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 complexity. Several “native” implementations of tabled evaluation have been developed 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 performance. Our preliminary results indicate promising results.

1 Introduction

Tabling [?.,?.,?] is a resolution strategy which tries to memoize previous calls and their answers in order to improve several well-known shortcomings found in SLD resolution. 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 [?], program analysis [?,?], reasoning in the semantic Web [?], model checking [?], 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 [?], by copying to another area, as in CAT [?], or by using an intermediate solution as in CHAT [?]. 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 [?] and the DRA scheme [?].

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 presented by Ramesh and Chen in [?]. 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 [?]) and then we briefly describe the continuation call mechanism implementation technique proposed in [?] on which we base our work.

2.1 Tabling by Example

Let us use as running example the program in Figure 1, taken from [?], whose purpose is to determine reachability of nodes in a graph. We ignore for now the :- tabled path/2 declaration (which instructs the compiler to use tabled execution for the designated predicate), and assume that SLD resolution is to be used. Then, a query such as ?- path(a, N). will never terminate since 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 applies resolution using 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. This makes it possible to reactivate suspended calls and to continue execution at the point where it was stopped. Thus, consumers do not use SLD resolution, but obtain instead the answers from the table where they have been previously inserted by the producer. Predicates not marked as tabled are executed following SLD resolution, hopefully with (minimal or no) overhead due to the availability of tabling in the system.

2.2 The Continuation Call Technique

The continuation call technique [?] 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. The original code is transformed into the program in Figure 2 which is the code 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 of path/2 being tabled. The call to the slg/1 primitive will ensure that its argument is executed to completion and will return, on backtracking, all the solutions found for the tabled predicate. slg/1 also inserts 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/2) by constructing a goal from path(X, Y) (which is passed as an argument to slg/1) and then calling this term, suitably instantiated, from inside the implementation of slg/1. The first argument contains the variables in 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. Each clause of slg_path/2 is derived from a clause of the original path/2 predicate by:

4 The new term has been created in the example simply 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 performs at compile time as much of this work as possible.
path(X, Y):− slg(path(X, Y)).

\[\begin{align*}
\text{slg\_path(path(X, Y), Id):=} & \\
& \text{edge(X, Y),} \\
& \text{slgcall(Id, [X], path(Y, Z), path\_cont\_1).}
\end{align*}\]

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

\[\begin{align*}
\text{slg\_path(path(X, Y), Id):=} & \\
& \text{edge(X, Y),} \\
& \text{answer(Id, path(X, Y)).}
\end{align*}\]

path(X, Z):−
  edge(X, Z).

\[\begin{align*}
\text{path\_cont\_1(Id, [X], path(Y, Z)):=} & \\
& \text{answer(Id, path(X, Z)).}
\end{align*}\]

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 \texttt{answer/2} primitive at the end of each clause resulting from a transformation and which is not a \texttt{bridge} to call a continuation predicate. \texttt{answer/2} is responsible for checking for redundant answers and executing whatever continuations (see the following item) there may be associated with that call identified by its first argument.

- Instrumenting recursive calls to \texttt{path/2} using the \texttt{slgcall/3} primitive. If the term passed as an argument (i.e., \texttt{path(X, Y)}) has already been inserted in the table, \texttt{slgcall/3} creates a new consumer which reads answers from the table. Otherwise, the term is inserted in the table with a new call identifier and execution follows using the \texttt{slg\_path/2} program clauses to derive new answers. In the first case, \texttt{path\_cont/2} is recorded as (one of) the continuation(s) of \texttt{path(X, Y)} and \texttt{slgcall/3} fails. In the second case \texttt{path\_cont/2} is only recorded as a continuation of \texttt{path(X, Y)} if the tabled call cannot be completed. The \texttt{path\_cont/2} continuation will be called from \texttt{answer/2} after inserting a new answer or erased upon completion of the \texttt{path(X, Y)} subgoal.

- The body of \texttt{path\_cont/2} encodes what remains of the clause body of \texttt{path/2} after the recursive call. It is constructed in a similar way to \texttt{slg\_path/2}, i.e., applying the same transformation as for the initial clauses and calling \texttt{slgcall/3} and \texttt{answer/2} at appropriate times.

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

Figures 3 and 4 illustrate how additional modifications are required in the translation for some programs in order to pass on additional variables to continuations. Note that in the program in Figure 3 an answer to \(\texttt{?- path(X, Y)}\) may need to provide a value to variable \(X\) which does not appear in the recursive call to \texttt{path/2}. If the simple translation of Figure 2 is performed, this variable will not be available at the point in the code 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 \texttt{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 approximation 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 [?]. The continuation call approach, has, however, the nice property that several of the operations are made at the Prolog level through program transformation, which simplifies the implementation (and hence makes it more portable). On the other hand, the primitives which insert answers in the table and retrieve them are usually written in lower-level languages and accessed using suitable interfaces.

The pseudo-code for answer/2 and slgcall/4 is shown in Figures 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-related 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 copying of continuation calls. Continuation calls (Prolog predicates with an arbitrarily long list of variables as an argument) are com-
pletely copied from Prolog memory to the table for every consumer found. Storing a pointer to these structures in memory is not enough, since slg/1 and 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 answer/2, it is necessary to reconstruct them as Prolog terms from the data stored in the table to be able to call them as a goal. This can also clearly have a negative impact on performance.

Finally, an issue found with the baseline implementation that we used as a starting point [?], is that it did not allow backtracking over Prolog predicates called from C and this compromised extensibility. In particular, this makes it difficult to implement other scheduling strategies. Since this shortcoming may appear also in other C interfaces, it is a clear candidate for improvement.

3 An Improvement over the Continuation Call Technique

We now propose some improvements to the different limitations of the original design and implementation that we discussed in Section 2.3.

3.1 Using a Lower-Level Interface

Calls from C to Prolog were initially performed using a relatively high-level interface similar to those commonly found in current state of the art logic programming systems: operations to create and traverse Prolog terms appear to the programmer as regular C functions, and details of the internal data representation are 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 of 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 a 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 slgcall/3 and 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 simplify portability), but 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 slgcall/3 and answer/2. These continuations are then called
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),
call(CCall).

path_cont_1(path(X, Y), Sid, [Z]) :-
    answer(path(Z, Y), Sid, CCall, 0),
call(CCall).

from Prolog.\(^5\) Failure happens when there is no pending continuation call. New continuations found during program execution can be destructively inserted at the end of the list of continuations transparently to Prolog.

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 that are to be called as Prolog goals. This avoids using up C stack space due to repeated Prolog → C → Prolog → ... calls, 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) which makes using the lower-level, faster interface less of a burden. 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 be 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` always succeeds but performing a side effect: it tests if the tabled goal identified by `Sid` can be

\(^5\) In our implementation this exploits being able to write non-deterministic predicates in C. If this feature is not available in a given system, a list of continuations can always be returned instead which is then traversed on backtracking using `member/2`. 
marked as complete, and marks it in that case. \texttt{read_answers/5} consumes actual answers for the call identified by \texttt{NewSid} and then associates a new continuation call with \texttt{NewSid} if the tabled call is not completed. Its first argument, \texttt{Sid}, is needed to mark dependencies between tabled calls. \texttt{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 behaves internally as \texttt{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 are handled in the original approach.

**Overhead related to resuming consumers:** 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 the goal identifier (an atomic item), and the third one a list of bindings (which may be arbitrarily large). If the list of bindings has \( N \) elements, constructing the continuation call requires creating \( \approx 2N + 4 \) 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 \texttt{answer/4} only has to unify its third argument with the continuation call. Since that argument is a variable at run time, full unification is not needed. However, the fragment of code which constructs this call performs backtracking as it fails after every success of \texttt{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 the explanation of our proposed freezing technique we will use the following notation. \( H \) denotes the pointer to the top of the heap. \( B \) is the pointer to the most recent choicepoint. To distinguish different kinds of choicepoints (borrowing from [?]) we will use \( B_T \), where \( T \) can be \( G \), \( C \) or \( P \), which stand for generator, consumer, or Prolog, respectively. 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 [?], 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 a 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 easy and simply entails deciding whether it falls within the heap limits. This needs changing the WAM instructions used for backtracking in a very localized way which, in our experience, has an unmeasurable impact over SLD execution performance.

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 call reuse 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 initially free variables 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 with $\text{answer/4}$.

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

![Fig. 10. Before reusing a cont. call.](image1)

![Fig. 11. Setting up the value trail.](image2)

### 3.4 Freezing Answers

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

The ideas in Section 3.3 can be reused to freeze the answers and avoid the overhead
of building them again. In fact, since there are no reused answers, trail management is
not needed for them. 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
the derivation tree of the goal. The second one is that the table (which is a trie in our
implementation, following [?]}) makes checking for duplicate answers faster.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>lexicon</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>lexicon</td>
<td>Left-recursive path program, unidimensional graph.</td>
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<tr>
<td>lexicon</td>
<td>Left-recursive path program, cyclic graph.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lexicon</td>
<td>Right-recursive path program (this generates more continuation calls), unidimensional graph.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lexicon</td>
<td>Right-recursive path program, cyclic graph.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lexicon</td>
<td>Find arithmetic expressions which evaluate to some number ( N ) using all the numbers in a list ( L ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lexicon</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. Terse description of the benchmarks used.

4 Performance Evaluation

We have implemented the proposed techniques as an extension of the Ciao system \[?\]. 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 \[?\], 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, where times are given in milliseconds. All 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 \texttt{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 \[?\]. 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 \[?\] (which were originally executed using the then current version of SICStus Prolog) and obtained a speed ratio. Finally, we applied this ratio in order 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 \[?\] are within reasonable range (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 compa-
<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Lower C itf</th>
<th>Copying</th>
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</table>

Table 2. Comparison of original implementation and Ciao implementations.

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 also be 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, 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 10% [?]) not present in other Prolog systems and also presumably 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 without cycles), confirming, as expected, 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.

For example, in the rchain \( X \) and numbers \( X \) benchmarks, the speed relation between XSB and Ciao is roughly constant independently of the value of \( X \). On the other hand, in rcycle \( X \) and numbers \( Xr \) this relation is more favorable to Ciao 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 constant time, having better asymptotic behavior. Since the number of resumptions of \( r\text{chain } X \) and \( \text{numbers } X \) is linear in the value of \( X \), their behavior is not affected. Besides, answers for \( \text{numbers } Xr \) 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 \( r\text{chain } X \) and \( r\text{cycle } X \) are faster in XSB than in Ciao because their execution is tabling intensive. However, in non-trivial benchmarks like \( \text{numbers } X \) and \( \text{numbers } Xr \), which at least in principle should reflect more accurately what one might expect in larger applications, execution times are in the end somewhat favorable to Ciao. 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. More work is in any case needed to compare further not only with XSB but also with other modern systems supporting tabling. In this context it should be noted that in these experiments we have used the baseline, bytecode-based compilation and abstract machine, but turning on global analysis and the optimizing, low-level compiler \([?]\) can further improve the speed of the SLD part of the computation.

The results are also encouraging to us because they appear to be another example supporting the “Ciao approach” of starting from a fast and robust, but extensible LP-kernel system and then including 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.

5 Conclusions

We have reported on the design and efficiency of some improvements made to the continuation call mechanism of Ramesh and Chen. We argue that the resulting mechanism is still easier to add to an existing, WAM-based system than implementing the SLG-WAM, as it requires relatively small changes to the underlying execution engine. In fact, almost everything is implemented within a fairly reusable C library, and the engine has to be changed only to conditionally reinterpret the \( B[\bar{H}] \) field when backtracking.

Our experimental results show that in general the speedups that the SLG-WAM obtains with respect to SLD execution are, as expected, 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, as well as sometimes better convergence results.

Our main conclusion is that using an external module for implementing tabling is a viable alternative for adding tabled evaluation to Prolog systems, especially if coupled
with the proposed optimizations. It is also an approach that ties in well with the modular approach to extensions which is an integral part of the design of the Ciao system. As a result, the modifications have already been integrated in the Ciao repository and will thus also appear in upcoming distributions.

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