

# Lecture 9: A closer look at terms

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- Theory
  - Introduce the == predicate
  - Take a closer look at term structure
  - Introduce strings in Prolog
  - Introduce operators
- Exercises
  - Exercises of LPN: 9.1, 9.2, 9.3, 9.4, 9.5
  - Practical session

# Comparing terms: ==/2

- Prolog contains an important predicate for comparing terms
- This is the identity predicate ==/2
- The identity predicate ==/2 does not instantiate variables, that is, it behaves differently from =/2

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```
?- a==a.
```

```
yes
```

```
?- a==b.
```

```
no
```

```
?- a=='a'.
```

```
yes
```

```
?- a==X.
```

```
X = _443
```

```
no
```

# Comparing variables

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```
?- X==X.
```

```
X = _443
```

```
yes
```

```
?- Y==X.
```

```
Y = _442
```

```
X = _443
```

```
no
```

```
?- a=U, a==U.
```

```
U = _443
```

```
yes
```

# Comparing terms: $\neq/2$

- The predicate  $\neq/2$  is defined so that it succeeds in precisely those cases where  $=/2$  fails
- In other words, it succeeds whenever two terms are **not identical**, and fails otherwise

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- In other words, it succeeds whenever two terms are **not identical**, and fails otherwise

?- a  $\neq$  a.

no

?- a  $\neq$  b.

yes

?- a  $\neq$  'a'.

no

?- a  $\neq$  X.

X = \_443

yes

# Terms with a special notation

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- Sometimes terms look different, but Prolog regards them as identical
- For example: **a** and **'a'**, but there are many other cases
- Why does Prolog do this?
  - Because it makes programming more pleasant
  - More natural way of coding Prolog programs



# Arithmetic terms

- Recall lecture 5 where we introduced arithmetic
- $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $<$ ,  $>$ , etc are functors and expressions such as  $2+3$  are actually ordinary complex terms
- The term  $2+3$  is identical to the term  $+(2,3)$

# Arithmetic terms

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?-  $2+3 == +(2,3)$ .

yes

?-  $-(2,3) == 2-3$ .

yes

?-  $(4<2) == <(4,2)$ .

yes

# Summary of comparison predicates

$=$	Unification predicate
$\neq$	Negation of unification predicate
$==$	Identity predicate
$\neq\neq$	Negation of identity predicate
$:=$	Arithmetic equality predicate
$\neq:=$	Negation of arithmetic equality predicate

# Lists as terms

- Another example of Prolog working with one internal representation, while showing another to the user
- Using the `|` constructor, there are many ways of writing the same list

```
?- [a,b,c,d] == [a|[b,c,d]].  
yes  
?- [a,b,c,d] == [a,b,c|[d]].  
yes  
?- [a,b,c,d] == [a,b,c,d|[]].  
yes  
?- [a,b,c,d] == [a,b|[c,d]].  
yes
```

# Prolog lists internally

- Internally, lists are built out of two special terms:
  - `[]` (which represents the empty list)
  - `'.'` (a functor of arity 2 used to build non-empty lists)
- These two terms are also called *list constructors*
- A recursive definition shows how they construct lists

# Definition of prolog list

- The empty list is the term  $[]$ . It has length 0.
- A non-empty list is any term of the form  $.(term, list)$ , where  $term$  is any Prolog term, and  $list$  is any Prolog list. If  $list$  has length  $n$ , then  $.(term, list)$  has length  $n+1$ .

# A few examples...

?- .(a,[]) == [a].

yes

?- .(f(d,e),[]) == [f(d,e)].

yes

?- .(a,.(b,[])) == [a,b].

yes

?- .(a,.(b,.(f(d,e),[]))) == [a,b,f(d,e)].

yes

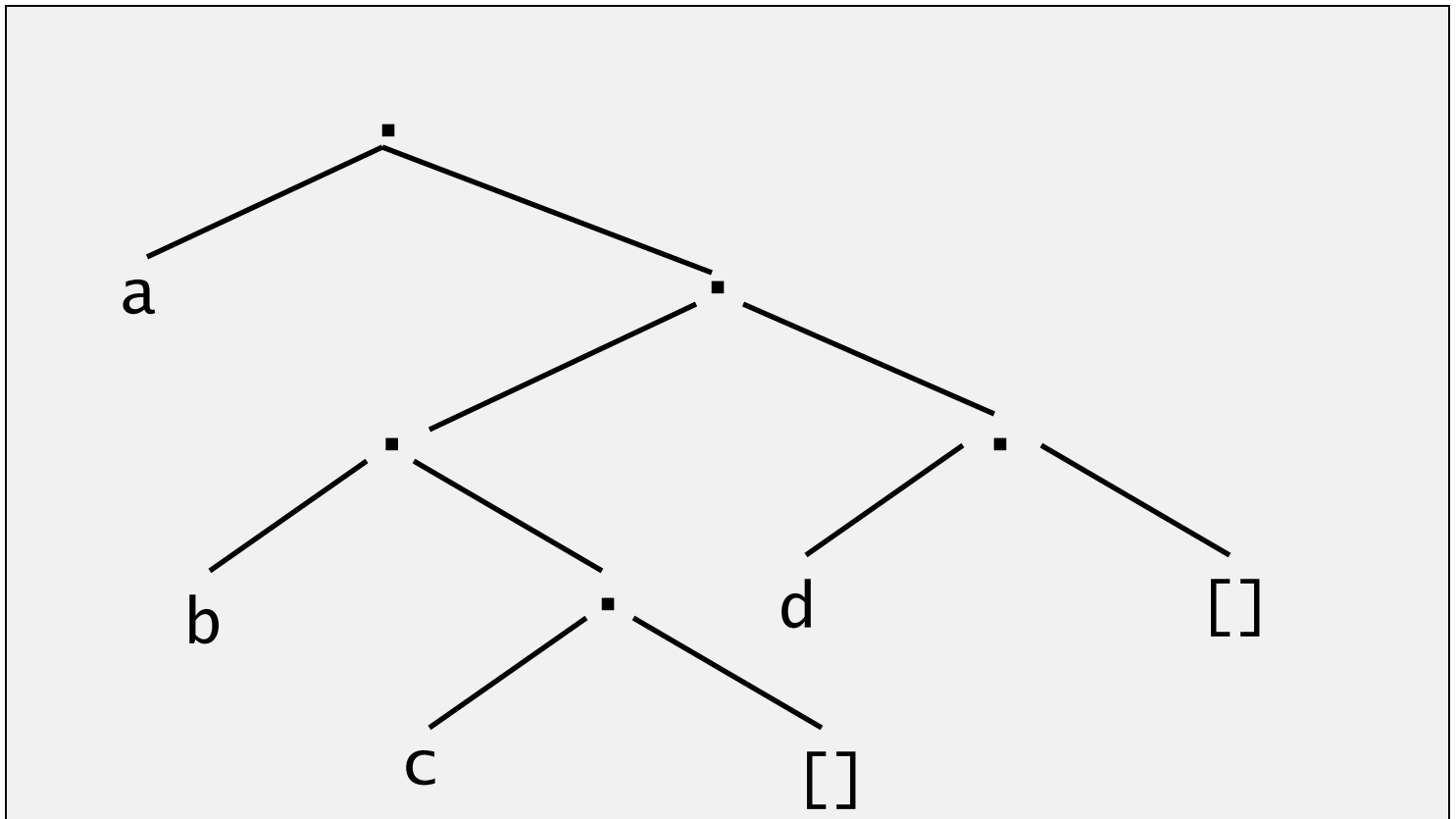
# Internal list representation

- Works similar to the | notation:
- It represents a list in two parts
  - Its first element, the *head*
  - the rest of the list, the *tail*
- The trick is to read these terms as trees
  - Internal nodes are labeled with .
  - All nodes have two daughter nodes
    - Subtree under left daughter is the head
    - Subtree under right daughter is the tail



# Example of a list as tree

- Example: [a,[b,c],d]

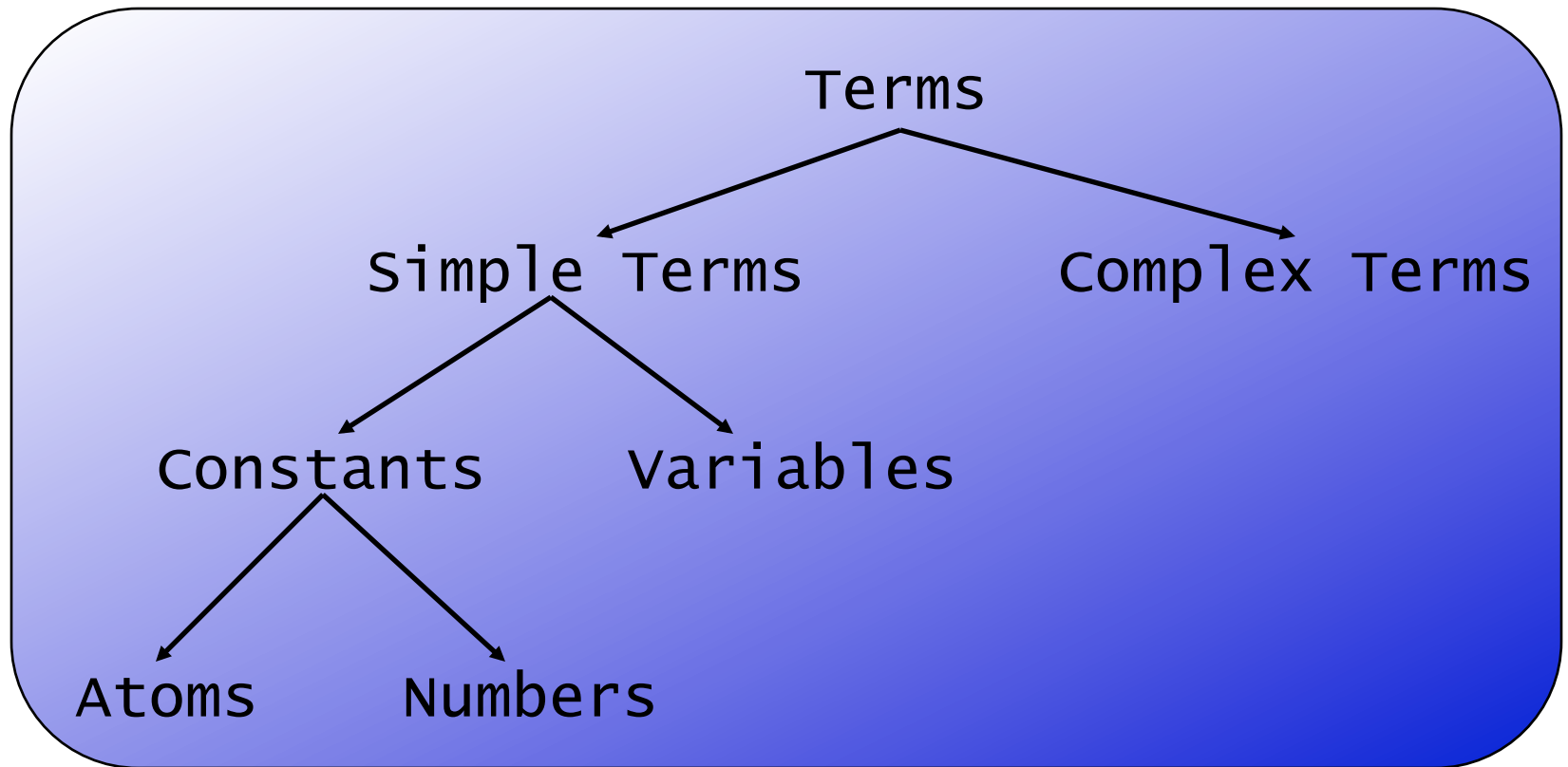


# Examining terms

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- We will now look at built-in predicates that let us examine Prolog terms more closely
  - Predicates that determine the type of terms
  - Predicates that tell us something about the internal structure of terms

# Type of terms



# Checking the type of a term

atom/1	<i>Is the argument an atom?</i>
integer/1	<i>... an integer?</i>
float/1	<i>... a floating point number?</i>
number/1	<i>... an integer or float?</i>
atomic/1	<i>... a constant?</i>
var/1	<i>... an uninstantiated variable?</i>
nonvar/1	<i>... an instantiated variable or another term that is not an uninstantiated variable</i>

# Type checking: atom/1

?- atom(a).

yes

?- atom(7).

no

?- atom(X).

no

# Type checking: atom/1

?- X=a, atom(X).

X = a

yes

?- atom(X), X=a.

no

# Type checking: atomic/1

?- atomic(mia).

yes

?- atomic(5).

yes

?- atomic(loves(vincent,mia)).

no

# Type checking: var/1

?- var(mia).

no

?- var(X).

yes

?- X=5, var(X).

no



# Type checking: nonvar/1

?- nonvar(X).

no

?- nonvar(mia).

yes

?- nonvar(23).

yes

# The structure of terms

---

- Given a complex term of unknown structure, what kind of information might we want to extract from it?
- Obviously:
  - The functor
  - The arity
  - The argument
- Prolog provides built-in predicates to produce this information

# The functor/3 predicate

---

- The functor/3 predicate gives the functor and arity of a complex predicate

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  - ?- functor(friends(lou,andy),F,A).
  - F = friends
  - A = 2
  - yes

# The functor/3 predicate

- The functor/3 predicate gives the functor and arity of a complex predicate

?- functor(friends(lou,andy),F,A).

F = friends

A = 2

yes

?- functor([lou,andy,vicky],F,A).

F = .

A = 2

yes

# functor/3 and constants

---

- What happens when we use functor/3 with constants?

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?- functor(mia,F,A).

F = mia

A = 0

yes

# functor/3 and constants

- What happens when we use functor/3 with constants?

?- functor(mia,F,A).

F = mia

A = 0

yes

?- functor(14,F,A).

F = 14

A = 0

yes



# functor/3 for constructing terms

- You can also use functor/3 to construct terms:

?- functor(Term, friends, 2).

Term = friends(\_, \_)

yes

# Checking for complex terms

```
complexTerm(X):-  
    nonvar(X),  
    functor(X,_,A),  
    A > 0.
```

# Arguments: arg/3

- Prolog also provides us with the predicate `arg/3`
- This predicate tells us about the arguments of complex terms
- It takes three arguments:
  - A number  $N$
  - A complex term  $T$
  - The  $N$ th argument of  $T$

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```
?- arg(2,likes(lou,andy),A).  
A = andy  
yes
```

# Strings

- Strings are represented in Prolog by a list of character codes
- Prolog offers double quotes for an easy notation for strings

```
?- S = "Vicky".
```

```
S = [86,105,99,107,121]
```

```
yes
```

# Working with strings

- There are several standard predicates for working with strings
- A particular useful one is `atom_codes/2`

```
?- atom_codes(vicky,S).  
S = [118,105,99,107,121]  
yes
```

# Operators

---

- As we have seen, in certain cases, Prolog allows us to use operator notations that are more user friendly
- Recall, for instance, the arithmetic expressions such as  $2+2$  which internally means  $+(2,2)$
- Prolog also has a mechanism to add your own operators

# Properties of operators

- Infix operators
  - Functors written between their arguments
  - Examples: + - = == , ; . -->
- Prefix operators
  - Functors written before their argument
  - Example: - (to represent negative numbers)
- Postfix operators
  - Functors written after their argument
  - Example: ++ in the C programming language



# Precedence

- Every operator has a certain precedence to work out ambiguous expressions
- For instance, does  $2+3*3$  mean  $2+(3*3)$ , or  $(2+3)*3$ ?
- Because the precedence of  $+$  is greater than that of  $*$ , Prolog chooses  $+$  to be the main functor of  $2+3*3$

# Associativity

- Prolog uses associativity to disambiguate operators with the same precedence value
- Example:  $2+3+4$   
Does this mean  $(2+3)+4$  or  $2+(3+4)$ ?
  - Left associative
  - Right associative
- Operators can also be defined as non-associative, in which case you are forced to use bracketing in ambiguous cases
  - Examples in Prolog: `:-` `-->`

# Defining operators

- Prolog lets you define your own operators
- Operator definitions look like this:

```
:- op(Precedence, Type, Name).
```

- Precedence:  
number between 0 and 1200
- Type: the type of operator

# Types of operators in Prolog

- yfx left-associative, infix
- xfy right-associative, infix
- xfx non-associative, infix
- fx non-associative, prefix
- fy right-associative, prefix
- xf non-associative, postfix
- yf left-associative, postfix

# Operators in SWI Prolog

1200	<i>xfx</i>	-->, :-
1200	<i>fx</i>	:-, ?-
1150	<i>fx</i>	dynamic, discontinuous, initialization, module_transparent, multifile, thread_local, volatile
1100	<i>xfy</i>	!,
1050	<i>xfy</i>	->, op*->
1000	<i>xfy</i>	,
954	<i>xfy</i>	\
900	<i>fy</i>	\+
900	<i>fx</i>	~
700	<i>xfx</i>	<, =, =.., =@=, =:=, =<, ==, =\=, >, >=, @<, @=<, @>, @>=, \=, \==, is
600	<i>xfy</i>	:
500	<i>yfx</i>	+, -, /\, \/, xor
500	<i>fx</i>	+, -, ?, \
400	<i>yfx</i>	*, /, //, rdiv, <<, >>, mod, rem
200	<i>xfx</i>	**
200	<i>xfy</i>	^