

Pre-Indexed Terms for Prolog^{*}

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Abstract. Indexing of terms and clauses is a well-known technique used in Prolog implementations (as well as automated theorem provers) to speed up search. In this paper we show how the same mechanism can be used to implement efficient reversible mappings between different term representations, which we call *pre-indexings*. Based on user-provided term descriptions, these mappings allow us to use more efficient data encodings internally, such as prefix trees. We show that for some classes of programs, we can drastically improve the efficiency by applying such mappings at selected program points.

1 Introduction

Terms are the most important data type for languages and systems based on first-order logic, such as (constraint) logic programming languages or resolution-based automated theorem provers. Terms are inductively defined as variables, atoms, numbers, and compound terms (or structures) comprised by a functor and a sequence of terms.³ Two main representations for Prolog terms have been proposed. Early Prolog systems, such as the Marseille and DEC-10 implementations, used *structure sharing* [2], while the WAM [15,1] –and consequently most modern Prolog implementations– use *structure copying*. In structure sharing, terms are represented as a pair of pointers, one for the structure skeleton, which is shared among several instances, and another for the binding environment, which determines a particular instantiation. In contrast, structure copying makes a copy of the structure for each newly created term. The encoding of terms in memory resembles tree-like data structures.

In order to speed up resolution, sophisticated term indexing has been implemented both in Prolog [1,7] and automated theorem provers [6]. By using specialized data structures (such as, e.g., tries), indexing achieves sub-linear complexity in clause selection. Similar techniques are used to efficiently store

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³ Additionally, many Prolog systems implement an extension mechanism for variable domains using *attributed variables*.

predicate solutions in tabling [13]. This efficient indexing is typically also supported in dynamic predicates, i.e., for predicates whose facts or clauses can be changed dynamically during program execution. This results in a mechanism that is often very attractive for storing and manipulating program data: indexed dynamic predicates offer the benefits of efficient key-value data structures while hiding the implementation details from the user program.

Modulo some issues like variable sharing, there is thus a duality in programming style between *explicitly* encoding data as terms or encoding data *implicitly* as tuples in dynamic predicates, in order to exploit the built-in indexing provided by this representation. For example, the set $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$ is represented naturally as the term $[1, 2, 3, \dots, n]$ (equivalent to a linked list). However, depending on the lifetime and operations to be performed on the data, binary trees, some other map-like structure, or dynamic predicates may be preferable. Which representation is most efficient or convenient is very application-dependent and it would be desirable to be able to explore the relative merits of the alternative representations with minimal changes in the program. Unfortunately, in practice such changes in representation typically mean significant modifications, which propagate throughout the whole program. Even worse, it is also frequent to find code where, after changes motivated by such performance considerations, the data is represented in the end in a quite unnatural way.

The goal of this paper is to study the merits of term indexing *during term creation* rather than at clause selection time. We exploit the fact that data has frequently a fixed skeleton structure, and introduce a mapping in order to index and share that part. This mapping is derived from program declarations specifying term encoding (called *rtypes*, for *representation types*) and annotations defining the program points where *pre-indexing* of terms is to be performed. This is done on top of structure copying, so that no large changes are required in a typical Prolog runtime system. Moreover, the approach does not require large changes in program structure, which makes *rtypes* easily interchangeable.

We have implemented a prototype as a Ciao [4] package that deals with *rtype* declarations as well as with some additional syntactic sugar that we provide for marking pre-indexing points.

2 Background

We follow the definitions and naming conventions for *term indexing* of [3,6]. Given a set of terms \mathcal{L} (the *indexed terms*), a binary relation R over terms (the *retrieval condition*), and a term t (the *query term*), we want to identify the subset $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{L}$ consisting of all the terms l such that $R(l, t)$ holds (i.e., such that l is R -compatible with t). We are interested in the following retrieval conditions R (where σ is a substitution):

- $unif(l, t) \Leftrightarrow \exists \sigma \ l\sigma = t\sigma$ (unification)
- $inst(l, t) \Leftrightarrow \exists \sigma \ l = t\sigma$ (instance check)

- $gen(l, t) \Leftrightarrow \exists \sigma \ l \sigma = t$ (generalization check)
- $variant(l, t) \Leftrightarrow \exists \sigma \ l \sigma = t$ and σ is a renaming substitution (variant check)

Example 1. Given $\mathcal{L} = \{h(f(A)), h(f(B, C)), h(g(D))\}$, $t = h(f(1))$, and $R = unif$, then $\mathcal{M} = \{h(f(A))\}$.

The objective of *term indexing* is to implement fast retrieval of candidate terms. This is done by processing the indexed set \mathcal{L} into specialized data structures (*index construction*) and modifying this index when terms are inserted or deleted from \mathcal{L} (*index maintenance*).

When the retrieval condition makes use of the function symbols in the query and indexed terms, it is called *function symbol based indexing*.

As mentioned before, in Prolog, indexing finds the set of program clauses such that their heads unify with a given literal in the goal. In tabled logic programming, this is also interesting for detecting if a new goal is a variant or subsumed by a previously evaluated subgoal [5,12].

Limitations of indexing. Depending on the part of the terms that is indexed and the supporting data structure, the worst case cost of indexing is proportional to the size of the term. When computing hash keys, the whole term needs to be traversed (e.g., computing the key for $h(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{A}))$ requires walking over \mathbf{h} and \mathbf{f}). This may be prohibitively costly, not only in the maintenance of the indices, but also in the lookup. As a compromise many systems rely only on first argument, first level indexing (with constant hash table lookup, relying on linear search for the selected clauses). However, when the application needs stronger, multi-level indexing, lookup costs are repeated many times for each clause selection operation.

3 Pre-indexing

The goal of pre-indexing is to move lookup costs to term building time. The idea that we propose herein is to use a bijective mapping between the standard and the pre-indexed representations of terms, at selected program points. The fact that terms can be partially instantiated brings in a practical problem, since binding a variable may affect many precomputed indices (e.g., precomputed indices for $\mathbf{H}=\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{X})$, $\mathbf{G}=\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{X})$ may need a change after $\mathbf{X}=\mathbf{1}$). Our solution to this problem is to restrict the mapping to terms of a specific form, based on *instantiation types*, defined as (possibly recursive) unary predicates. For convenience, the user-defined instantiation types are extended with the native definitions **any** (that represents any term or variable) and **nv** (that represents any **nonvar** term).

Definition 1 (Instantiation type check). We say that t is an instance of an instantiation type τ (defined as a unary predicate), written as $check_\tau(t)$, if there exists a term l in the answers of τ and $gen(l, t)$ (or $inst(t, l)$).

For conciseness, we will describe the restricted form of instantiation types used herein using a specialized syntax “ $:- \text{rtype } Name \dashrightarrow Cons_1 ; \dots ; Cons_n$ ”, where each $Cons_i$ is a term constructor. A term constructor is composed of a functor name and a number of arguments, where each argument is another *rtype* name. E.g.,:⁴

```
 $:- \text{rtype } \text{lst} \dashrightarrow [] ; [\text{any}|\text{lst}]$ 
```

The rule above thus corresponds to the predicate:

```
 $\text{lst}([]).$   
 $\text{lst}([\_|\text{Xs}]) :- \text{lst}(\text{Xs}).$ 
```

Example 2. According to the definition above for `lst`, the terms `[1,2,3]` and `[_ ,2]` belong to `lst` while `[1|_]` does not. If `nv` were used instead of `any` in the definition above then `[_ ,2]` would also not belong to `lst`.

Type-based pre-indexing. The idea behind pre-indexing is to maintain specialized indexing structures for each *rtype* (which in this work is done based on user annotations). We denote as inhabitants of *rtype* τ the set of the most general terms (w.r.t. *gen* relation) that are instances of τ . The indexing structure will keep track of the *rtype* inhabitants constructed during the execution dynamically, assigning a unique identifier (the pre-index key) to each representant (modulo variants). E.g., for `lst` we could assign $\{[] \mapsto k_0, [_] \mapsto k_1, [_,_] \mapsto k_2, \dots\}$ (that is, k_i for each list of length i). Note that special `any` does not define a concrete term constructor and is not pre-indexed, while `nv` represents all possible term constructors with `any` as arguments.

For every term t so that $\text{check}_\tau(t)$, then exists l in the inhabitants of τ such that $\text{gen}(l, t)$. That is, there exists a substitution σ such that $t = l\sigma$. The pre-indexing of a term replaces t by a simpler term using the inhabitant key k and the substitution σ . Since k is unique for each inhabitant this translation has inverse. The translation between pre-indexed and non-pre-indexed forms is defined in terms of a *pre-indexing casting*.

Definition 2 (Pre-indexing cast). A pre-indexing cast of type τ is a bijective mapping with the set of terms defined by check_τ as domain, denoted by $\#\tau$, with the following properties:

1. for every term t so that $\text{check}_\tau(t)$ (which defines the domain of the mapping), and substitution σ , then $\#\tau(t\sigma) = \#\tau(t)\sigma$ (σ -commutative)
2. the main functor of $\#\tau(t)$ encodes the (indexed) structure of the arguments (so that it uniquely identifies the *rtype* inhabitant).

⁴ Despite the syntax being similar to that described in [10], note that the semantics is not equivalent.

E.g., for `[1,2,3]` and `1st` the pre-indexed term would be $k_1(1, 2, 3)$.

Informally, the first property ensures that pre-indexing casts can be selectively introduced in a program (whose terms are instantiated enough) without altering the (substitution) semantics. Moreover, the meaning of many built-ins is also preserved after pre-indexing, as expressed in the following theorem.

Theorem 1 (Built-in homomorphism). *Given $check_\tau(x)$ and $check_\tau(y)$, then $unif(x, y) \Leftrightarrow unif(\#\tau(x), \#\tau(y))$ (equivalently for *gen*, *inst*, *variant*, and other built-ins like `==/2`, `ground/1`).*

Proof. $unif(x, y) \Leftrightarrow$ [def. of `unif`] $\exists\sigma \ x\sigma = y\sigma$. Since $\#\tau$ is bijective, then $\#\tau(x\sigma) = \#\tau(y\sigma) \Leftrightarrow$ [σ -commutative] $\#\tau(x)\sigma = \#\tau(y)\sigma$. Given the def. of *unif*, it follows that $unif(\#\tau(x), \#\tau(y))$. The proofs for other built-ins are similar.

In this work we do not require the semantics of built-ins like `@<` (i.e., *term ordering*) to be preserved, but if desired this can be achieved by selecting carefully the order of keys in the pre-indexed term. Similarly, functor arity in principle will not be preserved since ground arguments that are part of the *rtype* structure are allowed to be removed.

3.1 Building pre-indexed terms

We are interested in building terms directly into their pre-indexed form. To achieve this we take inspiration from WAM compilation. Complex terms in variable-term unifications are decomposed into simple variable-structure unifications $X = f(A_1, \dots, A_n)$ where all the A_i are variables. In WAM bytecode, this is further decomposed into a `put_str f/n` (or `get_str f/n`) instruction followed by a sequence of `unify_arg A_i`. These instructions can be expressed as follows:

```
put_str(X,F/N,S0,S1), % | F/N |
unify_arg(A1,S1,S2)   % | F/N | A1 |
...
unify_arg(An,Sn,S)   % | F/N | A1 | ... | An |
```

where the S_i represent each intermediate heap state, which is illustrated in the comments on the right.

Assume that each argument A_i can be decomposed into its indexed part $A_i k$ and its value part $A_i v$ (which may omit information present in the key). *Pre-indexing* builds terms that encode $A_i k$ into the main functor by incremental updates:

```
g_put_str(X,F/N,S0,S1), % | F/N |
g_unify_arg(A1,S1,S2)   % | F/N<A1k> | A1v |
...
g_unify_arg(An,Sn,S)   % | F/N<A1k, ..., Ank> | A1v | ... | Anv |
```

The *rtype* constructor annotations (that we will see in Section 3.2) indicate how the functor and arguments are indexed.

Cost analysis. Building and unifying pre-indexed terms have impact both on performance and memory usage. First, regarding time, although pre-indexing operations can be slower, clause selection becomes faster, as it avoids repetitive lookups on the fixed structure of terms. In the best case, $O(n)$ lookups (where n is the size of the term) become $O(1)$. Other operations like unification are sped-up (e.g., earlier failure if keys are different). Second, pre-indexing has an impact on memory usage. Exploiting the data structure allows more compact representations, e.g., `bitpair(bool,bool)` can be assigned an integer as key (without storage costs). In other cases, the supporting *index structures* may effectively share the common part of terms (at the cost of maintaining those structures).

3.2 Pre-indexing Methods

Pre-indexing is enabled in an *rtype* by annotating each constructor with modifiers that specify the *indexing method*. Currently we support compact trie-like representations and packed integer encodings.

Trie representation is specified with the `index(Args)` modifier, which indicates the order in which arguments are walked in the decision-tree. The process is similar to term creation in the heap, but instead of moving a heap pointer, we combine it with walking through a trie of nodes. Keys are retrieved from the term part that corresponds to the *rtype* structure.

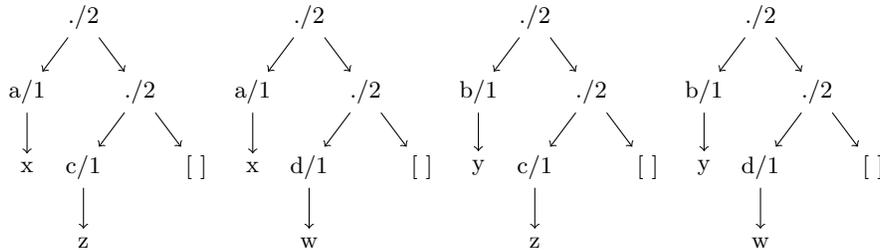


Fig. 1. Example terms for pre-indexing

For example, let us consider the input set of terms $[a(x), c(z)]$, $[a(x), d(w)]$, $[b(y), c(z)]$, $[b(y), d(w)]$, where a, b, c, d are function symbols and x, y, z, w are variable symbols. The heap representation is shown in Fig. 1.⁵ We will compare different *rtype* definitions for representing these terms.

⁵ Remember that $[1,2] = .(1,.(2,[]))$.

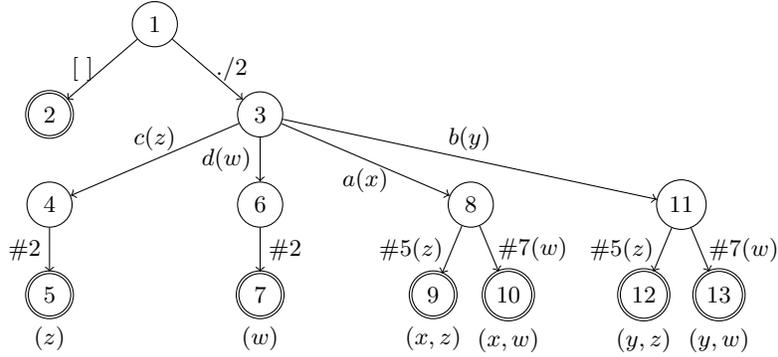


Fig. 2. Index for example terms (*rtype* lst \dashrightarrow [] ; [nv|lst]:::index([0,1,2]))

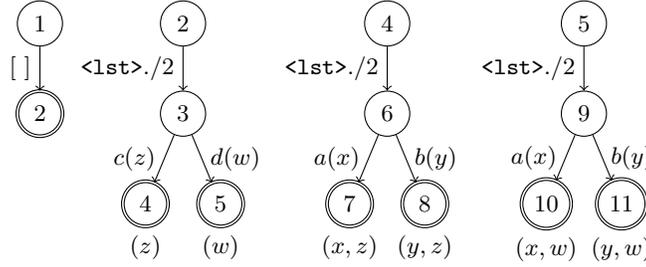


Fig. 3. Index for example terms (*rtype* lst \dashrightarrow [] ; [nv|lst]:::index([2,0,1]))

As mentioned before, *nv* represents the *rtype* for any *nonvar* term (where its main functor is taking part in pre-indexing). The declaration:

```
:- rtype lst  $\dashrightarrow$  [] ; [nv|lst]:::index([0,1,2]).
```

specifies that the lookup order for [-|_] is a) the constructor name (*./2*), b) the first argument (not a pre-indexed term, but takes part in pre-indexing), and c) the second argument (pre-indexed). The resulting trie is in Fig. 2. In the figure, each node number represents a position in the trie. Singly circled nodes are temporary nodes, doubly circled nodes are final nodes. Final nodes encode terms. The initial node (*#1*) is unique for each *rtype*. Labels between nodes indicate the lookup input. They can be constructor names (e.g., *./2*), *nv* terms (e.g., *b(y)*), or other pre-indexed *lst* (e.g., *#2* for [], or *#5(z)* for [*c(z)*]). The arguments are placeholders for the non-indexed information. That is, a term [*a(g),c(h)*] would be encoded as *#9(g,h)*.

Trie indexing also supports *anchoring* on non-root nodes. Consider this declaration:

```
:- rtype lst  $\dashrightarrow$  [] ; [nv|lst]:::index([2,0,1]).
```

Figure 3 shows the resulting trie (which has been separated into different subtrees for the sake of clarity). For `./2`, the lookup now starts from the second argument, then the constructor name, and finally the first argument. The main difference w.r.t. the previous indexing method is that the beginning node is another pre-indexed term. This may lead to more optimal memory layouts and need fewer lookup operations. Note that constructor names in the edges from initial nodes need to be prefixed with the name of the *rtype*. This is necessary to avoid ambiguities, since the initial node is no longer unique.

Garbage Collection and Indexing Methods. Indexing structures require special treatment for garbage collection.⁶ In principle, it would not be necessary to keep in a trie nodes for terms that are no longer reachable (e.g., from the heap, WAM registers, or dynamic predicates), except for caching to speed-up node creation. Node removal may make use of lookup order. That is, if a key at a temporary level n corresponds to an atom that is no longer reachable, then all nodes above n can be safely discarded.

Anchoring on non-root nodes allows the simulation of interesting memory layouts. For example, a simple way to encode objects in Prolog is by introducing a *new object* operation that creates new fresh atoms, and storing object attributes with a dynamic `objattr(ObjId, AttrName, AttrValue)` predicate. Anchoring on `ObjId` allows fast deletion (at the implementation level) of all attributes of a specific object when it becomes unreachable.

4 Applications and Experimental Evaluation

To show the feasibility of the approach, we have implemented the pre-indexing transformations as source-to-source transformations within the Ciao system. This is done within a Ciao package which defines the syntax and processes the *rtype* declarations as well as the marking of pre-indexing points.

As examples, we show algorithmically efficient implementations of the Lempel-Ziv-Welch (LZW) lossless data compression algorithm and the Floyd-Warshall algorithm for finding the shortest paths in a weighted graph, as well as some considerations regarding supporting module system implementation. In the following code, `forall/2` is defined as `\+ (Cond, \+ Goal)`.

4.1 Lempel-Ziv-Welch compression

Lempel-Ziv-Welch (LZW) [16] is a lossless data compression algorithm. It encodes an input string by building an indexed dictionary D of words and writing a list of dictionary indices, as follows:

1- $D := \{w \mid w \text{ has length } 1\}$ (all strings of length one).

⁶ Automatic garbage collection of indexing structures is not supported in the current implementation.

```

1 compress(Cs, Result) :-                               % Compress Cs
2     build_dict(256),                                  % Build the dictionary
3     compress_(Cs, #lst([]), Result).
4
5 compress_([], W, [I]) :-                               % Empty, output code for W
6     dict(W,I).
7 compress_([C|Cs], W, Result) :-                       % Compress C
8     WC = #lst([C|^W]),
9     ( dict(WC,_) ->                                    % WC is in dictionary
10      W2 = WC,
11      Result = Result0
12    ; dict(W,I),                                       % WC not in dictionary
13      Result = [I|Result0],                             % Output the code for W
14      insert(WC),                                       % Add WC to the dictionary
15      W2 = #lst([C])
16    ),
17     compress_(Cs, W2, Result0).

```

Fig. 4. LZW Compression: Main code.

- 2- Remove from input the longest prefix that matches some word W in D , and emit its dictionary index.
- 3- Read new character C , $D := D \cup \text{concat}(W, C)$, go to step 2; otherwise, stop.

A simple Prolog implementation is shown in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5. Our implementation uses a *dynamic* predicate `dict/2` to store words and corresponding numeric indices (for output). Step 1 is implemented in the `build_dict/1` predicate. Steps 2 and 3 are implemented in the `compress_/3` predicate.⁷ For encoding words we use lists. We are only interested in adding new characters and word matching. For that, list construction and unification are good enough. We keep words in reverse order so that appending a character is done in constant time. For constant-time matching, we use an *rtype* for pre-indexing lists. The implementation is straightforward. Note that we add a character to a word in `WC = #lst([C|^W])` (Line 8). The annotation (whose syntax is implemented as a user-defined Prolog operator) is used by the compiler to generate the pre-indexed version of term construction. In this case, it indicates that words are pre-indexed

⁷ We use updates in the dynamic program database as an instrumental example for showing the benefits of preindexing from an operational point of view. It is well known that this style of programming is often not desirable. The illustrated benefits of preindexing can be easily translated to more declarative styles (like declaring and composing effects in the type system) or more elaborate evaluation strategies (such as tabling, that uses memoization techniques).

```

1  % Mapping between words and dictionary index
2  :- data dict/2.
3
4  % NOTE: #lst can be changed or removed, ^ escapes cast
5  % Anchors to 2nd arg in constructor
6  :- rtype lst ---> [] ; [int|lst]:::index([2,0,1]).
7
8  build_dict(Size) :-                               % Initial dictionary
9      assertz(dictsize(Size)),
10     Size1 is Size - 1,
11     forall(between(0, Size1, I),                 % Single code entry for I
12         assertz(dict(#lst([I]), I))).
13
14 insert(W) :-                                       % Add W to the dictionary
15     retract(dictsize(Size)), Size1 is Size + 1, assertz(dictsize(Size1)),
16     assertz(dict(W, Size)).

```

Fig. 5. LZW Compression: Auxiliary code and *rtype* definition for words.

	data size		indexing (time)		
	original	result	none	clause	term
data1	1326	732	0.074	0.025	0.015
data2	83101	20340	49.350	1.231	0.458
data3	149117	18859	93.178	2.566	0.524

Table 1. Performance of LZW compression (in seconds) by indexing method.

using the *lst rtype* and that *W* is already pre-indexed (indicated by the escape \wedge prefix). Thus we can effectively obtain optimal algorithmic complexity.

Performance evaluation. We have encoded three files of different format and size (two HTML files and a Ciao bytecode object) and measured the performance of alternative indexing and pre-indexing options. The experimental results for the algorithm implementation are shown in Table 1.⁸ The columns under *indexing* show the execution time in seconds for different indexing methods: *none* indicates that no indexing is used (except for the default first argument, first level indexing); *clause* performs multi-level indexing on *dict/2*; *term* uses pre-indexed terms.

Clearly, disabling indexing performs badly as the number of entries in the dictionary grows, since it requires one linear (w.r.t. the dictionary size) lookup operation for each input code. Clause indexing reduces lookup complexity and

⁸ Despite the simplicity of the implementation, we obtain compression rates similar to *gzip*.

shows a much improved performance. Still, the cost has a linear factor w.r.t. the word size. Term pre-indexing is the faster implementation, since the linear factor has disappeared (each word is uniquely represented by a trie node).

4.2 Floyd-Warshall

```

1 floyd_warshall :-
2   % Initialize distance between all vertices to infinity
3   forall((vertex(I), vertex(J)), assertz(dist(I,J,1000000))),
4   % Set the distance from V to V to 0
5   forall(vertex(V), set_dist(V,V,0)),
6   forall(weight(U,V,W), set_dist(U,V,W)),
7   forall((vertex(K), vertex(I), vertex(J)),
8     (dist(I,K,D1),
9     dist(K,J,D2),
10    D12 is D1 + D2,
11    mindist(I,J,D12))).
12
13 mindist(I,J,D) :- dist(I,J,OldD), ( D < OldD -> set_dist(I,J,D) ; true ).
14
15 set_dist(U,V,W) :- retract(dist(U,V,_)), assertz(dist(U,V,W)).

```

Fig. 6. Floyd-Warshall Code

The Floyd-Warshall algorithm computes the shortest paths problem in a weighted graph in $O(n^3)$ time, where n is the number of vertices. Let $G = (V, E)$ be a weighted directed graph, $V = v_1, \dots, v_n$ the set of vertices, $E \subseteq V^2$, and $w_{i,j}$ the weight associated to edge (v_i, v_j) (where $w_{i,j} = \infty$ if $(v_i, v_j) \notin E$ and $w_{i,i} = 0$). The algorithm is based on incrementally updating an estimate on the shortest path between each pair of vertices until the result is optimal. Figure 6 shows a simple Prolog implementation. The code uses a dynamic predicate `dist/3` to store the computed minimal distance between each pair of vertices. For each vertex k , the distance between each (i, j) is updated with the minimum distance calculated so far.

Performance evaluation. The performance of our Floyd-Warshall implementation for different sizes of graphs is shown in Fig. 7. We consider three indexing methods for the `dist/3` predicate: *def* uses the default first order argument indexing, *t12* computes the vertex pair key using two-level indices, *p12* uses a packed integer representation (obtaining a single integer representation for the pair of vertices, which is used as key), and *p12a* combines *p12* with a specialized array to store the `dist/3` clauses.

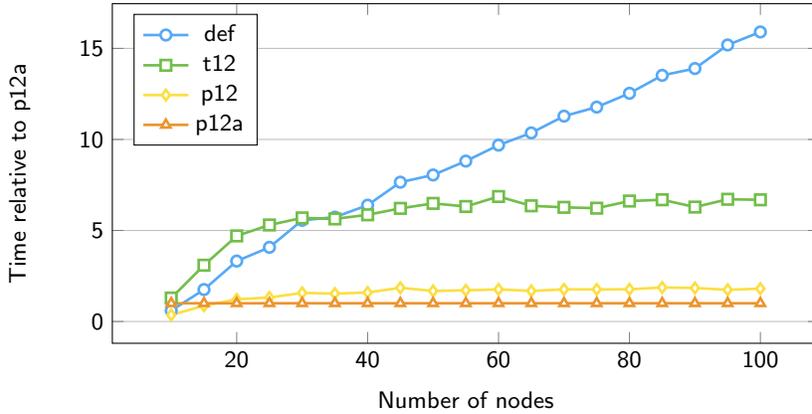


Fig. 7. Execution time for Floyd-Warshall

The execution times are consistent with the expected algorithmic complexity, except for *def*. The linear relative factor with the rest of methods indicates that the complexity without proper indexing is $O(n^4)$. On the other hand, the plots also show that specialized computation of keys and data storage (*p12* and *p12a*) outperforms more generic encoding solutions (*t12*).

4.3 Module System Implementations

Module systems add the notion of modules (as separate namespaces) to predicates or terms, together with visibility and encapsulation rules. This adds a significantly complex layer on top of the program database (whether implemented in C or in Prolog meta-logic as hidden tables, as in Ciao [4]). Nevertheless, almost no changes are required in the underlying emulator machinery or program semantics. Modular terms and goals can be perfectly represented as $M:T$ terms and a program transformation can systematically introduce M from the context. However, this would include a noticeable overhead. To solve this issue, Ciao reserves special atom names for module-qualified terms (currently, only predicates).

We can see this optimization as a particular case of pre-indexing, where the last step in module resolution (which maps to the internal representation) is a pre-indexing cast for an *mpred rtype*:

```
:- rtype mpred ---> nv:nv ::: index([1,0,2]).
```

For example, given a module $M = \text{lists}$ and goal $G = \text{append}(X,Y,Z)$, the pre-indexed term $MG = \#\text{mpred}(M:G)$ can be represented as `'lists:append'(X,Y,Z)`,⁹ where the first functor encodes both the module and

⁹ Note that the identifier does not need any symbolic description in practice.

the predicate name. To enable meta-programming, when `MG` is provided, both `M` and `G` can be recovered.

Internally, another rewrite step replaces predicate symbols by actual pointers in the bytecode, which removes yet another indirection step. This indicates that it would be simple to reuse pre-indexing machinery for module system implementations, e.g., to enhance modules with hierarchies or provide better tools for meta-programming. In principle, pre-indexing would bring the advantages of efficient low-level code with the flexibility of Prolog-level meta representation of modules. Moreover, anchoring on `M` mimicks a memory layout where predicate tables are stored as key-value tables inside module data structures.

5 Related Work

There has been much previous work on improving indexing for Prolog and logic programming. Certain applications involving large data sets need any- and multi-argument indexing. In [7] an alternative to static generation of multi-argument indexing is presented. The approach presented uses dynamic schemes for demand-driven indexing of Prolog clauses. In [14] a new extension to Prolog indexing is proposed. User-defined indexing allows the programmer to index both instantiated and constrained variables. It is used for range queries and spatial queries, and allows orders of magnitude speedups on non-trivial datasets.

Also related is ground-hashing for tabling, studied in [17]. This technique avoids storing the same ground term more than once in the table area, based on computation of hash codes. The approach proposed adds an extra cell to every compound term to memoize the hash code and avoid the extra linear time factor.

Our work relates indexing techniques (which deal with fast lookup of terms in collections) with term representation and encoding (which clearly benefits from specialization). Both problems are related with optimal data structure implementation. Prolog code is very often used for prototyping and then translated to (low-level) imperative languages (such as C or C++) if scalability problems arise. This is however a symptom that the emulator and runtime are using suboptimal data structures which add unnecessary complexity factors. Many specialized data structures exist in the literature, with no clear winner in all cases. If they can be directly implemented in Prolog, they are often less efficient than their low-level counterparts (e.g., due to data immutability). Without proper abstraction they obscure the program to the point where a low-level implementation may not be more complex. On the other hand, adding them to the underlying Prolog machines is not trivial. Even supporting more than one term representation may have prohibitive costs (e.g., efficient implementations require a low number of tags, small code that fits in the instruction cache, etc.). Our work aims at reusing the indexing machinery when possible and specializing indexing for particular programs.

The need for the right indexing data structures to get optimal complexity is also discussed in [11] in the context of CHR. In [9] an improved term encoding for indexed ground terms that avoids the costs of additional hash-tables is presented. This offers similar results to anchoring in pre-indexing. Reusing the indexing machinery is also studied in [8], which shows term flattening and specialization transformations.

6 Conclusions and Future Work

Traditionally, Prolog systems index terms during clause selection (in the best case, reducing a linear search to constant time). Despite that, index lookup is proportional to the size of the term. In this paper we have proposed a mixed approach where indexing is precomputed during term creation. To do that, we define a notion of instantiation types and annotated constructors that specify the indexing mode. The advantage of this approach is that lookups become sub-linear. We have shown experimentally that this approach improves clause indexing and that it has other applications, for example for module system implementation.

These results suggest that it may be interesting to explore lower-level indexing primitives beyond clause indexing. This work is also connected with structure sharing. In general, pre-indexing annotations allow the optimization of simple Prolog programs with scalability problems due to data representation.

As future work, there are some open lines. First, we plan to polish the current implementation, which is mostly based on program rewriting and lacks garbage collection of indexing tables. We expect major performance gains by optimizing some operations at the WAM or C level. Second, we want to extend our repertoire of indexing methods and supporting data structures. Finally, *rtype* declarations and annotations could be discovered and introduced automatically via program analysis or profiling (with heuristics based on cost models).

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