example:

```prolog
| ?- libwww_request([xmlparse('http://public.org/test/simple1.xml',[timeout(4)], P,Y,Z)],
                   http_liberr(Z,Explanation,Class)).
```

```
P = [header(Content-Type,text/html),
     subrequest('http://public.org/secret/001.ent',-401)]
Y = [elt(doc,[],[elt(pCDATA,[],null)],
      elt(foo,[attval(att1,123),attval(att2,ppp)],
       [elt(pCDATA,[],'Test1 '),elt(pCDATA,[],' Test2 ')
        elt(pCDATA,[],'adsdd'),elt(pCDATA,[],null)]),
      elt(pCDATA,[],null),
      elt(a,[],[elt(pCDATA,[],'aaaahhhhhhh')],
       elt(pCDATA,[],null),
      elt(b,[attval(1),[]]),
      elt(pCDATA,[],null),
      elt(c,[attval(2),[]]),
      elt(pCDATA,[],null),
      elt(d,[],[elt(pCDATA,[],'dddddddd')],
       elt(f,[],[elt(pCDATA,[],'kkkkkkk')])],
```

```
The above is a successful (because of the return code 200) request to parse an XML page. This page apparently had a reference to an external entity that was located in a protected domain. Since we did not supply authentication information, the call returned authentication failure for that subrequest (as indicated by the term `subrequest('http://public.org/secret/001.ent',-401)` in the fourth argument).

### 9.4 Special Notes about Parsing XML

XML documents can have macros (called `entities`), which are defined in the DTD and their occurrences are expanded according to the definition. XML specification allows entities to refer to an external document. When this happens, the libwww package must issue a subrequest to fetch the document containing the macro expansion. Such a subrequest can fail for a variety of reasons (usually network related). Status code of each subrequest is recorded in the third argument of the corresponding request term (that is passed to `libwww_request/1`), as shown in an earlier example. If the status indicates an error, the corresponding place in the request result (the fourth argument) will contain a term of the form `unexpanded_entity(Url,Status)`. For instance:

```prolog
?- libwww_request([xml('http://localhost/simple.xml',
    [if_modified_since('Tue, 21 Sep 1999 14:46:36 GMT')],
    P,R,S)).
```

```
P = [subrequest(http://localhost/001.ent,-404),
    subrequest(http://localhost/sub/001.ent,200),
    header(Content-Type,text/xml),header(Content-Length,505),
    header(Accept-Ranges,bytes),header(ETag,"5089-1f9-38f012dc"),
    header(Length,505),header(Server,Apache/1.3.9 (Unix) (Red Hat/Linux)),
    header(Date,Tue, 11 Apr 2000 05:01:55 GMT)]

R = [elt(doc,[],[elt(foo,[attval(att1,123),attval(att2,abc)],
  [elt(pCDATA,[]),test]),
  unexpanded_entity(http://localhost/001.ent,-404),
  elt(pCDATA,[],Test1 ),
  elt(pCDATA,[],Test2 )]),
  elt(pCDATA,[], )]]
```

```
S = 200
```

Another observation is that due to a bug in the Libwww library, requests to fetch local files (documents with URLs of the form `file://abc`) may take a long time or even abort, if the request requires spawning subrequests to fetch other local files (for instance, a request to parse a local XML
document that contains external references to local files). However, this is not a serious problem in practice, since the Web interface is rarely used to access local files.
Chapter 10

clpr: The CPL(R) package

XSB’s tabling engine supports the use of attributed variables (Section 1.2), which in turn have been used to port real constraints to XSB under the CLP(R) library of Christian Holzbauer [10]. Constraint equations are represented using the Prolog syntax for evaluable functions (Volume 1, Section 6.2.1). Formally:

\[
\text{ConstraintSet} \rightarrow C \\
| C , C
\]

\[
C \rightarrow \begin{align*}
\text{Expr } @= & \text{ Expr} & \text{equation} \\
\text{Expr } = & \text{ Expr} & \text{equation} \\
\text{Expr } < & \text{ Expr} & \text{strict inequation} \\
\text{Expr } > & \text{ Expr} & \text{nonstrict inequation} \\
\text{Expr } =< & \text{ Expr} & \text{nonstrict inequation} \\
\text{Expr } >= & \text{ Expr} & \text{disequation}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\text{Expr} \rightarrow \begin{align*}
\text{variable} & \quad \text{Prolog variable} \\
\text{number} & \quad \text{floating point number} \\
\text{+ Expr} & \\
\text{- Expr} & \\
\text{Expr } + & \text{ Expr} \\
\text{Expr } - & \text{ Expr} \\
\text{Expr } * & \text{ Expr} \\
\text{Expr } / & \text{ Expr} \\
\text{abs(Expr)} & \\
\text{sin(Expr)} & \\
\text{cos(Expr)} & \\
\text{tan(Expr)} & \\
\text{pow(Expr,Expr)} & \text{raise to the power} \\
\text{exp(Expr,Expr)} & \text{raise to the power} \\
\text{min(Expr,Expr)} & \text{minimum of two expressions}
\end{align*}
\]
The CLP(R) library supports solutions of linear equations and inequalities over the real numbers and the lazy treatment of nonlinear equations. In displaying sets of equations and disequations, the library removes redundancies, performs projections, and provides for linear optimization. The goal of the XSB port is to provide the same CLP(R) functionality as in other platforms, but also to allow constraints to be used by tabled predicates. This section provides a general introduction to the CLP(R) functionality available in XSB, for further information see http://www.ai.univie.ac.at/clpqr.

The clpr package may be loaded by the command [clpr]. Loading the package imports exported predicates from the various files in the clpr package into usermod (see Volume 1, Section 3.3) so that they may be used in the interpreter. Modules that use the exported predicates need to explicitly import them from the files in which they are defined (e.g. bv, as shown below).

{+Constraints}

When the CLP(R) package is loaded, inclusion of equations in braces ({})) adds the equations to the constraint store where they are checked for satisfiability.

| ?- [clpr].
[clpr loaded]
[itf3 loaded]
[nf loaded]
yes
| ?- {X = Y+1, Y = 3*X}.

X = -0.5000
Y = -1.5000;
yes

entailed(Constraint)

Succeeds if Constraint is logically implied by the current constraint store. entailed/1 does not change the constraint store.

| ?- {A =< 4},entailed(A =\= 5).

yes
Note: this predicate does not always work in Version 2.5, due to a bug in cutting over interrupts for attributed variables.

\[
\text{inf}(\text{Expr},-\text{Val}) \quad \text{bv}
\]

\[
\text{sup}(\text{Expr},-\text{Val}) \quad \text{bv}
\]

\[
\text{minimize}(\text{Expr}) \quad \text{bv}
\]

\[
\text{maximize}(\text{Expr}) \quad \text{bv}
\]

These four related predicates provide various mechanisms to compute the maximum and minimum of expressions over variables in a constraint store. In the case where the expression is not bounded from above over the reals \text{sup}/2 and \text{maximize}/1 will fail; similarly if the expression is not bounded from below \text{inf}/2 and \text{minimize}/1 will fail.

\begin{verbatim}
| ?- \{X = 2*Y,Y >= 7\},\text{inf}(X,F).
  X = _h8841
  Y = _h9506
  F = 14.0000

| ?- \{X = 2*Y,Y >= 7\},\text{minimize}(X).
  X = 14.0000
  Y = 7.0000

| ?- \{X = 2*Y,Y =< 7\},\text{maximize}(X-2).
  X = 14.0000
  Y = 7.0000

| ?- \{X = 2*Y,Y =< 7\},\text{sup}(X-2,Z).
  X = _h8975
  Y = _h9640
  Z = 12.0000

yes
| ?- \{X = 2*Y,Y =< 7\},\text{maximize}(X-2).
  X = 14.0000
  Y = 7.0000

yes
\end{verbatim}
CHAPTER 10. CLPR: THE CPL(R) PACKAGE

\texttt{bb\_inf(+IntegerList,+Expr,-Inf,-Vertex,+Eps)}

Works like \texttt{inf/2} in \texttt{Expr} but assumes that all the variables in \texttt{IntegerList} have integral values. \texttt{Eps} is a positive number between 0 and 0.5 that specifies how close an element of \texttt{IntegerList} must be to an integer to be considered integral – i.e. for such an \texttt{X}, \texttt{abs(round(X) - X) < Eps}. Upon success, \texttt{Vertex} is instantiated to the integral values of all variables in \texttt{IntegerList}. \texttt{bb\_inf/5} works properly for non-strict inequalities only.

\[ ?- \{X > Y + Z, Y > 1, Z > 1\}, \texttt{bb\_inf([Y,Z],X,Inf,Vertex,0)} \]

\begin{verbatim}
X = _h14286
Y = _h10914
Z = _h13553
Inf = 4.0000
Vertex = [2.0000,2.0000]
\end{verbatim}

yes

\texttt{bb\_inf(+IntegerList,+Expr,-Inf)}

Works like \texttt{bb\_inf/5}, but with the neighborhood, \texttt{Eps}, set to 0.001.

\[ ?- \{X >= Y+Z, Y > 1, Z > 1\}, \texttt{bb\_inf([Y,Z],X,Inf)} \]

\begin{verbatim}
X = _h14289
Y = _h10913
Z = _h13556
Inf = 4.
\end{verbatim}

yes

\texttt{dump(+ConstraintSet,+NewVars,-CodedTerm)}

(No documentation yet available).
Chapter 11

Other XSB Packages

Many of the XSB packages are maintained somewhat independently of XSB and have their own manuals. For these packages: Flora2, XMC, xsbdoc, XASP, and Cold Dead Fish we provide summaries; full information can be obtained in the packages themselves. In addition, we provide full documentation here for two of the smaller packages, slx and GAP.

11.1 Summary of Flora2: Programming with Flora

\(\text{F}lora\text{-2}\) is a sophisticated object-oriented knowledge base language and application development platform. It is implemented as a set of run-time libraries and a compiler that translates a unified language of F-logic \cite{11}, HiLog \cite{7}, and Transaction Logic \cite{4,3} into tabled Prolog code.

Applications of \(\text{F}lora\text{-2}\) include intelligent agents, Semantic Web, ontology management, integration of information, and others.

The programming language supported by \(\text{F}lora\text{-2}\) is a dialect of F-logic with numerous extensions, which include a natural way to do meta-programming in the style of HiLog and logical updates in the style of Transaction Logic. \(\text{F}lora\text{-2}\) was designed with extensibility and flexibility in mind, and it provides strong support for modular software design through its unique feature of dynamic modules. Other extensions, such as the versatile syntax of FLORID path expressions, are borrowed from FLORID, a C++-based F-logic system developed at Freiburg University.\footnote{See \url{http://www.informatik.uni-freiburg.de/~dbis/florid/} for more details.} Extensions aside, the syntax of \(\text{F}lora\text{-2}\) differs in many important ways from FLORID, from the original version of F-logic, as described in \cite{11}, and from an earlier implementation of \(\text{F}lora\). These syntactic changes were needed in order to bring the syntax of \(\text{F}lora\text{-2}\) closer to that of Prolog and make it possible to include simple Prolog programs into \(\text{F}lora\text{-2}\) programs without choking the compiler. Other syntactic deviations from the original F-logic syntax are a direct consequence of the added support for HiLog, which obviates the need for the “@” sign in method invocations (this sign is now used to denote calls to \(\text{F}lora\text{-2}\) modules).

\(\text{F}lora\text{-2}\) is distributed in two ways. First, it is part of the official distribution of XSB and thus is installed together with XSB. Second, a more up-to-date version of the system is available.
on FLORA-2’s Web site at

http://flora.sourceforge.net

These two versions can be installed at the same time and used independently (e.g., if you want to keep abreast with the development of FLORA-2 or if a newer version was released in-between the releases of XSB). The installation instructions are somewhat different in these two cases. Here we only describe the process of configuring the version FLORA-2 included with XSB.

**Installing FLORA-2 under UNIX.** To configure a version of FLORA-2 that was downloaded as part of the distribution of XSB, simply configure XSB as usual:

```
cd XSB/build
configure
makexsb
```

and then run

```
makexsb packages
```

If you downloaded XSB from its CVS repository earlier and are updating your copy using the cvs update command, then it might be a good idea to also do the following:

```
cd packages/flora2
makeflora clean
makeflora
```

**Installing FLORA-2 in Windows.** First, you need Microsoft’s nmake. Then use the following commands to configure FLORA-2 (assuming that XSB is already installed and configured):

```
cd flora2
makeflora clean
makeflora path-to-prolog-executable
```

Also make sure that the packages directory contains a shortcut called flora2.P to the file packages\flora2\flora2.P.

**Running FLORA-2.** FLORA-2 is fully integrated into the underlying XSB engine, including its module system. In particular, FLORA-2 modules can invoke predicates defined in other Prolog modules, and Prolog modules can query the objects defined in FLORA-2 modules.

Due to certain problems with XSB, FLORA-2 runs best when XSB is configured with local scheduling, which is the default XSB configuration. However, with this type of scheduling, many Prolog intuitions that relate to the operational semantics do not work. Thus, the programmer
must think “more declaratively” and, in particular, to not rely on the order in which answers are returned.

The easiest way to get a feel of the system is to start FLORA-2 shell and begin to enter queries interactively. The simplest way to do this is to use the shell script

```
.../flora2/runflora
```

where “...” is the directory where FLORA-2 is downloaded. For instance, to invoke the version supplied with XSB, you would type something like

```
~/XSB/packages/flora2/runflora
```

At this point, FLORA-2 takes over and F-logic syntax becomes the norm. To get back to the Prolog command loop, type Control-D (Unix) or Control-Z (Windows), or

```
| ?- flEnd.
```

If you are using FLORA-2 shell frequently, it pays to define an alias, say (in Bash):

```
alias runflora="~/XSB/packages/flora2/runflora"
```

FLORA-2 can then be invoked directly from the shell prompt by typing runflora. It is even possible to tell FLORA-2 to execute commands on start-up. For instance,

```
foo> runflora -e "flHelp."
```

will cause the system to execute the help command right after after the initialization. Then the usual FLORA-2 shell prompt is displayed.

FLORA-2 comes with a number of demo programs that live in

```
.../flora2/demos/
```

The demos can be run issuing the command “flDemo(demo-filename).” at the FLORA-2 prompt, e.g.,

```
flora2 ?- flDemo(flogic Basics).
```

There is no need to change to the demo directory, as flDemo knows where to find these programs.

11.2 Summary of xmc: Model-checking with XSB

No documentation yet available.
11.3 Summary of xsbdoc: A Documentation System for XSB based on lpdoc

xsbdoc is an automatic program documentation generator for Tabled (C)LP systems written using XSB. Its code is based in part on the Ciao [6] system’s lpdoc which has been adapted to generate a reference manual automatically from one or more XSB source files. The target format of the documentation can be Postscript, HTML, PDF, or nicely formatted ASCII text. xsbdoc can be used to automatically generate a description of full applications, library modules, README files, etc. A fundamental advantage of using xsbdoc to document programs is that it is much easier to maintain a true correspondence between the program and its documentation, and to identify precisely to what version of the program a given printed manual corresponds. Naturally, the xsbdoc manual is generated by xsbdoc itself.

The quality of the documentation generated can be greatly enhanced by including within the program text:

- **assertions** (indicating types, modes, etc. ...) for the predicates in the program, via the directive `pred/1`; and
- **machine-readable comments** (in the “literate programming” style).

The assertions and comments included in the source file need to be written using the forthcoming XSB assertion language, which supports most of the features of Ciao’s assertion language within a simple and (hopefully) intuitive syntax.

xsbdoc is distributed under the GNU general public license.

Unlike lpdoc, xsbdoc does not use Makefiles, and instead maintains information about how to generate a document within Prolog format files. As a result, xsbdoc can in principle be run in any environment that supports the underlying software, such as XSB, \LaTeX, dvips and so on. It has been tested on Linux and Windows running with Cygwin.

11.4 Summary of XASP: Answer Set Programming using XSB

The term Answer Set Programming (ASP) describes a paradigm in which logic programs are interpreted using the (extended) stable model semantics. While the stable model semantics is quite elegant, it has radical differences from traditional program semantics based on Prolog. First, stable model semantics applies only to ground programs; second stable model semantics is not goal-oriented – determining whether a stable model is true in a program involves examining each clause in a program, regardless of whether the goal would depends on the clause in a traditional evaluation.

Despite (or perhaps because of) these differences, ASP has proven to be a useful paradigm for solving a variety of combinatorial programs. Indeed, determining a stable model for a logic program can be seen as an extension of the NP-complete problem of propositional satisfiability, so that satisfiability problems that can be naturally represented as logic programs can be solved using ASP.
The current generation of ASP systems are very efficient for determining whether a program has a stable model (analogous to whether the program, taken as a set of propositional axioms, is satisfiable). However, ASP systems have somewhat primitive file-based interfaces. XSB is a natural complement to ASP systems. Its basis in Prolog provides a procedural counterpart for ASP, as described in Chapter 5 of Volume 1 of this manual; and XSB’s computation of the Well-founded semantics has a well-defined relationship to stable model semantics. Furthermore, deductive-database-like capabilities of XSB allow it to be an efficient and flexible grounder for many ASP problems.

The XASP package provides various mechanisms that allow tight linkage of XSB programs to the SModels [14] stable model generator. The main interface is based on a store of clauses that can be incrementally asserted or deleted by an XSB program. Clauses in this store can make use of all of the cardinality and weight constraint syntax supported by SModels, in addition to default negation. When the user decides that the clauses in a store are a complete representation of a program whose stable model should be generated, the clauses are copied into SModels buffers. Using the Smodels API, the generator is invoked, and information about any stable models generated are returned. This use of XASP is roughly analogical to building up a constraint store in CLP, and periodically evaluating that store, but integration with the store is less transparent in XASP than in CLP. In XASP, clauses must be explicitly added to a store and evaluated; furthermore clauses are not removed from the store upon backtracking, unlike constraints in CLP.

The XNMR interpreter provides a second, somewhat more implicit use of XASP. In the XNMR interface a query \( Q \) is evaluated as is any other query in XSB. However, conditional answers produced for \( Q \) and for its subgoals, upon user request, can be considered as clauses and sent to SModels for evaluation. In backtracking through answers for \( Q \), the user backtracks not only through answer substitutions for variables of \( Q \), but also through the stable models produced for the various bindings.

The current version of XASP is based on the SModels API. Other stable model generators that provide low-level C interfaces may be incorporated in XASP in the future.

### 11.5 slx: Extended Logic Programs under the Well-Founded Semantics

As explained in the section Using Tabling in XSB, XSB can compute normal logic programs according to the well-founded semantics. In fact, XSB can also compute Extended Logic Programs, which contain an operator for explicit negation (written using the symbol \(-\) in addition to the negation-by-failure of the well-founded semantics (\(\neg^+\) or \(\text{not}\)). Extended logic programs can be extremely useful when reasoning about actions, for model-based diagnosis, and for many other uses [2]. The library, slx provides a means to compile programs so that they can be executed by XSB according to the well-founded semantics with explicit negation [1]. Briefly, WFSX is an extension of the well-founded semantics to include explicit negation and which is based on the coherence principle in which an atom is taken to be default false if it is proven to be explicitly false, intuitively:

\[-p \Rightarrow \text{not } p.\]

This section is not intended to be a primer on extended logic programming or on WFSX
semantics, but we do provide a few sample programs to indicate the action of WFSX. Consider the program

\[
s: \neg t.
\]

\[
t: \neg r.
\]

\[
t.
\]

\[
r: \neg r.
\]

If the clause \(-t\) were not present, the atoms \(r, t, s\) would all be undefined in WFSX just as they would be in the well-founded semantics. However, when the clause \(t\) is included, \(t\) becomes true in the well-founded model, while \(s\) becomes false. Next, consider the program

\[
s: \neg t.
\]

\[
t: \neg r.
\]

\[
-\neg t.
\]

\[
r: \neg r.
\]

In this program, the explicitly false truth value for \(t\) obtained by the rule \(-t\) overrides the undefined truth value for \(t\) obtained by the rule \(t: \neg r\). The WFSX model for this program will assign the truth value of \(t\) as false, and that of \(s\) as true. If the above program were contained in the file \texttt{test.P}, an XSB session using \texttt{test.P} might look like the following:

\[
\texttt{> xsb}
\]

\[
\texttt{| ?- [slx].}.
\]  
\[
\texttt{[slx loaded]}
\]

\[
\texttt{yes}
\]

\[
\texttt{| ?- slx_compile('test.P').}.
\]  
\[
\texttt{[Compiling ./tmptest]}
\]

\[
\texttt{[tmptest compiled, cpu time used: 0.1280 seconds]}
\]  
\[
\texttt{[tmptest loaded]}
\]

\[
\texttt{| ?- s.}
\]  
\[
\texttt{yes}
\]

\[
\texttt{| ?- t.}
\]  
\[
\texttt{no}
\]

\[
\texttt{| ?- naf t.}
\]  
\[
\texttt{yes}
\]

\[
\texttt{| ?- r.}
\]  
\[
\texttt{no}
\]

\[
\texttt{| ?- naf r.}
\]
In the above program, the query \( ?- t \). did not succeed, because \( t \) is false in WFSX: accordingly the query \( \text{naf} \ t \) did succeed, because it is true that \( t \) is false via negation-as-failure, in addition to \( t \) being false via explicit negation. Note that after being processed by the SLX preprocessor, \( r \) is undefined but does not succeed, although \( \text{und} \ r \) will succeed.

We note in passing that programs under WFSX can be paraconsistent. For instance in the program:

\[
\begin{align*}
p &: q. \\
q &: \neg q. \\
\neg q.
\end{align*}
\]

both \( p \) and \( q \) will be true and false in the WFSX model. Accordingly, under SLX preprocessing, both \( p \) and \( \text{naf} \ p \) will succeed.

**slx**

\[\text{slx} \begin{pmatrix} \text{compile}(+\text{File}) \end{pmatrix}\]

Preprocesses and loads the extended logic program named \( \text{File} \). Default negation in \( \text{File} \) must be represented using the operator \( \text{not} \) rather than using \( \text{tnot} \) or \( \text{\textbf{+}} \). If \( L \) is an objective literal (e.g. of the form \( A \) or \( \neg A \) where \( A \) is an atom), a query \( ?- L \) will succeed if \( L \) is true in the WFSX model, \( \text{naf} \ L \) will succeed if \( L \) is false in the WFSX model, and \( \text{und} \ L \) will succeed if \( L \) is undefined in the WFSX model.

### 11.6 gap: Generalized Annotated Programs

Generalized Annotated Programs (GAPs) [12] offer a powerful computational framework for handling paraconsistency and quantitative information within logic programs. The tabling of XSB is well-suited to implementing GAPs, and the gap library provides a meta-interpreter that has proven robust and efficient enough for a commercial application in data mining. The current meta-interpreter is limited to range-restricted programs.

A description of GAPs along with full documentation for this meta-interpreter is provided in [15] (currently also available at http://www.cs.sunysb.edu/~tswift). Currently, the interface to the GAP library is through the following call.

**gap**

\[\text{gap} \begin{pmatrix} \text{meta}(?\text{Annotated}\_\text{atom}) \end{pmatrix}\]

If \( \text{Annotated}\_\text{atom} \) is of the form \( \text{Atom:}[\text{Lattice}\_\text{type},\text{Annotation}] \) the meta-interpreter computes bindings for \( \text{Atom} \) and \( \text{Annotation} \) by evaluating the program according to the definitions provided for \( \text{Lattice}\_\text{type} \).
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