

A C++ interface to SWI-Prolog

Jan Wielemaker
VU University of Amsterdam
The Netherlands
E-mail: jan@swi-prolog.org

January 23, 2017

Abstract

This document describes a C++ interface to SWI-Prolog. SWI-Prolog could be used with C++ for a very long time, but only by calling the extern "C" functions of the C-interface. The interface described herein provides a true C++ layer around the C-interface for much more concise and natural programming from C++. The interface deals with automatic type-conversion to and from native C data-types, transparent mapping of exceptions, making queries to Prolog and registering foreign predicates.

Contents

1	Introduction	4
2	Overview	4
3	Examples	5
3.1	Hello(World)	5
3.2	Adding numbers	6
3.3	Average of solutions	7
4	The class PTerm	7
4.1	Constructors	7
4.2	Casting PTerm to native C-types	8
4.3	Unification	9
4.4	Comparison	9
4.5	Analysing compound terms	10
4.6	Miscellaneous	10
4.7	The class PString	11
4.8	The class PCodeList	11
4.9	The class PCharList	11
4.10	The class PCompound	11
4.11	The class PTail	12
5	The class PTermv	13
6	Supporting Prolog constants	13
7	The class PRegister	15
8	The class PQuery	16
8.1	The class PFrame	17
9	The PREDICATE macro	18
9.1	Variations of the PREDICATE macro	18
9.2	Controlling the Prolog destination module	19
10	Exceptions	19
10.1	The class PException	20
10.2	The class PTypeError	21
10.3	The class PIDomainError	21
11	Embedded applications	21
12	Considerations	22
12.1	The C++ versus the C interface	22
12.2	Static linking and embedding	22
12.3	Status and compiler versions	22

1 Introduction

C++ provides a number of features that make it possible to define a much more natural and concise interface to dynamically typed languages than plain C does. Using programmable type-conversion (*casting*), native data-types can be translated automatically into appropriate Prolog types, automatic destructors can be used to deal with most of the cleanup required and C++ exception handling can be used to map Prolog exceptions and interface conversion errors to C++ exceptions, which are automatically mapped to Prolog exceptions as control is turned back to Prolog.

Competing interfaces

Volker Wisk has defined an alternative C++ mapping based on templates and compatible to the STL framework. See <http://www.volker-wisk.de/swiprolog-c++/index.html>.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Anjo Anjewierden for comments on the definition, implementation and documentation of this package.

2 Overview

The most useful area for exploiting C++ features is type-conversion. Prolog variables are dynamically typed and all information is passed around using the C-interface type `term_t`. In C++, `term_t` is embedded in the *lightweight* class `PITerm`. Constructors and operator definitions provide flexible operations and integration with important C-types (`char *`, `wchar_t*`, `long` and `double`).

The list below summarises the classes defined in the C++ interface.

Class `PITerm`

Generic Prolog term. Provides constructors and operators for conversion to native C-data and type-checking.

Class `PIString`

Subclass of `PITerm` with constructors for building Prolog string objects.

Class `PICodeList`

Subclass of `PITerm` with constructors for building Prolog lists of ASCII values.

Class `PICharList`

Subclass of `PITerm` with constructors for building Prolog lists of one-character atoms (as `atom_chars/2`).

Class `PICompound`

Subclass of `PITerm` with constructors for building compound terms.

Class `PITail`

SubClass of `PITerm` for building and analysing Prolog lists.

Class `PITermv`

Vector of Prolog terms. See `PL_new_term_refs()`. the `[]` operator is overloaded to access

elements in this vector. *PLTermv* is used to build complex terms and provide argument-lists to Prolog goals.

Class PException

Subclass of *PLTerm* representing a Prolog exception. Provides methods for the Prolog communication and mapping to human-readable text representation.

Class PTypeError

Subclass of *PException* for representing a Prolog `type_error` exception.

Class PIDomainError

Subclass of *PException* for representing a Prolog `domain_error` exception.

Class PExistenceError

Subclass of *PException* for representing a Prolog `existence_error` exception.

Class PPermissionError

Subclass of *PException* for representing a Prolog `permission_error` exception.

Class PAtom

Allow for manipulating atoms in their internal Prolog representation for fast comparison.

Class PQuery

Represents opening and enumerating the solutions to a Prolog query.

Class PFrame

This utility-class can be used to discard unused term-references as well as to do ‘*data-backtracking*’.

Class PEngine

This class is used in *embedded* applications (applications where the main control is held in C++). It provides creation and destruction of the Prolog environment.

Class PRegister

The encapsulation of `PL_register_foreign()` is defined to be able to use C++ global constructors for registering foreign predicates.

The required C(++) function header and registration of a predicate is arranged through a macro called `PREDICATE()`.

3 Examples

Before going into a detailed description of the C++ classes we present a few examples illustrating the ‘feel’ of the interface.

3.1 Hello(World)

This simple example shows the basic definition of the predicate `hello/1` and how a Prolog argument is converted to C-data:

```
PREDICATE(hello, 1)
{ cout << "Hello " << (char *)A1 << endl;

  return TRUE;
}
```

The arguments to `PREDICATE()` are the name and arity of the predicate. The macros `A<n>` provide access to the predicate arguments by position and are of the type *PLTerm*. Casting a *PLTerm* to a `char *` or `wchar_t *` provides the natural type-conversion for most Prolog data-types, using the output of `write/1` otherwise:

```
?- hello(world).
Hello world

Yes
?- hello(X)
Hello _G170

X = _G170
```

3.2 Adding numbers

This example shows arithmetic using the C++ interface, including unification, type-checking and conversion. The predicate `add/3` adds the two first arguments and unifies the last with the result.

```
PREDICATE(add, 3)
{ return A3 = (long)A1 + (long)A2;
}
```

Casting a *PLTerm* to a `long` performs a `PL_get.long()` and throws a C++ exception if the Prolog argument is not a Prolog integer or float that can be converted without loss to a `long`. The `=` operator of *PLTerm* is defined to perform unification and returns `TRUE` or `FALSE` depending on the result.

```
?- add(1, 2, X).

X = 3.
?- add(a, 2, X).
[ERROR: Type error: 'integer' expected, found 'a']
Exception: ( 7) add(a, 2, _G197) ?
```

3.3 Average of solutions

This example is a bit harder. The predicate `average/3` is defined to take the template `average(+Var, :Goal, -Average)`, where *Goal* binds *Var* and will unify *Average* with average of the (integer) results.

PlQuery takes the name of a predicate and the goal-argument vector as arguments. From this information it deduces the arity and locates the predicate. the member-function `next_solution()` yields `TRUE` if there was a solution and `FALSE` otherwise. If the goal yielded a Prolog exception it is mapped into a C++ exception.

```
PREDICATE(average, 3)
{ long sum = 0;
  long n = 0;

  PlQuery q("call", PlTermv(A2));
  while( q.next_solution() )
  { sum += (long)A1;
    n++;
  }
  return A3 = (double)sum/(double)n;
}
```

4 The class *PlTerm*

As we have seen from the examples, the *PlTerm* class plays a central role in conversion and operating on Prolog data. This section provides complete documentation of this class.

4.1 Constructors

PlTerm::PlTerm()

Creates a new initialised term (holding a Prolog variable).

PlTerm::PlTerm(term_t t)

Converts between the C-interface and the C++ interface by turning the term-reference into an instance of *PlTerm*. Note that, being a lightweight class, this is a no-op at the machine-level!

PlTerm::PlTerm(const char *text)

Creates a term-references holding a Prolog atom representing *text*.

PlTerm::PlTerm(const wchar_t *text)

Creates a term-references holding a Prolog atom representing *text*.

PlTerm::PlTerm(const PlAtom &atom)

Creates a term-references holding a Prolog atom from an atom-handle.

PlTerm::PlTerm(long n)

Creates a term-references holding a Prolog integer representing *n*.

PITerm::PITerm(double f)

Creates a term-references holding a Prolog float representing *f*.

PITerm::PITerm(void *ptr)

Creates a term-references holding a Prolog pointer. A pointer is represented in Prolog as a mangled integer. The mangling is designed to make most pointers fit into a *tagged-integer*. Any valid pointer can be represented. This mechanism can be used to represent pointers to C++ objects in Prolog. Please note that ‘myclass’ should define conversion to and from `void *`.

```
PREDICATE(make_my_object, 1)
{ myclass *myobj = new myclass();

  return A1 = (void *)myobj;
}

PREDICATE(free_my_object, 1)
{ myclass *myobj = (void *)A1;

  delete(myobj);
  return TRUE;
}
```

4.2 Casting PTerm to native C-types

PITerm can be casted to the following types:

PITerm::operator term_t(void)

This cast is used for integration with the C-interface primitives.

PITerm::operator long(void)

Yields a `long` if the *PITerm* is a Prolog integer or float that can be converted without loss to a `long`. throws a `type_error` exception otherwise.

PITerm::operator int(void)

Same as for `long`, but might represent fewer bits.

PITerm::operator double(void)

Yields the value as a C double if *PITerm* represents a Prolog integer or float.

PITerm::operator wchar_t *(void)**PITerm::operator char *(void)**

Converts the Prolog argument using `PL_get_chars()` using the flags `CVT_ALL|CVT_WRITE|BUF_RING`, which implies Prolog atoms and strings are converted to the represented text. All other data is handed to `write/1`. If the text is static in Prolog, a direct pointer to the string is returned. Otherwise the text is saved in a ring of 16 buffers and must be copied to avoid overwriting.

PITerm::operator void *(void)

Extracts pointer value from a term. The term should have been created by `PITerm::PITerm(void*)`.

4.3 Unification

`int PTerm::operator =(Type)`

The operator = is defined for the *Types PTerm*, long, double, char *, wchar_t* and *PLAtom*. It performs Prolog unification and returns TRUE if successful and FALSE otherwise.

The boolean return-value leads to somewhat unconventional-looking code as normally, assignment returns the value assigned in C. Unification however is fundamentally different to assignment as it can succeed or fail. Here is a common example.

```
PREDICATE(hostname, 1)
{ char buf[32];

  if ( gethostname(buf, sizeof(buf)) == 0 )
    return A1 = buf;

  return FALSE;
}
```

4.4 Comparison

`int PTerm::operator ==(const PTerm &t)`

`int PTerm::operator !=(const PTerm &t)`

`int PTerm::operator <(const PTerm &t)`

`int PTerm::operator >(const PTerm &t)`

`int PTerm::operator <=(const PTerm &t)`

`int PTerm::operator >=(const PTerm &t)`

Compare the instance with *t* and return the result according to the Prolog defined *standard order of terms*.

`int PTerm::operator ==(long num)`

`int PTerm::operator !=(long num)`

`int PTerm::operator <(long num)`

`int PTerm::operator >(long num)`

`int PTerm::operator <=(long num)`

`int PTerm::operator >=(long num)`

Convert *PTerm* to a long and perform standard C-comparison between the two long integers. If *PTerm* cannot be converted a `type_error` is raised.

`int PTerm::operator ==(const wchar_t *)`

`int PTerm::operator ==(const char *)`

Yields TRUE if the *PTerm* is an atom or string representing the same text as the argument, FALSE if the conversion was successful, but the strings are not equal and a `type_error` exception if the conversion failed.

Below are some typical examples. See section 6 for direct manipulation of atoms in their internal representation.

<code>A1 < 0</code>	Test <i>A1</i> to hold a Prolog integer or float that can be transformed lossless to an integer less than zero.
<code>A1 < PlTerm(0)</code>	<i>A1</i> is before the term '0' in the 'standard order of terms'. This means that if <i>A1</i> represents an atom, this test yields TRUE.
<code>A1 == PlCompound("a(1)")</code>	Test <i>A1</i> to represent the term <code>a(1)</code> .
<code>A1 == "now"</code>	Test <i>A1</i> to be an atom or string holding the text "now".

4.5 Analysing compound terms

Compound terms can be viewed as an array of terms with a name and arity (length). This view is expressed by overloading the `[]` operator.

A `TypeError` is raised if the argument is not compound and a `domain_error` if the index is out of range.

In addition, the following functions are defined:

`PlTerm PlTerm::operator [](int arg)`

If the *PlTerm* is a compound term and *arg* is between 1 and the arity of the term, return a new *PlTerm* representing the *arg*-th argument of the term. If *PlTerm* is not compound, a `TypeError` is raised. If *arg* is out of range, a `domain_error` is raised. Please note the counting from 1 which is consistent to Prolog's `arg/3` predicate, but inconsistent to C's normal view on an array. See also class *PlCompound*. The following example tests *x* to represent a term with first-argument an atom or string equal to `gnat`.

```
...
if ( x[1] == "gnat" )
...
```

`const char * PlTerm::name()`

Return a `const char *` holding the name of the functor of the compound term. Raises a `TypeError` if the argument is not compound.

`int PlTerm::arity()`

Returns the arity of the compound term. Raises a `TypeError` if the argument is not compound.

4.6 Miscellaneous

`int PlTerm::type()`

Yields the actual type of the term as `PL_term_type()`. Return values are `PL_VARIABLE`, `PL_FLOAT`, `PL_INTEGER`, `PL_ATOM`, `PL_STRING` or `PL_TERM`

To avoid very confusing combinations of constructors and therefore possible undesirable effects a number of subclasses of *PlTerm* have been defined that provide constructors for creating special Prolog terms. These subclasses are defined below.

4.7 The class `PlString`

A SWI-Prolog string represents a byte-string on the global stack. It's lifetime is the same as for compound terms and other data living on the global stack. Strings are not only a compound representation of text that is garbage-collected, but as they can contain 0-bytes, they can be used to contain arbitrary C-data structures.

`PlString::PlString(const wchar_t *text)`

`PlString::PlString(const char *text)`

Create a SWI-Prolog string object from a 0-terminated C-string. The *text* is copied.

`PlString::PlString(const wchar_t *text, size_t len)`

`PlString::PlString(const char *text, size_t len)`

Create a SWI-Prolog string object from a C-string with specified length. The *text* may contain 0-characters and is copied.

4.8 The class `PlCodeList`

`PlCodeList::PlCodeList(const wchar_t *text)`

`PlCodeList::PlCodeList(const char *text)`

Create a Prolog list of ASCII codes from a 0-terminated C-string.

4.9 The class `PlCharList`

Character lists are compliant to Prolog's `atom_chars/2` predicate.

`PlCharList::PlCharList(const wchar_t *text)`

`PlCharList::PlCharList(const char *text)`

Create a Prolog list of one-character atoms from a 0-terminated C-string.

4.10 The class `PlCompound`

`PlCompound::PlCompound(const wchar_t *text)`

`PlCompound::PlCompound(const char *text)`

Create a term by parsing (as `read/1`) the *text*. If the *text* is not valid Prolog syntax, a `syntax_error` exception is raised. Otherwise a new term-reference holding the parsed text is created.

`PlCompound::PlCompound(const wchar_t *functor, PlTermv args)`

`PlCompound::PlCompound(const char *functor, PlTermv args)`

Create a compound term with the given name from the given vector of arguments. See *PlTermv* for details. The example below creates the Prolog term `hello(world)`.

```
PlCompound("hello", PlTermv("world"))
```

4.11 The class `PlTail`

The class *PlTail* is both for analysing and constructing lists. It is called *PlTail* as enumeration-steps make the term-reference follow the ‘tail’ of the list.

`PlTail::PlTail(PlTerm list)`

A *PlTail* is created by making a new term-reference pointing to the same object. As *PlTail* is used to enumerate or build a Prolog list, the initial *list* term-reference keeps pointing to the head of the list.

`int PlTail::append(const PlTerm &element)`

Appends *element* to the list and make the *PlTail* reference point to the new variable tail. If *A* is a variable, and this function is called on it using the argument "gnat", a list of the form [gnat|B] is created and the *PlTail* object now points to the new variable *B*.

This function returns `TRUE` if the unification succeeded and `FALSE` otherwise. No exceptions are generated.

The example below translates the `main()` argument vector to Prolog and calls the prolog predicate `entry/1` with it.

```
int
main(int argc, char **argv)
{ PlEngine e(argv[0]);
  PlTermv av(1);
  PlTail l(av[0]);

  for(int i=0; i<argc; i++)
    l.append(argv[i]);
  l.close();

  PlQuery q("entry", av);
  return q.next_solution() ? 0 : 1;
}
```

`int PlTail::close()`

Unifies the term with [] and returns the result of the unification.

`int PlTail::next(PlTerm &t)`

Bind *t* to the next element of the list *PlTail* and advance *PlTail*. Returns `TRUE` on success and `FALSE` if *PlTail* represents the empty list. If *PlTail* is neither a list nor the empty list, a `type_error` is thrown. The example below prints the elements of a list.

```
PREDICATE(write_list, 1)
{ PlTail tail(A1);
  PlTerm e;

  while(tail.next(e))
    cout << (char *)e << endl;
```

```

    return TRUE;
}

```

5 The class `PlTermv`

The class `PlTermv` represents an array of term-references. This type is used to pass the arguments to a foreignly defined predicate, construct compound terms (see `PlTerm::PlTerm(const char *name, PlTermv arguments)`) and to create queries (see `PlQuery`).

The only useful member function is the overloading of `[]`, providing (0-based) access to the elements. Range checking is performed and raises a `domain_error` exception.

The constructors for this class are below.

`PlTermv::PlTermv(int size)`

Create a new array of term-references, all holding variables.

`PlTermv::PlTermv(int size, term_t t0)`

Convert a C-interface defined term-array into an instance.

`PlTermv::PlTermv(PlTerm ...)`

Create a vector from 1 to 5 initialising arguments. For example:

```

load_file(const char *file)
{ return PlCall("compile", PlTermv(file));
}

```

If the vector has to contain more than 5 elements, the following construction should be used:

```

{ PlTermv av(10);

  av[0] = "hello";
  ...
}

```

6 Supporting Prolog constants

Both for quick comparison as for quick building of lists of atoms, it is desirable to provide access to Prolog's atom-table, mapping handles to unique string-constants. If the handles of two atoms are different it is guaranteed they represent different text strings.

Suppose we want to test whether a term represents a certain atom, this interface presents a large number of alternatives:

Direct comparison to char *

Example:

```
PREDICATE(test, 1)
{ if ( A1 == "read" )
    ...;
}
```

This writes easily and is the preferred method if performance is not critical and only a few comparisons have to be made. It validates *AI* to be a term-reference representing text (atom, string, integer or float) extracts the represented text and uses `strcmp()` to match the strings.

Direct comparison to PlAtom

Example:

```
static PlAtom ATOM_read("read");

PREDICATE(test, 1)
{ if ( A1 == ATOM_read )
    ...;
}
```

This case raises a `type_error` if *AI* is not an atom. Otherwise it extracts the atom-handle and compares it to the atom-handle of the global *PlAtom* object. This approach is faster and provides more strict type-checking.

Extraction of the atom and comparison to PlAtom

Example:

```
static PlAtom ATOM_read("read");

PREDICATE(test, 1)
{ PlAtom a1(A1);

    if ( a1 == ATOM_read )
        ...;
}
```

This approach is basically the same as section 6, but in nested if-then-else the extraction of the atom from the term is done only once.

Extraction of the atom and comparison to char *

Example:

```
PREDICATE(test, 1)
{ PlAtom a1(A1);

    if ( a1 == "read" )
        ...;
}
```

This approach extracts the atom once and for each test extracts the represented string from the atom and compares it. It avoids the need for global atom constructors.

PlAtom::PlAtom(atom_t handle)

Create from C-interface atom handle. Used internally and for integration with the C-interface.

PlAtom::PlAtom(const wchar_t *text)

PlAtom::PlAtom(const char *text)

Create an atom from a string. The *text* is copied if a new atom is created.

PlAtom::PlAtom(const PlTerm &t)

If *t* represents an atom, the new instance represents this atom. Otherwise a `type_error` is thrown.

int PlAtom::operator==(const wchar_t *text)

int PlAtom::operator==(const char *text)

Yields `TRUE` if the atom represents *text*, `FALSE` otherwise. Performs a `strcmp()` for this.

int PlAtom::operator==(const PlAtom &a)

Compares the two atom-handles, returning `TRUE` or `FALSE`.

7 The class PlRegister

This class encapsulates `PL_register_foreign()`. It is defined as a class rather than a function to exploit the C++ *global constructor* feature. This class provides a constructor to deal with the `PREDICATE()` way of defining foreign predicates as well as constructors to deal with more conventional foreign predicate definitions.

PlRegister::PlRegister(const char *module, const char *name, int arity, foreign_t (f)(term_t t0, int a, control_t ctx))

Register *f* as a the implementation of the foreign predicate $\langle name \rangle / \langle arity \rangle$. This interface uses the `PL_FA_VARARGS` calling convention, where the argument list of the predicate is passed using an array of `term_t` objects as returned by `PL_new_term_refs()`. This interface poses no limits on the arity of the predicate and is faster, especially for a large number of arguments.

PlRegister::PlRegister(const char *module, const char *name, foreign_t (*f)(PlTerm a0, ...))

Registers functions for use with the traditional calling conventional, where each positional argument to the predicate is passed as an argument to the function *f*. This can be used to define functions as predicates similar to what is used in the C-interface:

```
static foreign_t
pl_hello(PlTerm a1)
```

```

{ ...
}

PlRegister x_hello_1(NULL, "hello", 1, pl_hello);

```

This construct is currently supported upto 3 arguments.

8 The class **PlQuery**

This class encapsulates the call-backs onto Prolog.

PlQuery::PlQuery(*const char *name, const PlTermv &av*)

Create a query where *name* defines the name of the predicate and *av* the argument vector. The arity is deduced from *av*. The predicate is located in the Prolog module `user`.

PlQuery::PlQuery(*const char *module, const char *name, const PlTermv &av*)

Same, but performs the predicate lookup in the indicated module.

int PlQuery::next_solution()

Provide the next solution to the query. Yields `TRUE` if successful and `FALSE` if there are no (more) solutions. Prolog exceptions are mapped to C++ exceptions.

Below is an example listing the currently defined Prolog modules to the terminal.

```

PREDICATE(list_modules, 0)
{ PlTermv av(1);

  PlQuery q("current_module", av);
  while( q.next_solution() )
    cout << (char *)av[0] << endl;

  return TRUE;
}

```

In addition to the above, the following functions have been defined.

int PlCall(*const char *predicate, const PlTermv &av*)

Creates a *PlQuery* from the arguments generates the first `next_solution()` and destroys the query. Returns the result of `next_solution()` or an exception.

int PlCall(*const char *module, const char *predicate, const PlTermv &av*)

Same, locating the predicate in the named module.

int PlCall(*const wchar_t *goal*)

int PlCall(*const char *goal*)

Translates *goal* into a term and calls this term as the other `PlCall()` variations. Especially suitable for simple goals such as making Prolog load a file.

8.1 The class *PlFrame*

The class *PlFrame* provides an interface to discard unused term-references as well as rewinding unifications (*data-backtracking*). Reclaiming unused term-references is automatically performed after a call to a C++-defined predicate has finished and returns control to Prolog. In this scenario *PlFrame* is rarely of any use. This class comes into play if the toplevel program is defined in C++ and calls Prolog multiple times. Setting up arguments to a query requires term-references and using *PlFrame* is the only way to reclaim them.

PlFrame::PlFrame()

Creating an instance of this class marks all term-references created afterwards to be valid only in the scope of this instance.

PlFrame::~~PlFrame()

Reclaims all term-references created after constructing the instance.

void PlFrame::rewind()

Discards all term-references **and** global-stack data created as well as undoing all unifications after the instance was created.

A typical use for *PlFrame* is the definition of C++ functions that call Prolog and may be called repeatedly from C++. Consider the definition of `assertWord()`, adding a fact to `word/1`:

```
void
assertWord(const char *word)
{ PlFrame fr;
  PlTermv av(1);

  av[0] = PlCompound("word", PlTermv(word));
  PlQuery q("assert", av);
  q.next_solution();
}
```

This example shows the most sensible use of *PlFrame* if it is used in the context of a foreign predicate. The predicate's truth-value is the same as for the Prolog unification (`=/2`), but has no side effects. In Prolog one would use double negation to achieve this.

```
PREDICATE(can_unify, 2)
{ PlFrame fr;

  int rval = (A1=A2);
  fr.rewind();
  return rval;
}
```

9 The PREDICATE macro

The PREDICATE macro is there to make your code look nice, taking care of the interface to the C-defined SWI-Prolog kernel as well as mapping exceptions. Using the macro

```
PREDICATE(hello, 1)
```

is the same as writing:

```
static foreign_t pl_hello__1(PlTermv PL_av);

static foreign_t
_pl_hello__1(term_t t0, int arity, control_t ctx)
{ (void)arity; (void)ctx;
  try
  { return pl_hello__1(PlTermv(1, t0));
  } catch ( PlTerm &ex )
  { return ex.raise();
  }
}

static PlRegister _x_hello__1("hello", 1, _pl_hello__1);

static foreign_t
pl_hello__1(PlTermv PL_av)
```

The first function converts the parameters passed from the Prolog kernel to a *PlTermv* instance and maps exceptions raised in the body to Prolog exceptions. The *PlRegister* global constructor registers the predicate. Finally, the function header for the implementation is created.

9.1 Variations of the PREDICATE macro

The PREDICATE() macros has a number of variations that deal with special cases.

PREDICATE0(name)

This is the same as PREDICATE(name, 0). It avoids a compiler warning about that *PL_av* is not used.

NAMED_PREDICATE(plname, cname, arity)

This version can be used to create predicates whose name is not a valid C++ identifier. Here is a —hypothetical— example, which unifies the second argument with a stringified version of the first. The ‘cname’ is used to create a name for the functions. The concrete name does not matter, but must be unique. Typically it is a descriptive name using the limitations imposed by C++ identifiers.

```
NAMED_PREDICATE("#", hash, 2)
{ A2 = (wchar_t*)A1;
}
```

NAMED_PREDICATE_NONDET(*plname, cname, arity*)

Define a non-deterministic Prolog predicate in C++. See `SWI-Prolog.h`. **FIXME:** Needs cleanup and an example.

9.2 Controlling the Prolog destination module

With no special precautions, the predicates are defined into the module from which `load_foreign_library/1` was called, or in the module `user` if there is no Prolog context from which to deduce the module such as while linking the extension statically with the Prolog kernel.

Alternatively, *before* loading the SWI-Prolog include file, the macro `PROLOG_MODULE` may be defined to a string containing the name of the destination module. A module name may only contain alpha-numerical characters (letters, digits, `_`). See the example below:

```
#define PROLOG_MODULE "math"
#include <SWI-Prolog.h>
#include <math.h>

PREDICATE(pi, 1)
{ A1 = M_PI;
}
```

```
?- math:pi(X).

X = 3.14159
```

10 Exceptions

Prolog exceptions are mapped to C++ exceptions using the subclass *PlException* of *PlTerm* to represent the Prolog exception term. All type-conversion functions of the interface raise Prolog-compliant exceptions, providing decent error-handling support at no extra work for the programmer.

For some commonly used exceptions, subclasses of *PlException* have been created to exploit both their constructors for easy creation of these exceptions as well as selective trapping in C++. Currently, these are *PlTypeError* and *PlDomainError*.

To throw an exception, create an instance of *PlException* and use `throw()` or `PlException::cppThrow()`. The latter refines the C++ exception class according to the represented Prolog exception before calling `throw()`.

```
char *data = "users";

throw PlException(PlCompound("no_database", PlTerm(data)));
```

10.1 The class `PlException`

This subclass of *PlTerm* is used to represent exceptions. Currently defined methods are:

`PlException::PlException(const PlTerm &t)`

Create an exception from a general Prolog term. This provides the interface for throwing any Prolog terms as an exception.

`PlException::operator wchar_t *(void)`

`PlException::operator char *(void)`

The exception is translated into a message as produced by `print_message/2`. The character data is stored in a ring. Example:

```
...;
try
{ PlCall("consult(load)");
} catch ( PlException &ex )
{ cerr << (char *) ex << endl;
}
```

`int plThrow()`

Used in the `PREDICATE()` wrapper to pass the exception to Prolog. See `PL_raise_exception()`.

`int cppThrow()`

Used by `PlQuery::next_solution()` to refine a generic *PlException* representing a specific class of Prolog exceptions to the corresponding C++ exception class and finally then executes `throw()`. Thus, if a *PlException* represents the term

`error(type_error(Expected, Actual), Context)`

`PlException::cppThrow()` throws a *PlTypeError* exception. This ensures consistency in the exception-class whether the exception is generated by the C++-interface or returned by Prolog.

The following example illustrates this behaviour:

```
PREDICATE(call_atom, 1)
{ try
{ return PlCall((char *)A1);
} catch ( PlTypeError &ex )
{ cerr << "Type Error caught in C++" << endl;
  cerr << "Message: \"" << (char *)ex << "\"\" << endl;
  return FALSE;
}
}
```

10.2 The class `PITypeError`

A *type error* expresses that a term does not satisfy the expected basic Prolog type.

`PITypeError::PITypeError(const char *expected, const PLTerm &actual)`

Creates an ISO standard Prolog error term expressing the *expected* type and *actual* term that does not satisfy this type.

10.3 The class `PIDomainError`

A *domain error* expresses that a term satisfies the basic Prolog type expected, but is unacceptable to the restricted domain expected by some operation. For example, the standard Prolog `open/3` call expect an `io_mode` (read, write, append, ...). If an integer is provided, this is a *type error*, if an atom other than one of the defined io-modes is provided it is a *domain error*.

`PIDomainError::PIDomainError(const char *expected, const PLTerm &actual)`

Creates an ISO standard Prolog error term expressing a the *expected* domain and the *actual* term found.

11 Embedded applications

Most of the above assumes Prolog is ‘in charge’ of the application and C++ is used to add functionality to Prolog, either for accessing external resources or for performance reasons. In some applications, there is a *main-program* and we want to use Prolog as a *logic server*. For these applications, the class `PLEngine` has been defined.

Only a single instance of this class can exist in a process. When used in a multi-threading application, only one thread at a time may have a running query on this engine. Applications should ensure this using proper locking techniques.¹

`PLEngine::PLEngine(int argc, char **argv)`

Initialises the Prolog engine. The application should make sure to pass `argv[0]` from its main function, which is needed in the Unix version to find the running executable. See `PL_initialise()` for details.

`PLEngine::PLEngine(char *argv0)`

Simple constructure using the main constructor with the specified argument for `argv[0]`.

`PLEngine::~~PLEngine()`

Calls `PL_cleanup()` to destroy all data created by the Prolog engine.

Section 4.11 has a simple example using this class.

¹For Unix, there is a multi-threaded version of SWI-Prolog. In this version each thread can create and destroy a thread-engine. There is currently no C++ interface defined to access this functionality, though —of course— you can use the C-functions.

12 Considerations

12.1 The C++ versus the C interface

Not all functionality of the C-interface is provided, but as *PlTerm* and `term_t` are essentially the same thing with automatic type-conversion between the two, this interface can be freely mixed with the functions defined for plain C.

Using this interface rather than the plain C-interface requires a little more resources. More term-references are wasted (but reclaimed on return to Prolog or using *PlFrame*). Use of some intermediate types (`functor_t` etc.) is not supported in the current interface, causing more hash-table lookups. This could be fixed, at the price of slightly complicating the interface.

12.2 Static linking and embedding

The mechanisms outlined in this document can be used for static linking with the SWI-Prolog kernel using `swipl-ld(1)`. In general the C++ linker should be used to deal with the C++ runtime libraries and global constructors.

12.3 Status and compiler versions

The current interface is entirely defined in the `.h` file using inlined code. This approach has a few advantages: as no C++ code is in the Prolog kernel, different C++ compilers with different name-mangling schemas can cooperate smoothly.

Also, changes to the header file have no consequences to binary compatibility with the SWI-Prolog kernel. This makes it possible to have different versions of the header file with few compatibility consequences.

13 Conclusions

In this document, we presented a high-level interface to Prolog exploiting automatic type-conversion and exception-handling defined in C++.

Programming using this interface is much more natural and requires only little extra resources in terms of time and memory.

Especially the smooth integration between C++ and Prolog exceptions reduce the coding effort for type checking and reporting in foreign predicates.

Index

add/3, 6
arg/3, 10
assert, 17
atom_chars/2, 4, 11
average/3, 7

cppThrow(), 20

entry/1, 12

hello/1, 5

load_foreign_library/1, 19

NAMED_PREDICATE(), 18
NAMED_PREDICATE_NONDET(), 19

open/3, 21

PIAtom *class*, 5, 9, 14
PIAtom::operator ==(), 15
PIAtom::PIAtom(), 15
PICall(), 16
PICharList *class*, 4
PICharList::PICharList(), 11
PICodeList *class*, 4
PICodeList::PICodeList(), 11
PICompound *class*, 4, 10
PICompound::PICompound(), 11
PIDomainError *class*, 5, 19
PIDomainError::PIDomainError(), 21
PIEngine *class*, 5, 21
PIEngine::~PIEngine(), 21
PIEngine::PIEngine(), 21
PIException *class*, 5, 19, 20
PIException::operator char *(), 20
PIException::operator wchar_t *(), 20
PIException::PIException(), 20
PIExistenceError *class*, 5
PIFrame *class*, 5, 17, 22
PIFrame::~PIFrame(), 17
PIFrame::PIFrame(), 17
PIFrame::rewind(), 17
PIPermissionError *class*, 5
PIQuery *class*, 5, 7, 13, 16
PIQuery::next_solution(), 16
PIQuery::PIQuery(), 16
PIRegister *class*, 5, 18
PIRegister::PIRegister(), 15
PIString *class*, 4
PIString::PIString(), 11
PITail *class*, 4, 12
PITail::append(), 12
PITail::close(), 12
PITail::next(), 12
PITail::PITail(), 12
PITerm *class*, 4–10, 19, 20, 22
PITerm::arity(), 10
PITerm::name(), 10
PITerm::operator !=(), 9
PITerm::operator <(), 9
PITerm::operator <=(), 9
PITerm::operator >(), 9
PITerm::operator >=(), 9
PITerm::operator ==(), 9
PITerm::operator [](), 10
PITerm::operator char *(), 8
PITerm::operator double(), 8
PITerm::operator int(), 8
PITerm::operator long(), 8
PITerm::operator term_t(), 8
PITerm::operator void *(), 8
PITerm::operator wchar_t *(), 8
PITerm::PITerm(), 7, 8
PITerm::type(), 10
PITermv *class*, 4, 5, 11, 13, 18
PITermv::PITermv(), 13
plThrow(), 20
PITypeError *class*, 19, 20
PITypeError *class*, 5
PITypeError::PITypeError(), 21
PREDICATE0(), 18
print_message/2, 20

read/1, 11

word/1, 17
write/1, 6, 8