Computational Logic

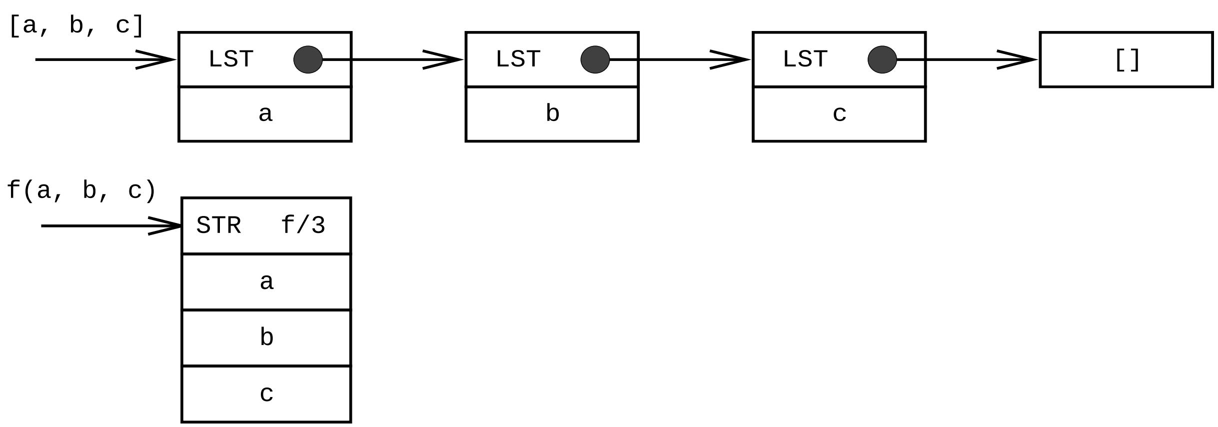
Efficiency Issues in Prolog

Efficiency

- In general, efficiency $\equiv$ savings:
  - Not only time (number of unifications, reduction steps, LIPS, etc.)
  - Also memory
- General advice:
  - Use the best algorithms
  - Use the appropriate data structures
- Each programming paradigm has its specific techniques, try not to adopt them blindly.
- The timings which will appear in the following examples have been taken on a SPARC2, under SICStus Prolog 2.1

Data structures

- D.H.D. Warren: "Prolog means *easy* pointers"
- Do not make **excessive** use of lists:
  - ◇ In general, only when the number of elements is unknown
  - ◇ It is convenient to keep them ordered sometimes (e.g., set equality)
  - ◇ Otherwise, use structures (functors):
    - * Less memory
    - * Direct access to each argument (`arg/3`) (like arrays!)



Data structures (Contd.)

- Use advanced data structures:
  - Sorted trees
  - Incomplete structures
  - Nested structures
  - . . .

Let Unification Do the Work

- Unification is very powerful. Use it!
- Example: Swapping two elements of a structure:
  `f(X, Y)` $\Longrightarrow$ `f(Y, X)`
  - Slow, difficult to understand, long version:

```
swap(S1, S2):-
    functor(S1, f, 2), functor(S2, f, 2),
    arg(1, S1, X1), arg(2, S1, Y1),
    arg(1, S2, X2), arg(2, S2, Y2),
    X1 = Y2, X2 = Y1.
```

  - Fast, intuitive, shorter version:

```
swap(f(X, Y), f(Y, X)).
```

Let Unification Do the Work (Contd.)

- Example: check that a list has exactly three elements.
  - Weak answer:

```
three_elements(L):-
    length(L, N), N = 3.
```

    (always traverses the list and computes its length)
  - Better:

```
three_elements([_,_,_]).
```

Database

- Avoid using it for simulating global variables

  Example (real executions):

```
bad_count(N):-
    assert(counting(N)),
    even_worse.

even_worse:-  retract(counting(0)).
even_worse:-
    retract(counting(N)),
    N > 0, N1 is N - 1,
    assert(counting(N1)),
    even_worse.
```

```
good_count(0).
good_count(N):-
    N > 0, N1 is N - 1,
    good_count(N1).
```

`bad_count(10000)`: 165000 bytes, 7.2 sec.

`good_count(10000)`: 1500 bytes, 0.01 sec.

Database (Contd.)

- Asserting results which have been found true (lemmas).
  Example (real executions):

```
fib(0, 0).
fib(1, 1).
fib(N, F):-
    N > 1,
    N1 is N - 1,
    N2 is N1 - 1,
    fib(N1, F1),
    fib(N2, F2),
    F is F1 + F2.
```

```
lfib(N, F):-  lemma_fib(N, F), !.
lfib(N, F):-
    N > 1,
    N1 is N - 1,
    N2 is N1 - 1,
    lfib(N1, F1),
    lfib(N2, F2),
    F is F1 + F2,
    assert(lemma_fib(N, F)).
:- dynamic lemma_fib/2.
lemma_fib(0, 0). lemma_fib(1, 1).
```

`fib(24, F)`: 4800000 bytes, 0.72 sec.

`lfib(24, F)`: 3900 bytes, 0.02 sec. (and zero from now on)

Warning: only useful when intermediate results are reused

Determinism (I)

- Many problems are deterministic
- Non-determinism is
  - ◇ Useful (automatic search)
  - ◇ But expensive
- Suggestions:
  - ◇ Do not keep alternatives if they are not needed

```
member_check([X|_],X) :- !.
member_check([_|Xs],X) :- member_check(Xs,X).
```

  - ◇ Program deterministic problems in a deterministic way:

Simplistic:

```
decomp(N, S1, S2):-
    between(0, N, S1),
    between(0, N, S2),
    N =:= S1 + S2.
```

Better:

```
decomp(N, S1, S2):-
    between(0, N, S1),
    S2 is N - S1.
```

Determinism (II)

- Checking that two (ground) lists contain the same elements
- Naive:

```
same_elements(L1, L2):-
    \+ (member(X, L1), \+ member(X, L2)),
    \+ (member(X, L2), \+ member(X, L1)).
```

- 1000 elements: 7.1 secs.
- Sort and unify:

```
same_elements(L1, L2):-
    sort(L1, Sorted),
    sort(L2, Sorted).
```

(sorting can be done in $O(N \log N)$)

- 1000 elements: 0 secs.

Search order

- Golden rule: fail as early as possible (prunes branches)
- How: reorder goals in the body (perhaps even dynamically)
- Example: generate and test

```
generate_z(Z):-
    generate_x(X),
    generate_y(X, Y),
    test_x(X),
    test_y(Y),
    combine(X, Y, Z).
```

  - Perform tests as soon as possible:

```
generate_z(Z):-
    generate_x(X),
    test_x(X),
    generate_y(X, Y),
    test_y(Y),
    combine(X, Y, Z).
```

  - Even better: test *as deeply as possible* within the generator

```
generate_z(Z):-
    generate_x_test(X),
    generate_y_test(X, Y),
    combine(X, Y, Z).
```

Indexing

- Indexing on the first argument:
  - ◇ At compile time an indexing table is built for each predicate based on the principal functor of the first argument of the clause heads
  - ◇ At run-time only the clauses with a compatible functor in the first argument are considered
- Result: appropriate clauses are reached faster and choice-points are not created if there are no “eligible” clauses left
- Improves the ability to detect determinacy, important for preserving working storage

Indexing (Contd.)

- Example: value greater than all elements in list

```
bad_greater(_X,[]).
bad_greater(X,[Y|Ys]):-  X > Y,bad_greater(X,Ys).
```

  600000 elements: 2.3 sec.

```
good_greater([],_X).
good_greater([Y|Ys],X):-  X > Y, good_greater(Ys,X).
```

  600000 elements: 0.67 sec

- Can be used with structures other than lists
- Available in most Prolog systems

Iteration vs. Recursion

- When the recursive call is the last subgoal in the clause and there are no alternatives left in the execution of the predicate, we have an *iteration*
- Much more efficient
- Example:

```
sum([], 0).
sum([N|Ns], Sum):-
    sum(Ns, Inter),
    Sum is Inter + N.
```

```
sum_iter(L, Res):-
    sum(L, 0, Res).

sum([], Res, Res).
sum([N|Ns], In, Out):-
    Inter is In + N,
    sum(Ns, Inter, Out).
```

`sum/2` 100000 elements: 0.45 sec.

`sum_iter/2` 100000 elements: 0.12 sec.

Iteration vs. Recursion (Contd.)

- The basic skeleton is:

```
<head>:-
    <deterministic computation>
    <recursive_call>.
```

- Known as *tail recursion*
- Particular case of *last call optimization*
- It also consumes less memory

Cuts

- Cuts eliminate choice–points, so they “create” determinism
- Example:

```
a:-
 test_1, !,
 ...
a:-
 test_2, !,
 ...
...
a:-
 test_n, !,
 ...
```

- If $test_1 \ldots test_n$ mutually exclusive, declarative meaning of program not affected.
- Otherwise, be careful: Declarativeness, Readability.

Delaying Work

- Do not perform useless operations
- In general:
  - Do not do anything until necessary
  - Put the tests as soon as possible
- Example:

```
x2x3([], []).
x2x3([X|Xs], [NX|NXs]):-
        NX is -X * 2,
        X < 0,
        x2x3(Xs, NXs).
x2x3([X|Xs], [NX|NXs]):-
        NX is X * 3,
        X >= 0,
        x2x3(Xs, NXs).
```

100000 elements: 1.05 sec.

- Delaying the arithmetic operations

```
x2x3_1([], []).
x2x3_1([X|Xs], [NX|NXs]):-
        X < 0,
        NX is -X * 2,
        x2x3_1(Xs, NXs).
x2x3_1([X|Xs], [NX|NXs]):-
        X >= 0,
        NX is X * 3,
        x2x3_1(Xs, NXs).
```

100000 elements: 0.9 sec.

Delaying Work

- Delaying head unification + determinism:

```
x2x3_2([], []).
x2x3_2([X|Xs], Out):-
        X < 0, !,
        NX is -X * 2,
        Out = [NX|NXs],
        x2x3_2(Xs, NXs).
x2x3_2([X|Xs], Out):-
        X >= 0, !,
        NX is X * 3,
        Out = [NX|NXs],
        x2x3_2(Xs, NXs).
```

  100000 elements: 0.68 sec. (and half the memory consumption)

- Some (personal) advice: use these techniques only when performance is essential. They might make programs:
  - Harder to understand
  - Harder to debug
  - Harder to maintain

Conclusions

- Avoid inheriting programming styles from other languages
- Program in a declarative way:
  - Improves readability
  - Allows compiler optimizations
- Avoid using the dynamic database when possible
- Look for deterministic computations when programming deterministic problems
- Put tests as soon as possible in the program (early pruning of the tree)
- Delay computations until needed