Some Improvements over the Continuation Call Tabling
Implementation Technique

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Abstract. Tabled evaluation has been proved an effective method to improve
several aspects of goal-oriented query evaluation, including termination and com-
plexity. Several “native” implementations of tabled evaluation have been deve-
loped which offer good performance, but many of them need significant changes
to the underlying Prolog implementation. More portable approaches, generally
using program transformation, have been proposed but they often result in lower
efficiency. We explore some techniques aimed at combining the best of these
worlds, i.e., developing a portable and extensible implementation, with minimal
modifications at the abstract machine level, and with reasonably good perfor-
mance. Our preliminary results indicate promising results.

1 Introduction

Tabling [15, 2, 14] is a resolution strategy which tries to memoize previous calls and
their answers in order to improve several well-known shortcomings found in SLD reso-
lution. It brings some of the advantages of bottom-up evaluation to the top-down, goal-
oriented evaluation strategy. In particular, evaluating logic programs under a tabling
scheme may achieve termination in cases where SLD resolution does not (because of
infinite loops —for example, the tabled evaluation of bounded-term-size programs is
guaranteed to always terminate). Also, programs which perform repeated computations
can be greatly sped up. Program declarativeness is also improved since the order of
clauses and goals within a clause is less relevant, if at all. Tabled evaluation has been
successfully applied in many fields, such as deductive databases [10], program analy-
xis [16, 3], reasoning in the semantic Web [18], model checking [8], and others.

In all cases the advantages of tabled evaluation stem from checking whether calls
to tabled predicates, i.e., predicates which have been marked to be evaluated using
tabling, have been made before. Repeated calls to tabled predicates consume answers
from a table, they suspend when all stored answers have been consumed, and they
fail when no more answers can be generated. However, the advantages are not without
drawbacks. The main problem is the complexity of some (efficient) implementations of
tabled resolution, and a secondary issue is the difficulty in selecting which predicates to
table in order not to incur in undesired slow-downs.
Two main categories of tabling mechanisms can be distinguished: suspension-based and linear tabling mechanisms. In suspension-based mechanisms the computation state of suspended tabled subgoals has to be preserved to avoid backtracking over them. This is done either by freezing the stacks, as in XSB [12], by copying to another area, as in CAT [5], or by using an intermediate solution as in CHAT [6]. Linear tabling mechanisms maintain a single execution tree where tabled subgoals always extend the current computation without requiring suspension and resumption of sub-computations. The computation of the (local) fixpoint is performed by repeatedly looping subgoals until no more solutions can be found. Examples of this method are the linear tabling of BProlog [17] and the DRA scheme [7].

Suspension-based mechanism have achieved very good performance results but, in general, deep changes to the underlying Prolog implementation are required. Linear mechanisms, on the other hand, can usually be implemented on top of existing sequential engines without major modifications. One of our theses is that it should be possible to find a combination of the best of both worlds: a suspension-based mechanism that is efficient and does not require complex modifications to the underlying Prolog implementation, thus contributing to maintainability. Also, we would like to avoid introducing any overhead that would reduce the execution speed for SLD execution.

Our starting point is the continuation call mechanism [11]. This approach has the advantage that it indeed does not need deep changes to the underlying Prolog machinery. On the other hand it has shown up to now worse efficiency than the more “native” suspension-based implementations. Our aim is to analyze the bottlenecks of this approach, explore variations of it, and propose solutions in order to improve its efficiency without losing much in implementation simplicity and portability.

2 Tabling Basics

We will now sketch how tabled evaluation works from a user point of view (more details can be found in [2,12]) and then we briefly describe the continuation call mechanism implementation technique proposed in [11] on which we base our work.

2.1 Tabling by Example

Let us use as running example the program in Figure 1 (taken from [11]), where we can ignore the declaration :- tabled path/2 (which instructs the compiler to use tabled execution for the designated predicate) for the moment, and assume that SLD resolution is to be used. The program is aimed at determining reachability of nodes in a graph, and a query such as ?- path(a, N). will never terminate as there is a left-recursive clause which generates a goal with the same instantiation as the initial call.

Adding the tabled declaration forces the compiler and runtime system to distinguish the first occurrence of a tabled goal (the generator) and subsequent calls which are identical up to variable renaming (the consumers). The generator uses resolution against the program clauses to derive answers for the goal. Consumers suspend the current execution path (using implementation-dependent means) and move to a different
branch. When such an alternative branch finally succeeds, the answer generated for the initial query is inserted in a table associated with the original goal and makes it possible to reactivate suspended calls and to continue execution at the point where it was stopped — i.e., consumers do not use SLD resolution, but rather they obtain answers from the table where they had been previously inserted.

Predicates not marked as tabled are executed following SLD resolution, hopefully without any (or minimal) overhead associated to the availability of tabling.

2.2 A Concrete Technique: Continuation Call

The continuation call technique presented by Ramesh and Chen in [11] implements tabling by a combination of program transformation and side effects in the form of insertions to and reads from an internally-maintained table which relates calls, answers, and the continuation code to be executed after consumers read answers from the table. We will now sketch how the mechanism works using the path/2 example shown in Figure 1, which is transformed into the program in Figure 2 — this code is what is actually executed.

Roughly speaking, the transformation for tabling is as follows: a bridge predicate for path/2 is introduced so that calls to path/2 made from regular Prolog execution do not need to be aware that path/2 is tabled. slg/1 will ensure that its argument is evaluated to completion and it will return, on backtracking, all the solutions found for the tabled predicate. slg/1 introduces the call in the answer table and generates an identifier for it. Control is then passed to a new distinct predicate (in this case, slg_path/3) by constructing a term from path(X, Y) (which is passed as argument to slg/1) and then calling this term, suitably instantiated, from inside the implementation of slg/1. The first argument is the original call to path/2 and the second one is the identifier generated for the parent call, which is used to relate operations on the table with this initial call. Every clause of slg_path/3 is constructed from a clause of the original path/2 by:

4 The new term is created, in this case, by prepending the prefix slg_ to the argument passed to slg/1. Any means of constructing a new unique predicate symbol based on the original one is acceptable. Our implementation tries to do at compile time as much of this work as possible.
path(X, Y):— slg(path(X, Y)).

slg_path(path(X, Y), ld):—
  edge(X, Y),
  slgcall(Id, [X], path(Y, Z), path_cont_1).

slg_path(path(X, Y), ld):—
  edge(X, Y),
  answer(Id, path(X, Y)).

path(X, Z):—
  edge(X, Y),
  path(Y, Z).

path(X, Z):—
  edge(X, Z).

Fig. 3. A program which needs to keep an environment.

Fig. 4. The program in Figure 3 after being transformed for tabled execution.

- Adding an answer/2 primitive at the end of each clause of path/2. answer/2 is responsible for checking for redundant answers and executing whatever continuations (see next item) there may be associated with that call identified by its first argument.

- Instrumenting recursive calls to path/2 using slgcall/3. If the term path(X, Y), passed as an argument, has already been inserted in the table, slgcall/3 creates a new consumer which reads answers from the table. It is otherwise inserted in the table with a new call identifier and execution follows against the slg_path/3 program clauses to derive new answers. In the first case, path_cont/2 is associated as (one of) the continuation(s) of path(X, Y) (its body being what remains of the clause body of path/2 after the recursive call), and slgcall/3 fails. In the second case path_cont/2 is only associated as a continuation of path(X, Y) if the tabled call cannot be completed. The continuation path_cont/2 will be activated by answer/2 upon answer insertion or erased upon completion of the subgoal path(X, Y).

- path_cont/2 and slg_path/3 are constructed in a similar way: the continuation is applied the same transformation as the initial clauses and can call slgcall/3 and answer/2 at appropriate times.

As this strategy tries to complete subgoals as soon as possible, failing whenever new answers are found, it implements the so called local scheduling [12]. This implementation uses the same completion detection algorithm as the SLG-WAM.

Figure 3 shows a variation of the program which requires slight modifications of the translation. Note that an answer to ?- path(X, Y) needs to give a value to a variable (X) which does not appear in the recursive call to path/2. Therefore, if we follow the translation in Figure 2, this variable will not be available at the time where the answer is inserted in the table. The solution adopted in this case is to explicitly carry a set of variables when preparing the call to the continuation. This set is also inserted in the table, and is passed to the continuation call when resumed.

The translation is shown in Figure 4. Note that the call to slgcall/4 in path_cont_1 includes a list containing variable X. This list is, on resumption, received by path_cont_1 and used to construct and insert in the table an answer which includes X. A safe approx-
Fig. 5. Pseudo-code for answer/2

```prolog
answer(callid Id, term Answer) {  
  insert Answer in answer table  
  if (Answer not in answer table) {  
    for each continuation call C of tabled call Id {  
      call (C) consuming Answer;  
    }  
  }  
  return FALSE;  
}
```

Fig. 6. Pseudo-code for slgcall/4

```
slgcall (callid Parent, term Bindings,  
term Call, term CCall) {  
  Id = insert Call into answer table;  
  if (Id.state == READY) {  
    Id.state = EVALUATING;  
    call the transformed clause of Call;  
    check for completion;  
    answer(callid Id, term Answer) {  
      insert Answer in answer table  
      if (Answer not in answer table) {  
        for each continuation call C of tabled call Id {  
          call (C) consuming Answer;  
        }  
        return FALSE;  
      }  
    }  
  }  
  return FALSE;  
}
```

Fig. 5. Pseudo-code for answer/2  
Fig. 6. Pseudo-code for slgcall/4

imation of the variables which should appear in this list is the set of variables which appear in the clause before the tabled goal and which are used in the continuation, including the answer/2 primitive if there is one in the continuation —this is the case in our example. Variables appearing in the tabled call itself do not need to be included, as they will be passed along anyway.

The list of bindings is a means to recover the environment existing when a call is suspended. Other approaches recover this environment using e.g. lower-level mechanisms, such as the forward trail of SLG-WAM plus freeze registers [12]. The continuation call approach, has, however, the nice property that several of the operations are made at the Prolog level through program transformation, which increases its portability and simplifies the implementation. On the other hand, the primitives which insert answers in the table and retrieve them are usually, and for efficiency issues, written using some lower-level language and accessed using a suitable interface.

The pseudo-code for answer/2 and slgcall/4 is shown in Figure 5 and 6, respectively. The pseudo-code for slg/1 is similar to that of slgcall/4 but, instead of consuming answers, they are returned by backtracking and it finally fails when all the stored answers have been exhausted.

### 2.3 Issues in the Continuation Call Mechanism

We have identified two performance issues when implementing the technique sketched in the previous section. The first one is rather general and related to the heavy use of the interface from C to Prolog (and back) that the implementation needs to make, and which adds an overhead which cannot be neglected.

The second one is the repeated copy of continuation calls. Continuation calls (Prolog predicates with an arbitrarily long list of variables as an argument) are completely copied from Prolog memory to the table for every consumer found. Storing a pointer to
these structures in memory is not enough, since \texttt{slg/1} and \texttt{slgcall/3} fail immediately after associating a continuation call with a table call in order to force the program to search for more solutions and complete the tabled call. Therefore, the data structures created during forward execution may be removed on backtracking and not be available when needed. When continuations are resumed by \texttt{answer/2}, it is necessary to reconstruct them as Prolog terms from the data stored in the table to call them as a goal. This can clearly have a negative impact on performance.

Finally, the extensibility of the baseline implementation [13] is compromised since it was not capable of backtracking over Prolog predicates called from C. This would make it difficult to implement other scheduling strategies. Since this shortcoming may appear also in other C interfaces, it is a candidate to be avoided.

3 An Improvement over the Continuation Call Technique

We will now devise some solutions to the drawbacks in the original implementation we described in Section 2.3.

3.1 Using a Lower-Level Interface

The calls C-to-Prolog were initially done using a relatively high-level interface similar to those commonly found in logic programming systems nowadays: operations to create and traverse Prolog terms appear to the programmer as regular C functions, and details of the internal data representation were hidden to the programmer. This interface imposed a noticeable overhead in our implementation, as the calls to C functions had to allocate environments, pass arguments, set up Prolog environments to call Prolog from C, etc.

Since the low-level code which constructs Prolog terms and performs calls from C is the same regardless the program being executed, we decided to skip the programmer interface and call directly macros available in the engine implementation. Given that the complexity of the C code involved is certainly manageable, that was a not difficult task to do and it sped the execution up by a factor of 2.5 on average.

3.2 Calling Prolog from C

A relevant issue when using a C-to-Prolog interface is the need to call Prolog goals from C efficiently. This is needed both by \texttt{slgcall/3} and \texttt{answer/2} in order to invoke continuations of tabled predicates. As mentioned before, we want to design a solution which relies as little as possible on non-widely available characteristics of C-to-Prolog interfaces (to improve implementation extensibility), and which keeps the efficiency as high as possible.

The solution we have adopted is to move calls to continuations from the C level to the Prolog level. Continuations are stored in a (Prolog) list which is pointed to from the corresponding table entry, and they are returned one at a time on backtracking using an extra argument of \texttt{slgcall/3} and \texttt{answer/2}; these continuations are then called by
path(X, Y) :-
    slgcall(path(X, Y), Sid, true, Pred),
    (nonvar(Pred) ->
     (call(Pred);
      test_complete(Sid)) ;
     true
    ),
    consume_answer(path(X, Y), Sid).

slg_path(path(X, Y), Sid) :-
    edge(X, Z),
    slgcall(path(Z, Y), NewSid,
            path_cont_1, Pred),
    (nonvar(Pred) ->
     (call(Pred);
      test_complete(NewSid)) ;
     true
    ),
    read_answers(Sid, NewSid, [X], CCall, 0),
    slg_path(path(X, Y), Sid):-
    edge(X, Y),
    answer(path(X, Y), Sid, CCall, 0),
    call(CCall).

Fig. 7. New program transformation for right-recursive definition of path/2

Prolog. Failure happens when there is no pending continuation call. New continuations found in the program execution can be destructively inserted at the end of the list of continuations in a Prolog-transparent fashion.

In Figure 7 (which shows the translation we propose now for the code in Figure 3), answer/4, read_answers/5, and slgcall/4 return in variables Pred and CCall the continuations of a tabled call to be called as Prolog goals. This avoids using up C stack space due to repeated calls Prolog -> C -> Prolog -> ... which may exhaust the available space. Additionally, the C code is somewhat simplified (e.g., there is no need to set up a Prolog environment to be used from C) and a lower-level, faster interface is easier to use. The last unused argument of answer/4 (and read_answers/5) implements a trick to make the corresponding choicepoint have an extra, unused slot (corresponding to a WAM argument), which will be used to hold a pointer to the rest of the list of continuations. Having such a slot avoids changing the structure of choicepoints and how they are managed. This pointer is destructively updated every time a continuation call is handed to the Prolog level.

We would like to clarify how some of the primitives used in Figure 7 work for this case. Note that the functionality of slgcall/3 (slg/1 when called from SLD-type execution) has been split across slgcall/3, test_completion/1 and read_answer/5 (consume_answers/2 when associated with slg/1) in order to being able to perform calls to continuations from Prolog. slgcall/5, as in the original definition, checks if a call to a tabled goal is a new one. If so, Pred is unified with a goal whose main functor is slg_path/2 and whose arguments are appropriately instantiated. A free variable is returned otherwise. test_complete/1 is only

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5 This requires, in our implementation, the capability to write non-deterministic predicates in C. If this feature is not available, we could always return a list of continuations and traverse them using member/2, and further reduce the requirements on the C interface.
useful for its side effects: it tests if the tabled goal identified by \( \text{Sid} \) can be marked as complete, and it gets marked in that case. It always succeeds.

\[ \text{read_answers/5} \] consumes actual answers for the call identified by \( \text{NewSid} \) and then associates a new continuation call to \( \text{NewSid} \) if the tabled call is not completed. Its first argument, \( \text{Sid} \), is needed to mark dependencies between tabled calls. \[ \text{consume_answer/2} \] returns the answers stored in the table one at a time and on backtracking if the tabled call is completed. Otherwise, it internally behaves as \[ \text{read_answers/5} \].

3.3 Freezing continuation calls

In this section we will sketch some proposals to reduce the overhead associated with the way continuation calls were handled in their original approach.

The Overhead of Resuming a Consumer

The original continuation call technique saved a binding list to reinstall the environment of consumers instead of copying or freezing the stacks and using a forward trail, as CAT, CHAT, or SLG-WAM. This is a relatively non-intrusive technique, but it requires copying terms back and forth between Prolog and the table where calls are stored. Restarting a consumer needs to construct a term whose first argument is the new answer (which is stored in the heap), the second one is the goal identifier (an atomic item), and the third one is a list of bindings (which may be arbitrarily large). If the list of bindings has \( N \) elements, constructing the continuation call needs to create \( 2N + 4 \) heap cells. If a continuation call is resumed often and \( N \) is high, the efficiency of the system can degrade quickly.

The technique we propose constructs all the continuation calls in the heap as a regular Prolog term. This makes calling the continuation a constant time operation, since \( \text{answer/4} \) only has to unify its third argument with the continuation call. As that argument is a variable at runtime, full unification is not needed. However, the fragment of code which constructs this call performs backtracking as it fails after every success of \( \text{answer/4} \). This would remove the constructed call from the heap, thereby forcing us to construct it again. Protecting that term would make it possible to construct it only once. The solution we propose can be seen as a variant of the approach taken by CHAT, but without having to introduce new abstract machine instructions.

In order to explain our proposed freezing technique we will use the following notation (borrowed from [6]): \( H \) will denote a pointer to the top of the heap; \( B \) will be the pointer to the most recent choicepoint. To distinguish different kinds of choicepoints we will use \( B_T \), where \( T \) can be \( G \), \( C \) or \( P \) (standing for generator, consumer, or Prolog).

The pointer to the heap stored in a choicepoint will be denoted as \( B_T[H] \).

In CHAT the heap pointer is not reset on backtracking (as the WAM does with the assignment \( H := B_P[H] \)) by manipulating the heap pointer field \( B_P[H] \) of the Prolog choicepoints between the (newly created) consumer choicepoint and the choicepoint corresponding to its generator so that they all point to the current top of the heap \( H \): \( B_P[H] := B_C[H] \). Therefore, forward execution will continue building terms on the heap on top of the previous solutions.

This solution can generate garbage in the heap, which is not a serious problem as garbage collection can eventually free it. A more critical problem is the need to
traverse an arbitrarily long series of choicepoints, which could make the system efficiency decrease. A solution for this problem has been proposed [4], which for us has the drawback of needing new WAM-level instructions and adding a new field to some choicepoints. As an alternative solution, we update the \( B[H] \) fields of the choicepoints between the new consumer and its generator so that they point to a pointer \( H' \) which in turn points to the heap top. Whenever we need to change again the \( B[H] \) field for these choicepoints, we simply update \( H' \) plus the choicepoints pushed since the last adjustments. Determining whether \( B[H] \) points to the heap or to \( H' \) is very easy by simply deciding whether it falls within the heap limits. This needs changing the backtracking WAM instructions in a very localized way which, in our experience, has an unmeasurable impact over the performance in SLD execution.

Figure 8 shows the state of the choicepoint stack and heap before freezing a continuation call. On the left of Figure 9 all \( B[H] \) fields of the choicepoints \( G, P, \) and \( C \) have changed to a common pointer \( H' \) to the heap top. Thus, the continuation call \((C, [X, 1, 2], \text{Ans})\) is frozen.

**Trail Management to Recover a Continuation Call State** The same term \( T \) corresponding to a continuation call \( C \) can be used several times to generate multiple answers to a query. This is in general not a problem as answers are in any case saved in a safe place (e.g., the answer table), and backtracking would undo the bindings to the free variables in \( T \). There is, however, a particular case which needs special measures. When a continuation call \( C_1 \), identical to \( C \), is resumed within the scope of \( C \) and it is going to read a new answer, the state of \( T \) has to be reset to its frozen initial state. The variables which may have been bound by \( C \) (Figure 10) are reset to unbound by using a list of free variables collected when this term was copied to the heap (Figure 9, at the right). Since \( C_1 \) is using the same term \( T \) as \( C \), we say that \( C_1 \) is a *reusing* call. This approach to deal with reusing calls avoids repeatedly copying several times the same continuation call to the heap.
When $C_1$ finishes and execution has to continue with $C$, the state of $T$ has to be restored to the one existing just before starting $C_1$, i.e., that in Figure 10, where some variables initially free were bound. This is done by constructing a value trail (Figure 11) just before untrailing $T$ prior to calling $C_1$. This value trail is used to put back in $T$ the bindings generated by $C$ up to the point in which it was interrupted. Value trails are pointed to from the choicepoints associated to $\text{answer}/4$.

Other systems like CHAT or SLG-WAM also spend some extra time in preparing a consumer to be resumed, as they need to record bindings in the forward trail to reinstall them; this is done for every resumption, and not only for reusing calls.

### 3.4 Freezing answers

When a consumer is found or when $\text{read.}\text{answers}/5$ is executed a continuation call is created and its 3rd variable has to be instantiated using the answers found so far to continue the execution. These answers are, in principle, stored in the table ($\text{answer}/4$ inserted them), and they have to be constructed on the heap so that the continuation call can access them and proceed with the execution.

The ideas in Section 3.3 can be reused to freeze the answers and avoid the overhead of building them again. As done with the continuation calls, a new field is added to the table pointing to a (Prolog) list which holds all the answers found so far for a tabled goal. When a continuation for some tabled goal is to be executed, the elements of the answer list are unified with the corresponding argument of the continuation call. The list head is, again, accessed through a pointer which is saved in a slot of the corresponding choicepoint and which is updated on backtracking.

In spite of this freezing operation, answers to tabled goals are stored in the table in addition to being linked in a list. There are two reasons for this: the first one is that when some tabled goal is completed, all the answers have to be accessible from outside

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6 Since there are no reused answers, trail management is not needed for them.
the derivation tree of the goal, and the second one is that the table (which is a trie in our implementation, following [9]) makes checking for duplicate answers faster.

4 Performance evaluation

We have implemented the proposed techniques as an extension of the Ciao system [1]. Tabled evaluation is provided to the user as a loadable package that provides the new directives and user-level predicates, performs the program transformations, and links in the low-level support for tabling. We have implemented and measured three variants: the first one is based on a direct adaptation of the implementation presented in [13], using the standard, high-level C interface. We have also implemented a second variant in which the lower-level and simplified C interface is used, as discussed in Sections 3.1 and 3.2. Finally, a third variant incorporates the proposed improvements to the model discussed in Sections 3.3 and 3.4.

We have then evaluated the performance of our proposal using a series of benchmarks which are briefly described in Table 1. The results are shown in Table 2 (in milliseconds). All the measurements have been made using Ciao-1.13 and XSB 3.0.1 compiled with local scheduling and disabling garbage collection in all cases (this in the end did not impact execution times very much). We used gcc 4.1.1 to compile both systems, and we executed them on a machine with Fedora Core Linux (kernel 2.6.9).

For reference, we have made an attempt to also compare with the execution times reported in [11]. Due to the difference in technology (Prolog system, C compilers, CPUs, available memory, etc.) it is not possible to compare directly with those execution times. Instead, we took those graph benchmarks which can be executed using SLD resolution and measured their execution times on Ciao-1.13. We then compared these times to those reported in [11] (which were originally executed using SICStus Prolog) and obtained a speed ratio. Finally, we applied this ratio to estimate the execution time that would be obtained for other (tabled) programs by the original implementation in our platform. These predicted times for the original continuation call-based execution (when available) are presented in the second column of Table 2.

The three following columns in the table provide the execution times for the three variants implemented as explained at the beginning of this section. It is reassuring to note that the execution times predicted from those in [11] are within a reasonable range.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benchmark</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lchain X</td>
<td>left-recursive path program, unidimensional graph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lcycle X</td>
<td>left-recursive path program, cyclic graph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rchain X</td>
<td>right-recursive path program (this generates more continuation calls), unidimensional graph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rcycle X</td>
<td>right-recursive path program, cyclic graph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>numbers X</td>
<td>find arithmetic expressions which evaluate to some number N using all the numbers in a list L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>numbers Xr</td>
<td>same as above, but all the numbers in L are all the same (this generates a larger search space)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. A terse description of the benchmarks used in the paper
Table 2. Comparison of original implementation and those in Ciao

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benchmark</th>
<th>Original</th>
<th>Ciao Cal</th>
<th>Lower C If.</th>
<th>Copying</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lchain 1024</td>
<td>8.65</td>
<td>7.12</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>2.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lycycle 1024</td>
<td>8.75</td>
<td>7.32</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>2.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rchain 1024</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2620.60</td>
<td>1046.10</td>
<td>603.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recycle 1024</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>8613.10</td>
<td>2772.60</td>
<td>607.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>numbers 5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1691.00</td>
<td>676.40</td>
<td>772.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>numbers 5r</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3974.90</td>
<td>1425.48</td>
<td>986.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(and with a relatively consistent ratio) when compared to those obtained from our first (baseline) version. We are quite confident, therefore, that they are in general terms comparable, despite the difference in the base system, C compiler technology, implementation of answer tables, etc.

Lowering the level of the C interface and improving the transformation for tabling and the way calls are performed have a clear impact. It should be also noted that the latter improvement seems to be specially relevant in non-trivial programs which handle data structures (the larger the data structures are, the more re-copying we avoid) as opposed to those where little data management is done. On average, we consider the version reported in the rightmost column to be the implementation of choice among those we have developed, and this is the one we will refer to in the rest of the paper.

Table 3 tries to determine how our implementation of tabling compares with a state-of-the-art one —namely, the latest available version of XSB at the time of writing. In the table we provide, for several benchmarks, the raw time (in milliseconds) taken to execute them using tabling and, when possible, SLD resolution, and the speedup obtained when using tabling, for Ciao and XSB, and the ratio of the execution time of XSB vs. Ciao using SLD resolution and tabling.

It should be taken into account that XSB is somewhat slower than Ciao when executing programs using SLD resolution —at least in those cases where the program execution is large enough to be really significant (between 1.8 and 2 times slower for these non-trivial programs). This is partly due to the fact that XSB is, even in the case of SLD execution, prepared for tabled resolution, and thus the SLG-WAM has an additional overhead (reported to be around a 10% [12]) not present in other Prolog systems and also that the priorities of their implementors were understandably more focused on the implementation of tabling.

The speedup obtained when using tabling with respect to SLD resolution (the columns marked $\frac{\text{SLD}}{\text{Tabling}}$) is, in general, favorable to XSB, specially for benchmarks which are tabling-intensive but do not resume so many consumers (e.g., the transitive closure), confirming the advantages of the native implementation of tabling in XSB. However, and interestingly, the difference in the speedups between XSB and Ciao tends to reduce as the programs get more complex, mix in more SLD execution, the XSB forward trail gets larger, and consumers are resumed more times, especially if the answers are large and there are no reusing continuation calls.
Table 3. Comparing the speed of Ciao and XSB

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Ciao</th>
<th>XSB</th>
<th>XSB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SLD</td>
<td>Tabling</td>
<td>SLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rechain 64</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>0.0080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rechain 256</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>37.01</td>
<td>0.0027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rechain 1024</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>603.44</td>
<td>0.0008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rcycle 64</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rcycle 256</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>39.36</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rcycle 1024</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>607.68</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>numbers 3</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>numbers 4</td>
<td>24.89</td>
<td>25.39</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>numbers 5</td>
<td>811.08</td>
<td>772.10</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>numbers 3r</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>numbers 4r</td>
<td>99.74</td>
<td>33.43</td>
<td>2.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>numbers 5r</td>
<td>7702.03</td>
<td>986.00</td>
<td>7.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For example, in the rchain benchmarks,\(^7\) XSB achieves better speedups. However, in the more complex rcycle N and numbers Xr benchmarks, the difference of speedup between XSB and Ciao is smaller the larger the execution is. We attribute this to two reasons. The first one is that XSB does not resume consumers immediately after finding new answers, so it has to pay an extra cost during completion to traverse the list of suspended consumers, and this traversal may have to be repeated several times. The second one is the forward trail that XSB uses: when repeatedly resuming consumers, XSB needs to keep track of the bindings and reinstall them, while our implementation only performs an initial copy between two memory areas (to have a continuation ready to execute) and, since there are no reusing continuation calls in these programs, it can resume continuations in a constant time. Besides, answers for numbers X and numbers Xr are relatively large (they are arithmetic expressions) and our implementation freezes them when evaluating a tabled call, while XSB has to reconstruct them whenever a consumer is resumed.

It is also interesting to note that the final raw speeds (shown in the rightmost column of the table) are in the end somewhat favorable to Ciao in the non-trivial benchmarks, which at least in principle should reflect more accurately what one might expect in larger applications. This is probably due in part to the faster raw speed of the basic engine in Ciao but it also implies that the overhead of the approach to tabling used is reasonable after the proposed optimizations. Further work is in any case needed to compare further not only with XSB but also with other systems supporting tabling.

The results are also encouraging to us because they seem to support the "Ciao approach" of starting from a fast and robust, but extensible LP-kernel system and then include additional characteristics by means of pluggable components whose implementation must, of course, be as efficient as possible but which in the end benefit from the initial base speed of the system.

\(^7\) Which we have to take with a grain of salt, since their executions are in any case quite short.
5 Conclusions

We have reported on the design and efficiency of some improvements done to the continuation call mechanism of Ramesh and Chen presented in [11]. This mechanism is easier to port than the SLG-WAM, as it requires minimal changes to the underlying execution engine.

The experimental results show that in general the speedups that the SLG-WAM obtains with respect to SLD execution are better than the ones obtained by our implementation. However, the difference in raw speed between the systems makes Ciao have sometimes better results in the absolute (and sometimes better convergence results).

To conclude, we think that using an external module implementing tabling is a viable alternative for Prolog systems which want to include tabled evaluation, especially if coupled with the proposed optimizations which we argue not very difficult to implement: almost all is done by a fairly reusable C library, while the engine has to be changed only to re-interpret B[H] fields when backtracking.

References


