



## UvA-DARE (Digital Academic Repository)

### SWI-Prolog and the web

Wielemaker, J.; Huang, Z.; van der Meij, L.

**DOI**

[10.1017/S1471068407003237](https://doi.org/10.1017/S1471068407003237)

**Publication date**

2008

**Published in**

Theory and Practice of Logic Programming

[Link to publication](#)

**Citation for published version (APA):**

Wielemaker, J., Huang, Z., & van der Meij, L. (2008). SWI-Prolog and the web. *Theory and Practice of Logic Programming*, 8(3), 363-392. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1471068407003237>

**General rights**

It is not permitted to download or to forward/distribute the text or part of it without the consent of the author(s) and/or copyright holder(s), other than for strictly personal, individual use, unless the work is under an open content license (like Creative Commons).

**Disclaimer/Complaints regulations**

If you believe that digital publication of certain material infringes any of your rights or (privacy) interests, please let the Library know, stating your reasons. In case of a legitimate complaint, the Library will make the material inaccessible and/or remove it from the website. Please Ask the Library: <https://uba.uva.nl/en/contact>, or a letter to: Library of the University of Amsterdam, Secretariat, Singel 425, 1012 WP Amsterdam, The Netherlands. You will be contacted as soon as possible.

## *SWI-Prolog and the Web*

JAN WIELEMAKER

*Human-Computer Studies laboratory  
University of Amsterdam  
Matrix I  
Kruislaan 419  
1098 VA, Amsterdam  
The Netherlands  
(e-mail: [wielemak@science.uva.nl](mailto:wielemak@science.uva.nl))*

ZHISHENG HUANG, LOURENS VAN DER MEIJ

*Computer Science Department  
Vrije University Amsterdam  
De Boelelaan 1081a  
1081 HV, Amsterdam  
The Netherlands  
(e-mail: [huang,lourens@cs.vu.nl](mailto:huang,lourens@cs.vu.nl))*

*submitted 28 April 2006; revised 23 August 2007; accepted 18 October 2007*

---

### **Abstract**

Prolog is an excellent tool for representing and manipulating data written in formal languages as well as natural language. Its safe semantics and automatic memory management make it a prime candidate for programming robust Web services.

Where Prolog is commonly seen as a component in a Web application that is either embedded or communicates using a proprietary protocol, we propose an architecture where Prolog communicates to other components in a Web application using the standard HTTP protocol. By avoiding embedding in external Web servers development and deployment become much easier. To support this architecture, in addition to the transfer protocol, we must also support parsing, representing and generating the key Web document types such as HTML, XML and RDF.

This paper motivates the design decisions in the libraries and extensions to Prolog for handling Web documents and protocols. The design has been guided by the requirement to handle large documents efficiently. The described libraries support a wide range of Web applications ranging from HTML and XML documents to Semantic Web RDF processing.

The benefits of using Prolog for Web related tasks is illustrated using three case studies.

*KEYWORDS:* Prolog, HTTP, HTML, XML, RDF, DOM, Semantic Web

---

### **1 Introduction**

The Web is an exciting place offering new opportunities to artificial intelligence, natural language processing and Logic Programming. Information extraction from the Web, reasoning in Web applications and the Semantic Web are just a few examples. We have deployed Prolog in Web related tasks over a long period. As

most of the development on SWI-Prolog takes place in the context of projects that require new features, the system and its libraries provide extensive support for Web programming.

There are two views on deploying Prolog for Web related tasks. In the most commonly used view, Prolog acts as an embedded component in a general Web processing environment. In this role it generally provides reasoning tasks such as searching or configuration within constraints. Alternatively, Prolog itself can act as a stand-alone HTTP server as also proposed by ECLiPSe (Leth et al. 1996). In this view it is a component that can be part of any of the layers of the popular three-tier architecture for Web applications. Components generally exchange XML if used as part of the backend or middleware services and HTML if used in the presentation layer.

The latter view is in our vision more attractive. Using HTTP and XML over HTTP, the service is cleanly isolated using standard protocols rather than proprietary communication. Running as a stand-alone application, the attractive interactive development nature of Prolog can be maintained much more easily than embedded in a C, C++, Java or C# application. Using HTTP, automatic testing of the Prolog components can be done using any Web oriented test framework. HTTP allows Prolog to be deployed in any part of the service architecture, including the realisation of complete Web applications in one or more Prolog processes.

When deploying Prolog in a Web application using HTTP, we must not only implement the HTTP transfer protocol, but also support parsing, representing and generating the important document types used on the Web, especially HTML, XML and RDF. Note that, being widely used open standards, supporting these document types is also valuable outside the context of Web applications.

This paper gives an overview of the Web infrastructure we have realised. Given the range of libraries and Prolog extensions that facilitate Web applications we cannot describe them in detail. Details on the library interfaces can be found in the manuals available from the SWI-Prolog Web site.<sup>1</sup> Details on the implementation are available in the source distribution. The aim of this paper is to give an overview of the required infrastructure to use Prolog for realizing Web applications where we concentrate on scalability and performance. We describe our decisions for representing Web documents in Prolog and outline the interfaces provided by our libraries.

The benefits of using Prolog for Web related tasks are illustrated using three case studies: 1) SeRQL, an RDF query language for meta data management, retrieval and reasoning; 2) XDIG, an eXtended Description Logic interface, which provides ontology management and reasoning by processing DIG XML documents and communicating to external DL reasoners; and 3) A faceted browser on Semantic Web databases integrating meta-data from multiple collections of art-works. This case study serves as a complete Semantic Web application serving the end-user.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 to section 4 describe reading, writing

<sup>1</sup> <http://www.swi-prolog.org>

---

$\langle document \rangle$	::=	list-of $\langle content \rangle$
$\langle content \rangle$	::=	$\langle element \rangle$   $\langle pi \rangle$   $\langle cdata \rangle$   $\langle sdata \rangle$   $\langle ndata \rangle$
$\langle element \rangle$	::=	element( $\langle tag \rangle$ , list-of $\langle attribute \rangle$ , list-of $\langle content \rangle$ )
$\langle attribute \rangle$	::=	$\langle name \rangle = \langle value \rangle$
$\langle pi \rangle$	::=	pi( $\langle atom \rangle$ )
$\langle sdata \rangle$	::=	sdata( $\langle atom \rangle$ )
$\langle ndata \rangle$	::=	ndata( $\langle atom \rangle$ )
$\langle cdata \rangle, \langle name \rangle$	::=	$\langle atom \rangle$
$\langle value \rangle$	::=	$\langle svalue \rangle$   list-of $\langle svalue \rangle$
$\langle svalue \rangle$	::=	$\langle atom \rangle$   $\langle number \rangle$

---

Fig. 1. SGML/XML tree representation in Prolog. The notation list-of  $\langle x \rangle$  describes a Prolog list of terms of type  $\langle x \rangle$ .

---

and representation of Web related documents. Section 5 describes our HTTP client and server libraries. Section 6 describes extensions to the Prolog language that facilitate use in Web applications. Section 7 to section 9 describe the case studies.

## 2 Parsing and representing XML and HTML documents

The core of the Web is formed by document standards and exchange protocols. Here we describe tree-structured documents transferred as SGML or XML. HTML, an SGML application, is the most commonly used document format on the Web. HTML represents documents as a tree using a fixed set of *elements* (tags), where the SGML DTD (Document Type Declaration) puts constraints on how elements can be nested. Each node in the hierarchy has a name (the element-name), a set of name-value pairs known as its attributes and *content*, a sequence of sub-elements and text (data).

XML is a rationalisation of SGML using the same tree-model, but removing many rarely used features as well as abbreviations that were introduced in SGML to make the markup easier to type and read by humans. XML documents are used to represent text using custom application-oriented tags as well as a serialization format for arbitrary data exchange between computers. XHTML is HTML based on XML rather than SGML.

The first SGML parser for SWI-Prolog was created by Anjo Anjewierden based on the SP parser<sup>2</sup>. A stable Prolog term-representation for SGML/XML trees plays a similar role as the DOM (*Document Object Model*) representation in use in the object-oriented world. The term-structure we use is described in figure 1. Some issues have been subject to debate.

- Representation of text by a Prolog atom is biased by the use of SWI-Prolog which has no length-limit on atoms and atoms that can represent Unicode text as motivated in section 6.2. At the same time SWI-Prolog stacks are limited to 128MB each. Using atoms only the structure of the tree is represented on the

<sup>2</sup> <http://www.jclark.com/sp/>

stack, while the bulk of the data is stored on the unlimited heap. Using lists of character codes is another possibility adopted by both PiLLoW (Gras and Hermenegildo 2001) and ECLiPSe (Leth et al. 1996). Two observations make lists less attractive: lists use two cells per character while practical experience shows text is frequently processed as a unit only. For (HTML) text-documents we profit from the compact representation of atoms. For XML documents representing serialized data-structures we profit from frequent repetition of the same value.

- Attribute values of multi-value attributes (e.g. `NAMES`) are returned as a Prolog list. This implies the DTD must be available to get unambiguous results. With SGML this is always true, but not with XML.
- Optionally attribute values of type `NUMBER` or `NUMBERS` are mapped to Prolog numbers. In addition to the DTD issues mentioned above, this conversion also suffers from possible loss of information. Leading zeros and different floating point number notations used are lost after conversion. Prolog systems with bounded arithmetic may also not be able to represent all values. Still, automatic conversion is useful in many applications, especially those involving serialized data-structures.
- Attribute values are represented as *Name=Value*. Using *Name(Value)* is an alternative. The *Name=Value* representation was chosen for its similarity to the SGML notation and because it avoids the need for `univ(=..)` for processing argument-lists.

*Implementation* The SWI-Prolog SGML/XML parser is implemented as a C-library that has been built from scratch to create a lightweight parser. Total source is 11,835 lines. The parser provides two interfaces. Most natural to Prolog is `load_structure(+Src, -DOM, +Options)` which parses a Prolog stream into a term as described above. Alternatively, `sgml_parse/2` provides an *event-based* parser making call-backs on Prolog for the SGML events. The call-back mode can deal with unbounded documents in streaming mode. It can be mixed with the term-creation mode, where the handler for *begin* calls the parser to create a term-representation for the content of the element. This feature is used to process long files with a repetitive record structure in limited memory. Section 4.1 describes how this is used to process RDF documents.

Full documentation is available from <http://www.swi-prolog.org/packages/sgml2pl.html> The SWI-Prolog SGML parser has been adopted by XSB Prolog.

### 3 Generating Web documents

There are many approaches to generating Web pages from programs in general and Prolog in particular. We believe the preferred choice depends on various aspects.

- How much of the document is generated from dynamic data and how much is static? Pages that are static except for a few strings are best generated from a template using variable substitution. Pages consisting of a table generated from dynamic data are best entirely generated from the program.

- For program generated pages we can choose between direct printing and generating using a language-native syntax, for example `format('<b>bold</b>')` or `print_html(b(bold))`. The second approach can guarantee well-formed output, but the first requires the programmer to learn about `format/3` only.
- Documents that contain a significant static part are best represented in the markup language where special constructs insert program-generated parts. A popular approach implemented by PHP<sup>3</sup> and ASP<sup>4</sup> is to add a reserved element such as `<script>` and use the SGML/XML *programming instruction* written as `<?...?>`. The obvious name PSP (Prolog Server Pages) is in use by various projects taking this approach.<sup>5</sup> Another approach is PWP<sup>6</sup> (Prolog Well-formed Pages). It is based on the principle that the source is well-formed XML and interacts with Prolog through additional attributes. Output is guaranteed to be well-formed XML. Our infrastructure does not yet include any of these approaches.
- Page *transformation* is realised by parsing the original document into its tree representation, managing the tree and writing a new document from the tree. Managing the source-text directly is not reliable as due to character encoding choice, entity usage and SGML abbreviations there are many different source-texts that represent the same tree. The `load_structure/3` predicate described in section 2 together with output primitives from the library `sgml_write.pl` provide this functionality. The XDIG case study described in section 8 follows this approach.

### 3.1 Generating documents using DCG

The traditional method for creating Web documents is using print routines such as `write/1` or `format/2`. Although simple and easily explained to novices, the approach has serious drawbacks from a software engineering point of view. In particular the user is responsible for HTML quoting, character encoding issues and proper nesting of HTML elements. Automated validation is virtually impossible using this approach.

Alternatively we can produce a DOM term as described in section 2 and use the library `sgml_write.pl` to create the HTML or XML document. Such documents are guaranteed to use proper nesting of elements, escape sequences and character encoding. The terms however are big, deeply nested and hard to read and write. Prolog allows them to be built from skeletons containing variables. This approach is taken by PiLLOW (section 3.2) to control the complexity. In our opinion, the result is not optimal due to the unnatural order of statements as illustrated in figure 2. PiLLOW has partly overcome this shortcoming by defining a large number of ‘utility

<sup>3</sup> [www.php.net](http://www.php.net)

<sup>4</sup> [www.microsoft.com](http://www.microsoft.com)

<sup>5</sup> <http://www.prologonlinereference.org/psp.psp>,

<http://www.benjaminjohnston.com.au/template.prolog?t=psp>,

<http://www.ifcomputer.com/inap/inap2001/program/inap.bartenstein.ps>

<sup>6</sup> <http://www.cs.otago.ac.nz/staffpriv/ok/pwp.pl>

---

```

    ...,
    mkthumbnail(URL, Caption, ThumbNail),
    output_html([ h1("Photo gallery"),
                  ThumbNail
                ]).

mkthumbnail(URL, Caption, Term) :-
    Term = table([ tr(td([halign=center], img([src=URL], []))),
                  tr(td([halign=center], Caption))
                ])

```

Fig. 2. Building PiLLoW terms

---

terms' that are translated in a special way, as discussed in section 6.2 of (Gras and Hermenegildo 2001).

We introduced a DCG rule `html//1`.<sup>7</sup> This rule translates proper trees into a list of high-level HTML/XML commands that are handed to `html_print/1` to realise proper quoting, character encoding and layout. The intermediate format is of no concern to the user and similar in structure to the PiLLoW representation without using environments. Generated from the tree representation however, consistent opening and closing of elements is guaranteed. In addition to variable substitution which is provided by Prolog we allow calling rules. Rules are invoked by a term `\Rule` embedded in the argument of `html//1`. Figure 3 illustrates our approach. Note that any reusable part of the page generation can easily be translated into a DCG rule and the difference between direct translation of terms to HTML and rule-invocation is eminent.

In our current implementation rules are called using meta-calling from `html//1`. Using `term_expansion/2` it is straightforward to move the rule invocation out of the term, using variable substitution similar to PiLLoW. It is also possible to recursively expand the generated tree and validate it to the HTML DTD at compile-time and even insert omitted tags at compile-time to generate valid XHTML from an incomplete specification. An overview of the argument to `html//1` is given in figure 4.

### 3.2 Comparison with PiLLoW

The PiLLoW library (Gras and Hermenegildo 2001) is a well established framework for Web programming based on Prolog. PiLLoW defines `html2terms/2`, converting between an HTML string and a document represented as a Herbrand term. There are fundamental differences between PiLLoW and the primitives described here.

<sup>7</sup> The notation `<name>//<arity>` refers to the grammar rule `<name>` with the given `<arity>`, and consequently the predicate `<name>` with arity `<arity>+2`.

---

```

affiliation_table :-
    findall(Name-Aff, affiliation(Name, Aff), Pairs0),
    keysort(Pairs0, Pairs),
    reply_page(table([border(2),align(center)],
        [ tr([th('Name'), th('Affiliation')])
          | \affiliations(Pairs)
          ]))).

affiliations([]) --> [].
affiliations([H|T]) --> affiliation(H), affiliations(T).

affiliation(Name-Aff) --> html(tr(td(Name), td(Aff))).

% database
affiliation(wielemaker, uva).
affiliation(huang, vu).
affiliation('van der meij', vu).

% Page template
reply_page(Term) :-
    format('Content-type: text/html~n~n'),
    phrase(html(Term), Tokens),
    print_html(Tokens).

```

Fig. 3. Library html\_write.pl in action

---

```

<html> ::= list-of <content> | <content>
<content> ::= <atom>
           | <tag>(list-of <attribute>, <html>)
           | <tag>(<html>)
           | \<rule>
<attribute> ::= <name>(<value>)
<tag>, <entity> ::= <atom>
<value> ::= <atom> | <number>
<rule> ::= <callable>

```

Fig. 4. The html//1 argument specification

- 
- PiLLOW creates an HTML document from a Herbrand term that is passed to **html2terms/2**. Complex terms are composed of partial terms passed as Prolog variables. Frequent HTML constructs are supported using reserved terms using dedicated processing. We use DCGs and the `\Rule` construct, which makes it eminent which terms directly refer to HTML elements and which function as a ‘macro’. In addition, the user can define application-specific reusable fragments in a uniform way.
  - The PiLLOW parser does not create the SGML document tree. It does not insert omitted tags, default attributes, etcetera. As a result, HTML docu-



---

```
[env(table, [], [tr$[], td$[], "Hello"])]

[element(table, [],
  [ element(tbody, [],
    [ element(tr, [],
      [ element(td, [rowspan='1', colspan='1'],
        ['Hello'])])])])])]
```

---

Fig. 5. Term representations for `<table><tr><td>Hello</td></tr></table>` in PiLLoW (top) and our parser (bottom). Our parser completes the `tr` and `td` environments, inserts the omitted `tbody` element and inserts the defaults for the `rowspan` and `colspan` attributes

---

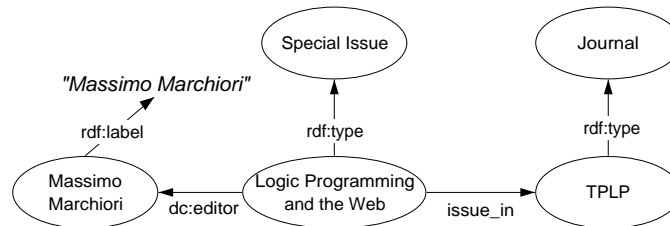


Fig. 6. Sample RDF graph. Ellipses are vertices representing URIs. Quoted text is a literal. Edges are labelled with URIs.

ments that differ only in omitted tags and whether or not default attributes are included in the source produce different terms. In our approach the term representation is equivalent, regardless of the input document. This is illustrated in figure 5. Having a canonical DOM representation greatly simplifies processing parsed HTML documents.

#### 4 RDF documents

Where the datamodel of both HTML and XML is a tree-structure with attributes, the datamodel of the Semantic Web (SW) RDF<sup>8</sup> language consists of  $\{Subject, Predicate, Object\}$  triples. Both *Subject* and *Predicate* are URIs.<sup>9</sup> *Object* is either a URI or a *Literal*. As the *Object* of one triple can be the *Subject* of another, a set of triples forms a graph, where each edge is labelled with a URI (the *Predicate*) and each vertex is either a URI or a literal. Literals have no out-going edges. Figure 6 illustrates this.

A number of languages are layered on top of the RDF triple model. RDFS provides a frame-based representation. The OWL-dialects<sup>10</sup> provide three increasingly

<sup>8</sup> <http://www.w3.org/RDF/>

<sup>9</sup> URI: *Uniform Resource Identifier* is like a URL, but need not refer to an existing resource on the Web.

<sup>10</sup> <http://www.w3.org/2004/OWL/>

---

$\langle subject \rangle, \langle predicate \rangle$	::=	$\langle URI \rangle$
$\langle object \rangle$	::=	$\langle URI \rangle$
		$\text{literal}(\langle lit\_value \rangle)$
$\langle lit\_value \rangle$	::=	$\langle text \rangle$
		$\text{lang}(\langle langid \rangle, \langle text \rangle)$
		$\text{type}(\langle URI \rangle, \langle text \rangle)$
$\langle URI \rangle, \langle text \rangle$	::=	$\langle atom \rangle$
$\langle langid \rangle$	::=	$\langle atom \rangle$ (ISO639)

---

Fig. 7. RDF types in Prolog.

complex Web ontology languages. SWRL<sup>11</sup> is a proposal for a rule language. The W3C standard for exchanging these triple models is an XML application known as RDF/XML.

As there are multiple XML tree representations for the same triple-set, RDF documents cannot be processed at the level of the XML-DOM as described in section 2. A triple- or graph-based structure is the most natural choice for representing an RDF document in Prolog. First we must decide on the representation of URIs and literals. As a URI is a string and the only operation defined on URIs by SW languages is equivalence test, using a Prolog atom is an obvious choice. One may consider using a term  $\langle namespace \rangle:\langle localname \rangle$ , but given that decomposing a URI into its namespace and localname is only relevant during I/O we consider this an inferior choice. The RDF library comes with a compile-time rewrite mechanism based on **goal\_expansion/2** that allows for writing resources in Prolog sourcetext as  $\langle ns \rangle:\langle local \rangle$ . Literals are expressed as **literal**(*Value*). The full type description is in figure 7.

The typical SW use-scenario is to ‘harvest’ triples from multiple sources and collect them in a database before reasoning with them. Prolog can represent data as a Herbrand term on the stack or as predicates in the database. Given the relatively static nature of the RDF data as well as desired access from multiple threads, using the Prolog database is the most obvious choice. Here we have two options. One is the predicate **rdf**(*Subject*, *Predicate*, *Object*) using the argument types described above. The alternative is to map each RDF predicate on a Prolog predicate *Predicate*(*Subject*, *Object*). We have chosen for **rdf/3** because it supports queries with uninstantiated predicates better and a single predicate is easier to manage than an unbounded set of predicates with unknown names.

#### 4.1 Input and output of RDF documents

The RDF/XML parser is realised as a Prolog library on top of the XML parser described in section 2. Similar to the XML parser it has two interfaces. The predicate **load\_rdf**(*+Src*, *-Triples*, *+Options*) parses a document and returns a Prolog list of

<sup>11</sup> <http://www.w3.org/Submission/SWRL/>

---

```

load_triples(File, Options) :-
    process_rdf(File, assert_triples, Options).

assert_triples([], _).
assert_triples([rdf(S,P,O)|T], Src) :-
    rdf_assert(S, P, O, Src),
    assert_triples(T, Src).

```

Fig. 8. Loading triples using `process_rdf/3`

---



---

```

<Painting rdf:about="...">
  <dimension>
    <Dimension width="45" height="50"/>
  </dimension>
</Painting>

```

Fig. 9. Blank node to express the compound dimension property

---

`rdf(S,P,O)` triples. Note that despite harvesting to the database is the typical use-case scenario, the parser delivers a list of triples for maximal flexibility. The predicate `process_rdf(+Src, :Action, +Options)` exploits the mixed call-back/convert mode of the XML parser to process the RDF file one *description* (record) at a time, calling *Action* with a list of triples extracted from the description. Figure 8 illustrates how this is used by the storage module to load unbounded files with limited stack usage. Source location as *(file):(line)* is passed to the *Src* argument of `assert_triples/2`.

In addition to named URIs, RDF resources can be *blank-nodes*. A blank-node (short *bnode*) is an anonymous resource that is created from an in-lined description. Figure 9 describes the dimensions of a painting as a compound instance of class *Dimension* with width and height properties. The *Dimension* instance has no URI. Our parser generates an identifier that starts with a double underscore, followed by the source and a number. The double underscore is used to identify bnodes. Source and number are needed to guarantee the bnode is unique.

The parser from XML to RDF triples covers the full RDF specification, including Unicode handling, RDF datatypes and RDF language tags. The Prolog source is 1,788 lines. It processes approximately 9,000 triples per second on an AMD 1600+ based computer. Implementation details and evaluation of the parser are described in (Wielemaker et al. 2003).<sup>12</sup>

We have two libraries for writing RDF/XML. One, `rdf_write_xml(+Stream, +Triples)`, provides the inverse of `load_rdf/2`, writing

<sup>12</sup> The parser described there did not yet support RDF datatypes and language tags, nor Unicode.

Table 1. *Call-statistics on a real-world system*

Index pattern			Calls
-	-	-	58
+	-	-	253,554
-	+	-	62
+	+	-	23,292,353
-	-	+	633,733
-	+	+	7,807,846
+	+	+	26,969,003

an XML document from a list of  $\mathbf{rdf}(S,P,O)$  terms. The other, called  $\mathbf{rdf\_save/2}$  is part of the RDF storage module described in section 4.2 and writes a database directly to a file or stream. The first ( $\mathbf{rdf\_write\_xml/2}$ ) is used to exchange computed graphs to external programs using network communication, while the second ( $\mathbf{rdf\_save/2}$ ) is used to save modified graphs back to file. The resulting code duplication is unfortunate, but unavoidable. Creating a temporary graph in a database requires potentially much memory, and harms concurrency, while graphs fetched from the database into a list may not fit in the Prolog stacks and is also considerably slower than a direct write.

#### 4.2 Storage of RDF

Assuming the ‘harvesting’ use-case, we need to implement a predicate  $\mathbf{rdf}(?S,?P,?O)$ . Indexing the database is crucial for good performance. Table 1 illustrates the calling pattern from a real-world application counting 4 million triples. Also note that our data is described by figure 7. The RDF store was developed in the context of projects which formulated the following requirements.

- Upto at least 10 million triples on 32-bit hardware.
- Fast graph traversal using any instantiation pattern.
- Case-insensitive search on literals.
- Prefix search on literals for completion in the User Interface.
- Searching for words that appear in literals.
- Multi-threaded access based on read/write locks.
- Transaction management and persistent store.
- Maintain source information, so we can update, save or remove data based on its source.
- Fast load/save of current state.

Our first version of the database used the Prolog database with secondary tables to improve indexing. As requirements pushed us against the limits of what is achievable in a 32-bit address-space we decided to implement the low level store in C. Profiting from the known uniform structure of the data we realised about

two times more compact storage with better indexing than using a pure Prolog approach. We took the following design decisions for the C-based storage module:

- The RDF *predicates* are represented as unique entities and organised according to the `rdfs:subPropertyOf` relation in multiple hierarchies. The root of each hierarchy is used to compute the hash for the triple. If there is no unique root due to a cycle an arbitrary predicate is assigned to be the root.
- Literals are kept in an AVL tree, sorted case-insensitive and case-preserving (e.g. `AaBb...`). Numeric literals precede all non-numeric and are kept sorted on their numeric value. Storing literals in a separate sorted table allows for indexed search for prefixes and numeric values. It also allows for monitoring creation and destruction of literals to maintain derived tables such as stemming or double methaphone (Philips 2000) based on **rdf\_monitor/3** described below. The space overhead of maintaining the table is roughly cancelled by avoiding duplicates. Experience on real data ranges between -5% and +10%.
- Resources are represented by Prolog atom-handles. The hash is computed from the handle-value. Note that avoiding the translation between Prolog atom and text avoids both duplication of data and table-lookup. We consider this a crucial aspect.
- Each triple is represented by the atom-handle for the subject, predicate-pointer, atom-handle or literal pointer for object, a pointer to the source, a line number, a general bit-flag field and 6 ‘hash-next’ pointers covering all indexing patterns except for `+,+,+` and `+,-,+`. Queries using the pattern `+,-,+` are rare. Fully instantiated queries internally use the pattern `+,+,-`, assuming few values on the same property. Considering experience with real data we will probably add a `+,+,+` index in the future. The un-indexed table is a simple linked list. The others are hash-tables that are automatically resized if they become too populated.

The store itself does not allow for writes while there are active reads in progress. If another thread is reading, the write operation will stall until all threads have finished reading. If the thread itself has an open choicepoint a permission error exception is raised. To arrive at meaningful update semantics we introduced *transactions*. The thread starting a transaction obtains a write-lock, initially allowing readers to proceed. During the transaction all changes are recorded in a linked list of actions. If the transaction is ready for commit, the thread denies access to new readers and waits for all readers to vanish before updating the database. Transactions are realised by **rdf\_transaction(:Goal)**. If *Goal* succeeds, its choicepoints are discarded and the transaction is committed. If *Goal* fails or raises an exception the transaction is discarded and **rdf\_transaction/1** returns failure or exception. Transactions can be nested. Nesting a transaction places a transaction-mark in the list of actions of the current transaction. Committing implies removing this mark from the list. Discarding removes all action cells following the mark as well as the mark itself.

---

<code>% triples</code>	<code>% entailment interface</code>	<code>% RDFS interface</code>
<code>mary type woman .</code>	<code>?- rdf(mary, type, X).</code>	<code>?- rdfs_individual_of(mary, X).</code>
<code>woman type Class .</code>	<code>X = woman ;</code>	<code>X = woman ;</code>
<code>woman subclassOf human .</code>	<code>X = human ;</code>	<code>X = human ;</code>
<code>human type Class .</code>	<code>No</code>	<code>No</code>

---

Fig. 10. Different interface styles for RDFS

It is possible to monitor the database using `rdf_monitor(:Goal, +Events)`. Whenever one of the monitored events happens *Goal* is called. Modifying actions inside a transaction are called during the commit. Modifications by the monitors are collected in a new transaction which is committed immediately after completing the preceding commit. Monitor events are `assert`, `retract`, `update`, `new_literal`, `old_literal`, `transaction begin/end` and `file-load`. *Goal* is called in the modifying thread. As this thread is holding the database write lock, all invocations of monitor calls are fully serialized.

Although the 9,000 triples per second of the RDF/XML parser ranks it among the fast parsers, loading 10 million triples takes nearly 20 minutes. For this reason we developed a binary format. The format is described in (Wielemaker et al. 2003) and loads approximately 10 times faster than RDF/XML, while using about the same space. The format is independent from byte-order and word-length, supporting both 32- and 64-bit hardware.

Persistency is achieved through the library `rdf_persistency.pl`, which uses `rdf_monitor/3` to maintain a set of files in a directory. Each source known to the database is represented by two files, one file representing the initial state using the quick-load binary format and one file containing Prolog terms representing changes, called the *journal*.

### 4.3 Reasoning with RDF documents

We have identified two approaches for reasoning on top of the plain RDF predicate for more high-level languages such as RDFS or OWL. One approach is taken by the SeRQL query system described in section 7. It is based on the observation that these languages provide rules to deduce new triples from the set of known triples. The API for high level languages is now simply the `rdf/3` predicate, where `rdf(S,P,O)` is true for any triple in the deductive closure of the original triple set under the given language. The deductive closure can be realised using full forward reasoning, deducing new triples until this is no longer possible or by a combination of backward reasoning and forward reasoning. An alternative approach is to consider RDFS or OWL at the conceptual level and introduce a set of predicates that are inspired on this level. This approach is taken by our library `rdfs.pl`, defining predicates such as `rdfs_individual_of(?Resource, ?Class)`, `rdfs_subclass_of(?Sub, ?Super)`. Figure 10 illustrates the difference in these approaches.

#### 4.4 Experience

The RDF infrastructure is used in two of the three case-studies described at the end of this paper. RDF has a natural representation in Prolog, either as a list of terms or as a pure predicate. Prolog non-determinism greatly simplifies querying the database. Transitivity is easily expressed using recursion. However, as cycles in SW graphs are allowed and frequent, such algorithms must be protected against them. Cycle-detection complicates the code and harms performance. We plan to investigate tabling (Ramakrishnan et al. 1995) to improve on this situation.

Although designed as RDF store for SW-based projects, the infrastructure is also commonly used to create RDF documents from other sources as well as for filtering and reorganizing RDF documents. In the e-culture project<sup>13</sup> it has been used to convert WordNet (Miller 1995) from its Prolog representation and the Getty thesauri<sup>14</sup> from XML (4GB data) into RDF.

### 5 Supporting HTTP

HTTP, or HyperText Transfer Protocol, is the key W3C standard protocol for exchanging Web documents. All browsers and Web servers implement it. The initial version of the protocol was very simple. The client request consists of a single line of the format  $\langle action \rangle \langle path \rangle$ , the server replies with the requested document and closes the connection. Version 1.1 of the protocol is more complicated, providing additional name-value pairs in the request as well as the reply, features to request status such as modification time, transfer partial documents, etcetera.

Adding HTTP support in Prolog, we must consider both the client- and server-side. In both cases our choice is between doing it in Prolog or re-using an existing application or library by providing an interface for it. We compare our work with PiLLoW (Cabeza and Hermenegildo 2003) and the ECLiPSe HTTP services (Leth et al. 1996).

Given a basic TCP/IP socket library, writing an HTTP client is trivial (our client is 258 lines of code). Both PiLLoW and ECLiPSe include a client written in Prolog. More issues complicate the choice for a pure Prolog based server.

- The server is more complex, which implies there is more to gain by re-using external code. Our core server library counts 1,784 lines.
- A single computer can only host one server at port 80 used by default for public HTTP. Using an alternate port for middleware and storage tier components is no problem, but use as a public server often conflicts with firewall or proxy settings. This can be solved using a proxy server such as the Apache *mod\_proxy*<sup>15</sup> configured as *reverse proxy*.
- Servers by definition introduce security risks. Administrators are reluctant to see non-proven software in the role of a public server. Using a proxy as above also reduces this risk, especially if the proxy blocks malformed requests.

<sup>13</sup> e-culture.multimedien.nl

<sup>14</sup> [http://www.getty.edu/research/conducting\\_research/vocabularies/](http://www.getty.edu/research/conducting_research/vocabularies/)

<sup>15</sup> [http://httpd.apache.org/docs/1.3/mod/mod\\_proxy.html](http://httpd.apache.org/docs/1.3/mod/mod_proxy.html)

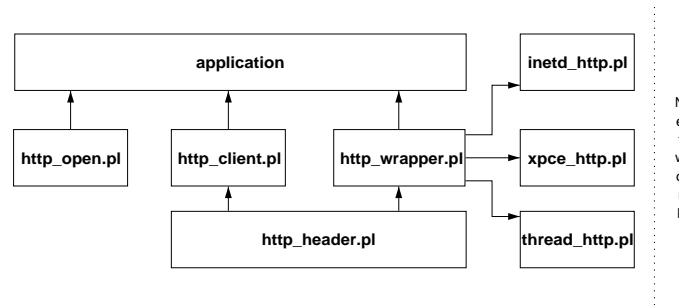


Fig. 11. Module dependencies of the HTTP library

Despite these observations, we consider, like the ECLiPSe team, a pure Prolog based server worthwhile. As argued in section 6.1, many Prolog Web applications profit from using state stored in the server. Large resources such as WordNet (Miller 1995) cause long startup times. In such cases the use of CGI (Common Gateway Interface) is not appropriate as a new copy of the application is started for each request. PiLLoW resolves this issue by using *Active Modules*, where a small CGI application talks to a continuously running Prolog server using a private protocol. Using a Prolog HTTP server and optionally a reverse proxy has the same benefits, but based on a standard protocol, it is much more flexible.

Another approach is embedding Prolog in another server framework such as the Java based Tomcat server. Although feasible, embedding non-Java based Prolog systems in Java is complicated. Embedding through *jni* introduces platform and Java version dependent problems. Connecting Prolog and Java concurrency models and garbage collection is difficult and the resulting system is much harder to manage by the user than a pure Prolog based application.

In the following sections we describe our HTTP client and server libraries. An overall overview of the modules and their dependencies is given in figure 11.

### 5.1 HTTP client libraries

We support two clients. The first is a lightweight client that only supports the HTTP GET method by means of `http_open(+URL, -Stream, +Options)`. *Options* allows for setting a timeout or proxy as well as getting information from the reply-header such as the size of the document. The `http_open/3` predicate internally handles HTTP 3xx (redirect) replies. Other non-ok replies are mapped to a Prolog exception. After reading the document the user must close the returned stream-handle using the standard Prolog `close/1` predicate. This predicate makes accessing an HTTP resource as simple as accessing a local file. The second library, called `http_client.pl`, provides support for HTTP POST and a plugin interface that allows for installing handlers for documents of specified MIME-types. It shares `http_header.pl` with the server libraries for DCG based creation and parsing of HTTP headers. Currently provided plugins include `http_mime_plugin.pl` to handle multipart MIME messages and `http_sgml_plugin.pl` for automatically parsing



---

```

?- use_module(library('http/http_client')).
?- use_module(library('http/http_sgml_plugin')).

?- http_get('http://www.swi-prolog.org/', DOM, []).
DOM = [element(html, [version='-//W3C//DTD HTML 4.0 Transitional//EN'],
                  [element(head, [],
                            [element(title, [],
                                      ['SWI-Prolog\'s Home']), ...

```

Fig. 12. Fetching an HTML document

---

HTML, XML and SGML documents. Figure 12 shows the code for fetching a URL and parsing the returned HTML document it into a Prolog term as described in section 2.

Both the PiLLoW and ECLiPSe approach return the documents content as a string. Our interface is stream-based (**http\_open/3**) or allows for plugin-based processing of the stream (**http\_get/3**, **http\_post/4**). This interface avoids potentially large intermediate data-structures and allows for processing unbounded documents.

## 5.2 The HTTP server library

Both to simplify re-use of application code and to make it possible to use the server without committing to a large infrastructure we adopted the reply-strategy of the CGI protocol, where the handler writes a page consisting of an HTTP header followed by the document content. Figure 13 provides a simple example that returns the request-data to the client. By importing `thread_http.pl` we implicitly selected the multi-threaded server model. Other models provided are `inetd_http`, causing the (Unix) inet daemon to start a server for each request and `xpce_http` which uses I/O multiplexing realising multiple clients without using Prolog threads. The logic of handling a single HTTP request given a predicate realising the handler, an input and output stream is implemented by `http_wrapper`.

Replies other than “200 OK” are generated using a Prolog exception. Recognised replies are defined by the predicate **http\_reply**(*+Reply*, *+Stream*, *+Header*). For example to indicate that the user has no access to a page we must use the following call.

```
throw(http_reply(forbidden(URL))).
```

Failure of the handler raises a “404 existence error” reply, while exceptions other than the ones described above raise a “500 Server error” reply.

### 5.2.1 Form parameters

The library `http_parameters.pl` defines **http\_parameters**(*+Request*, *?Parameters*) to fetch and type-check parameters transparently for both GET and POST re-

```

:- use_module(
    library('http/thread_httpd')).

start_server(Port) :-
    http_server(reply, [port(Port)]).

reply(Request) :-
    format('Content-type: text/plain~n~n')
    writeln(Request).

```

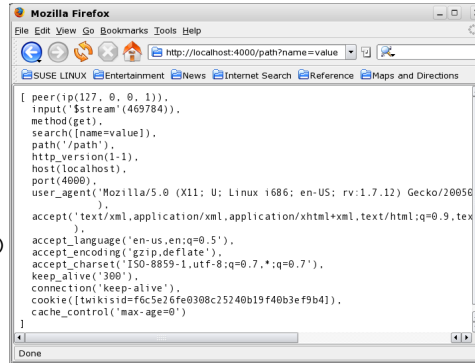


Fig. 13. A simple HTTP server. The right window shows the client and the format of the parsed request.

```

reply(Request) :-
    http_parameters(Request,
        [ title(Title, [optional(true)]),
          name(Name, [length >= 2]),
          age(Age, [integer])
        ], ...

```

Fig. 14. Fetching HTTP form data

quests. Figure 14 illustrates the functionality. Parameter values are returned as atoms. If large documents are transferred using a POST request the user may wish to revert to `http_read_data(+Request, -Data, +Options)` underlying `http_get/3` to process arguments using plugins.

### 5.2.2 Session management

The library `http_session.pl` provides session over the stateless HTTP protocol. It does so by adding a cookie using a randomly generated code if no valid session id is found in the current request. The interface to the user consists of a predicate to set options (timeout, cookie-name and path) and a set of wrappers around `assert/1` and `retract/1`, the most important of which are `http_session_assert(+Data)`, `http_session_retract(?Data)` and `http_session_data(?Data)`. In the current version the data associated with sessions that have timed out is simply discarded. Session-data does not survive the server.

Note that a session generally consists of a number of HTTP requests and replies. Each *request* is scheduled over the available worker threads and requests belonging to the same session are therefore normally not handled by the same thread. This implies no session state can be stored in global variables or in the control-structure of a thread. If such style of programming is wanted the user must create a thread that represents the session and setup communication from the HTTP-worker thread to the session thread. Figure 15 illustrates the idea.

---

```

reply(Request) :-                                     % HTTP worker
(   http_session_data(thread(Thread))
-> true
;   thread_create(session_loop([], Thread, [detached(true)]),
    http_session_assert(thread(Thread))
),
current_output(CGIOut),
thread_self(Me),
thread_send_message(Thread, handle(Request, Me, CGIOut)),
thread_get_message(_Done).

session_loop(State) :-                               % Session thread
    thread_get_message(handle(Request, Sender, CGIOut)),
    next_state(Request, State, NewState, CGIOut).
    thread_send_message(Sender, done).

```

Fig. 15. Managing a session in a thread. The `reply/1` predicate is part of the HTTP worker pool, while `session_loop/1` is executed in the thread handling the session. We omitted error handling for readability of the example.

---

Table 2. *HTTP performance executing a trivial query 10,000 times. Times are in seconds. Localhost, dual AMD 1600+ running SuSE Linux 10.0*

Connection	Elapsed	Server CPU	Client CPU
Close	20.84	11.70	7.48
Keep-Alive	16.23	8.69	6.73

---

### 5.2.3 Evaluation

The presented server infrastructure is currently used by many internal and external projects. Coding a server is very similar to writing CGI handlers and running in the interactive Prolog process is much easier to debug. As Prolog is capable of reloading source files in the running system, handlers can be updated while the server is running. Handlers running during the update are likely to die on an exception though. We plan to resolve this issue by introducing read/write locks. The protocol overhead of the multi-threaded server is illustrated in table 2.

## 6 Enabling extensions to the Prolog language

SWI-Prolog has been developed in the context of projects many of which caused the development to focus on managing Web documents and protocols. In the previous sections we have described our Web enabling libraries. In this section we describe extensions to the ISO-Prolog standard (Deransart et al. 1996) we consider crucial

for scalable and comfortable deployment of Prolog as an agent in a Web centred world.

### 6.1 Multi-threading

Concurrency is necessary for applications for the following reasons:

- Network delays may cause communication of a single transaction to take very long. It is not acceptable if such incidents block access for other clients. This can be achieved using multiplexed I/O, multiple processes handling requests in a pool or multiple threads in one or more processes handling requests in a pool.
- CPU intensive services must be able to deploy multiple CPUs. This can be achieved using multiple instances of the service and load-balancing or a single server running on multi-processor hardware or a combination of the two.

As indicated, none of the requirements above require multi-threading support in Prolog. Nevertheless, we added multi-threading (Wielemaker 2003) because it resolves the problems mentioned above for medium-scale applications while greatly simplifying deployment and debugging in a platform independent way. A multi-threaded server also allows maintaining state for a specific session or even shared between multiple sessions simply in the Prolog database. The advantages of this are described in (Szeredi et al. 1996), using the or-parallel Aurora to serve multiple clients. This is particularly interesting for accessing the RDF database described in section 4.2.

### 6.2 Atoms and Unicode support

Unicode<sup>16</sup> is a character encoding system that assigns unique integers (code-points) to all characters of almost all scripts known in the world. In Unicode 4.0, the code-points range from 1 to 0x10FFFF. Unicode can handle documents from different scripts as well as documents that contain multiple scripts in a single uniform representation, an important feature in applications processing Web data. Traditional HTML applications commonly insert special symbols through entities such as the copyright (©) sign, Greek and mathematical symbols, etcetera. Using Unicode we can represent all entity values as plain text. As illustrated in the famous *Semantic Web layer cake* in figure 16, Unicode is at the heart of the Semantic Web.

HTML documents can be represented using Prolog strings because Prolog integers can represent all Unicode code-points. As we have claimed in section 2 however, using Prolog strings is not the most obvious choice. XML attribute names and values can contain arbitrary Unicode characters, which requires the unnatural use of strings for these as well. If we consider RDF, URIs can have arbitrary Unicode characters<sup>17</sup> and we want to represent URIs as atoms to exploit compact storage as

<sup>16</sup> <http://www.Unicode.org/>

<sup>17</sup> <http://www.w3.org/TR/rdf-concepts/#section-Graph-URIref>

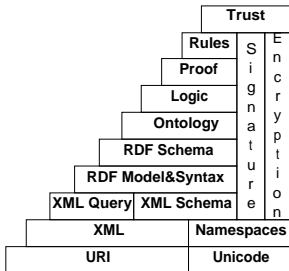


Fig. 16. The Semantic Web layer cake by Tim Burners Lee

well as fast equivalence testing. Without Unicode support in atoms we would have to encode Unicode in the atom using escape sequences. All this patchwork can be avoided if we demand the properties below for Prolog atoms.

- Atoms represent text in Unicode
- Atoms have no limit on their length
- The Prolog implementation allows for a large number of atoms, both to represent URIs and to represent text in HTML/XML documents. SWI-Prolog's limit is  $2^{25}$  (32 million).
- Continuously running servers cannot allow memory leaks and therefore processing dynamic data using atoms requires atom garbage collection.

## 7 Case study — A Semantic Web Query Language

In this case-study we describe the SWI-Prolog SeRQL implementation.<sup>18</sup> SeRQL is an RDF query language developed as part of the Sesame project<sup>19</sup> (Broekstra et al. 2002). SeRQL uses HTTP as its access protocol. Sesame consists of an implementation of the server as a Java servlet and a Java client-library. By implementing a compatible framework we made our Prolog based RDF storage and reasoning engine available to Java clients. The Prolog SeRQL implementation uses all of the described SWI-Prolog infrastructure and building it has contributed significantly to the development of the infrastructure. Figure 17 lists the main components of the server.

The *entailment* modules are plugins that implement the entailment approach to RDF reasoning described in section 4.3. They implement `rdf/3` as a pure predicate, adding implicit triples to the raw triples loaded from RDF/XML documents. Figure 18 shows the somewhat simplified entailment module for RDF. The multifile rule registers the module as entailment module for the SeRQL system. New modules can be loaded dynamically into the platform, providing support for other SW languages or application-specific server-side reasoning. Prolog's dynamic loading and re-loading allows for updating such reasoning modules on the live server.

The SeRQL parser is a DCG-based parser translating a SeRQL query text into a

<sup>18</sup> <http://www.swi-prolog.org/packages/SeRQL>

<sup>19</sup> <http://www.openrdf.org>

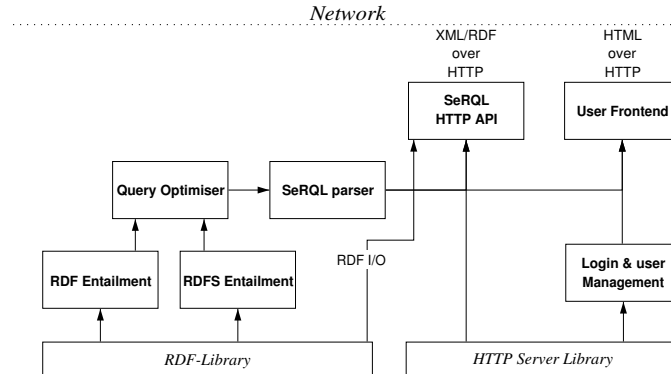


Fig. 17. Module dependencies of the SeRQL system. Arrows denote ‘imports from’ relations.

```
:- module(rdf_entailment, [rdf/3]).

rdf(S, P, 0) :-
    rdf_db:rdf(S, P, 0).
rdf(S, rdf:type, rdf:'Property') :-
    rdf_db:rdf(_, S, _),
    \+ rdf_db:rdf(S, rdf:type, rdf:'Property').
rdf(S, rdf:type, rdfs:'Resource') :-
    rdf_db:rdf_subject(S),
    \+ rdf_db:rdf(S, rdf:type, rdfs:'Resource').

:- multifile serql:entailment/2.
serql:entailment(rdf, rdf_entailment).
```

Fig. 18. RDF entailment module

compound goal calling **rdf/3** and predicates from the SeRQL runtime library which provide comparison and functions built into the SeRQL language. The resulting control-structure is passed to the query optimiser (Wielemaker 2005) which uses statistics maintained by the RDF database to reorder the pure **rdf/3** calls for best performance. The optimiser uses a generate-and-evaluate approach to find the optimal order. Considering the frequently long conjunctions of **rdf/3** calls, the conjunction is split into independent parts. Figure 19 illustrates this in a very simple example. During abstract execution, information on instantiation and types implied by the runtime library predicates is attached to the variables using dynamic attributed variables. (Demoen 2002).

HTTP access consists of two parts. The human-centred portal consists of HTML pages with forms to administer the server as well as view statistics, load and unload documents and run SeRQL queries interactively presenting the result as an HTML table. Dynamic pages are generated using the `html.write.pl` library described in section 3.1. Static pages are served from HTML files by the Prolog server. Ma-

---

```

...
rdf(Paper, author, Author),
rdf(Author, name, Name),
rdf(Author, affiliation, Affil),
...

```

Fig. 19. Split rdf conjunctions. After executing the first **rdf/3** query *Author* is bound and the two subsequent queries become independent. This is also true for other orderings, so we only need to evaluate 3 alternatives instead of 3! (6).

---

chines use HTTP POST requests to provide query data and get a reply in XML or RDF/XML.

The system knows about various RDF input and output formats. To reach modularity the kernel exchanges RDF graphs as lists of terms **rdf**(*S,P,O*) and result-tables as lists of terms using the functor **row** and arity equal to the number of columns in the table. The system calls a multifile predicate using the format identifier and data to realise the requested format. The HTML output format uses **html.write.pl**. The RDF/XML format uses **rdf.write.xml/2** described in section 4.1. Both **rdf.write.xml/2** and the other XML output format use straight calls **format/3** to write the document, where quoting values is realised by quoting primitives provided by the SGML/XML parser described in section 2. Using direct writing instead of techniques described in section 3.1 avoids potentially large intermediate datastructures and is not very complicated given the very simple structure of the documents.

### 7.1 Evaluation

The SeRQL server and the SWI-Prolog library development is too closely integrated to use it as an evaluation of the functionality provided by the Web enabling libraries. We compared our server to Sesame, written in Java. The source code of the Prolog based server is 6,700 lines, compared to 86,000 for Sesame. As both systems have very different coverage in functionality and can re-use libraries at different levels it is hard to judge these figures. Both answer trivial queries in approximately 5ms on a dual AMD 1600+ PC running Linux 2.6. On complex queries the two systems perform very differently. Sesame's forward reasoning makes it handle some RDFS queries much faster. Sesame does not contain a query optimizer which cause order-dependent and sometimes very long response times on large conjunctions.

The power of LP where programs can be handled as data is exploited by parsing the SeRQL query into a program, optimizing the program by manipulating it as data, after which we can simply call it to answer the query. The non-deterministic nature of **rdf/3** allows for a trivial translation of the query to a non-deterministic program that produces the answers on backtracking.

The server only depends on the standard SWI-Prolog distribution and there-

fore runs unmodified on all systems supporting SWI-Prolog. It has been tested on Windows, Linux and MacOS X.

All infrastructure described is used in the server. We use `format/3`, exploiting XML quoting primitives provided by the Prolog XML library to print highly repetitive XML files such as the SeRQL result-table. Alternatively we could have created the corresponding DOM term and call `xml_write/2` from the library `sgml_write.pl`.

## 8 Case study — XDIG

In section 7 we have discussed the case study how SWI-Prolog is used for a RDF query system, i.e., a meta-data management and reasoning system. In this section we describe a Prolog-powered system for ontology management and reasoning based on Description Logics (DL). DL has greatly influenced the design of the W3C ontology language OWL. The DL community, called DIG (DL Implementation Group) have developed a standard for accessing DL reasoning engines called the DIG description logic interface<sup>20</sup> (Bechhofer et al. 2003), DIG interface for short. Many DL reasoners like Racer (Haarslev and Möller 2001) and FACT (Horrocks 1999) support the DIG interface, allowing for the construction of highly portable and reusable DL components or extensions.

In this case study, we describe XDIG, an eXtended DIG Description Logic interface, which has been implemented on top of the SWI-Prolog Web libraries. The DIG interface uses an XML-based messaging protocol on top of HTTP. Clients of a DL reasoner communicate by means of HTTP POST requests. The body of the request is an XML encoded message which corresponds to the DL concept language. Where OWL is based on the triple model described in section 4, DIG statements are grounded directly in XML. Figure 20 shows a DIG statement which defines the concept *MadCow* as a cow which eats brains, part of sheep.

### 8.1 Architecture of XDIG

The XDIG libraries form a framework to build DL reasoners that have additional reasoning capabilities. XDIG serves as a regular DL reasoner via its corresponding DIG interface. An intermediate XDIG server can make systems independent from application specific characteristics. A highly decoupled infrastructure significantly improves the reusability and applicability of software components.

The general architecture of XDIG is shown in figure 21. It consists of the following components:

**XDIG Server** The XDIG server deals with requests from ontology applications. It supports our extended DIG interface, i.e., it not only supports standard DIG/DL requests, like 'tell' and 'ask', but also additional processing features like changing system settings. The library `dig_server.pl` implements the XDIG protocol on top of the Prolog HTTP server described in section 5.2. The predicate

<sup>20</sup> <http://dl.kr.org/dig/>



```

<equalc>
  <catom name='mad+cow' />
  <and>
    <catom name='cow' />
    <some>
      <ratom name='eats' />
      <and>
        <catom name='brain' />
        <some>
          <ratom name='part+of' />
          <catom name='sheep' />
        </some>
      </and>
    </some>
  </and>
</equalc>

```

Fig. 20. a DIG statement on MadCow

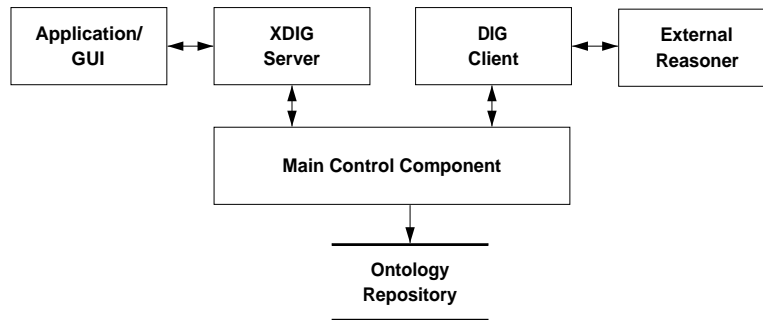


Fig. 21. Architecture of XDIG

**dig\_server**(*+Request*) is called from the HTTP server to process a client's *Request* as illustrated in figure 13. XDIG server developers have to define the predicate **my\_dig\_server\_processing**(*+Data*, *-Answer*, *+Options*), where *Data* is the parsed DIG XML requests and *Answer* is term **answer**(*-Header*, *-Reply*). *Reply* is the XML-DOM term representing the answer to the query.

**DIG Client** XDIG is designed to rely on an external DL reasoner. It implements a regular DIG interface client and calls the external DL reasoner to access the standard DL reasoning capabilities. The predicate **dig\_post**(*+Data*, *-Reply*, *+Options*) posts the data to the external DIG server. The predicates are defined in terms of the predicate **http\_post/4** and others in the HTTP and XML libraries.

**Main Control Component** The library **dig\_process.pl** provides facilities to analyse DIG statements such as finding concepts, individuals and roles, but also decide of *satisfiability* of concepts and consistency. Some of this processing is done by analysing the XML-DOM representation of DIG statements in the local repository, while satisfiability and consistency checking is achieved by accessing external DL reasoners through the DIG client module.

**Ontology Repository** The Ontology Repository serves as an internal knowledge

---

```

direct_concept_relevant(element(catom, Atts, _), Concept) :-
    memberchk(name=Concept, Atts).
direct_concept_relevant(element(_, _, Content), Concept) :-
    direct_concept_relevant(Content, Concept).
direct_concept_relevant([H|T], Concept) :-
    (   direct_concept_relevant(H, Concept)
    ;   direct_concept_relevant(T, Concept)
    ).

```

Fig. 22. `direct_concept_relevant` checks that a concept is referenced by a DIG statement

---

base (KB), which is used to store multiple ontologies locally. These ontology statements are used for further processing when the reasoner receives an ‘ask’ request. The main control component usually selects parts from the ontologies to post them to an external DL reasoner and obtain the corresponding answers. This internal KB is also used to store system settings.

As DIG statements are XML based, XDIG stores statements in the local repository using the XML-DOM representation described in section 2. The tree model of XDIG data has been proved to be convenient for DIG data management.

Figure 22 shows a piece of code from the library XDIG defining the predicate `direct_concept_relevant(+DOM, ?Concept)` which checks if a set of *Statements* is directly relevant to a *Concept*, namely the *Concept* appears in the body of a statement in the list. The predicate `direct_concept_relevant/2` has been used to develop PION for reasoning with inconsistent ontologies, and DION for inconsistent ontology debugging.

## 8.2 Application

XDIG has been used to develop several DL reasoning services. PION is a reasoning system that deals with inconsistent ontologies<sup>21</sup> (Huang and Visser 2004; Huang et al. 2005). MORE is a multi-version ontology reasoner<sup>22</sup> (Huang and Stuckenschmidt 2005). DION is a debugger of inconsistent ontologies<sup>23</sup> (Schlobach and Huang 2005). With the support of an external DL reasoner like Racer, DION can serve as an inconsistent ontology debugger using a bottom-up approach.

## 9 Case study — Faceted browser on Semantic Web database integrating multiple collections

In this case study we describe a pilot for the STITCH-project<sup>24</sup> whose main aim is

<sup>21</sup> <http://wasp.cs.vu.nl/sekt/pion>

<sup>22</sup> <http://wasp.cs.vu.nl/sekt/more>

<sup>23</sup> <http://wasp.cs.vu.nl/sekt/dion>

<sup>24</sup> <http://stitch.cs.vu.nl>

studying and finding solutions for the problem of integrating controlled vocabularies such as thesauri and classification systems in the Cultural Heritage domain. The pilot consists of the integration of two collections – the Medieval Illuminations of the Dutch National Library (Koninklijke Bibliotheek) and the Masterpieces collection from the Rijksmuseum – and development of a user interface for browsing the merged collections. One requirement within the pilot is to use “standard Semantic Web techniques” during all stages, so as to be able to evaluate their added value. An explicit research goal was to evaluate existing “ontology mapping” tools.

The problem could be split into three main tasks:

- Gathering data, i.e. records of the collections and controlled vocabularies they use, and transforming it into RDF.
- Establishing semantic links between the vocabularies using off-the-shelf ontology mapping tools.
- Building a prototype User Interface (UI) to access (search and browse) the integrated collections and experiment with different ways to access them using a Web server.

SWI-Prolog has been used in all three tasks; to illustrate the use of the SWI-Prolog Web libraries in the pilot, in the next section we focus on their application in the prototype UI because it is the largest subsystem using these libraries.

### 9.1 Multi-Faceted Browser

Multi-Faceted Browsing is a search and browse paradigm where a collection is accessed by refining multiple (preferably) structured aspects – called facets – of its elements. For the user interface and user interaction we have been influenced by the approach of Flamenco (Hearst et al. 2002). The Multi-Faceted Browser is implemented in SWI-Prolog. All data is stored in an RDF database, which can be either an external SeRQL repository or an in-memory SWI-Prolog RDF database. The system consists of three components, *RDF-interaction*, which deals with RDF-database storage and access, *HTML-code generation*, for the creation of Web pages and the *Web server* component, implementing the HTTP server. They are discussed in the following sections.

#### 9.1.1 RDF-interaction

We first describe the content of the RDF database before explaining how to access it. The RDF database contains:

- 750 records from the Rijksmuseum, and 1000 from the Koninklijke Bibliotheek.
- RDF representation of the hierarchically structured facets, we use SKOS<sup>25</sup>, a model dedicated to the representation of controlled vocabularies.

<sup>25</sup> <http://www.w3.org/2004/02/skos/>

```

SELECT Rec, RecTitle, RecThumb, CollSpec
FROM {SiteId} rdfs:label {"ARIATOPS-NONE"};
      mfs:collection-spec {CollSpec} mfs:record-type {RT};
      mfs:shorttitle-prop {TitleProp};
      mfs:thumbnail-prop {ThumbProp},
{Rec} rdf:type {RT}; TitleProp {RecTitle};
      ThumbProp {RecThumb},
{Rec} rdf:type {<http://www.telin.nl/rdf/topia#AnimalPieces>},
{Rec} rdf:type {<http://www.telin.nl/rdf/topia#Paintings>}
USING NAMESPACE skos = <http://www.w3.org/2004/02/skos/core#>,
mfs = <http://www.cs.vu.nl/STITCH/pp/mf-schema#><br>

```

Fig. 23. An example of a SeRQL query, which returns details of records matching two facet values (AnimalPieces and Paintings)

- Mappings between SKOS Concept Schemes used in the different collections.
- Portal-specific information as “*Site Configuration Objects*”, identified by URIs with properties defining what collections are part of the setup, what facets are shown, and also values for the constant text in the Web page presentation and other User Interface configuration properties. Multiple such Site Configuration Objects may be defined in a repository.

The in-memory RDF store contains, depending on the number of mappings and structured vocabularies that are stored in the database, about 300,000 RDF triples. The Sesame store contains more triples – 520,000 – as its RDFS-entailment implementation implies generation of derived triples (see section 7).

*RDF database access* Querying the RDF store for more complex results based on URL query arguments consisted of three steps: 1) building SeRQL queries from URL query arguments, 2) passing them on to the SeRQL-engine, gathering the result rows and 3) finally post-processing the output, e.g. counting elements and sorting them. Figure 23 shows an example of a generated SeRQL query. Finding matching records involves finding records annotated by the facet value or by a value that is a hierarchical descendant of facet value. We implemented this by interpreting records as instances of SKOS concepts and using the transitive and reflexive properties of the `rdfs:subClassOf` property. This explains for example `{Rec} rdf:type {<http://www.telin.nl/rdf/topia#Paintings>}` in figure 23.

The SeRQL-query interface contains timing and debugging facilities for single queries; for flexibility it provides access to an external SeRQL server<sup>26</sup> for which we used Sesame<sup>27</sup>, but also to the in-memory store of the SWI-Prolog SeRQL implementation described in section 7.

<sup>26</sup> We used the `sesame_client.pl` library that provides an interface to external SeRQL servers, packaged with the SWI-Prolog SeRQL library

<sup>27</sup> <http://www.openrdf.org>

```

objectstr([],_0,_Cols,_Args) --> [].
objectstr([RowObjects|ObjectsList], Offset, Cols, Args) -->
  { Percentage is 100/Cols },
  html(tr(valign(top),\objectstd(RowObjects, Offset, Percentage, Args))),
  { Offset1 is Offset + Cols },
  objectstr(ObjectsList, Offset1, Cols, Args).

objectstd([],_,_,_) --> [].
objectstd([Url|RowObjects], Index, Percentage, Args) -->
  {
    ..
    construct_href_index(..., HRef),
    missing_picture_txt(Url, MP)
  },
  html(td(width(Percentage),a([href(HRef)],img([src(Url),alt(MP)])))),
  { Index1 is Index + 1 },
  objectstd(RowObjects, Index1, Percentage, Args).

```

Fig. 24. Part of the html code generation for displaying all the images of a query result in an HTML table

---

### 9.1.2 HTML-code generation

We used the SWI-Prolog `html_write.pl` library described in section 3.1 for our HTML-code generation. There are three distinct kinds of Web pages the multi-faceted browser generates, the portal access page, the refinement page and the single collection-item page. The DCG approach to generating HTML code made it easy to share HTML-code generating procedures such as common headers and HTML code for refinement of choices. The HTML-code generation component contains some 140 DCG rules (1200 lines of Prolog code of which 800 lines are DCG rules), part of which are simple list-traversing rules such as the example of Figure 24.

### 9.1.3 Web Server

The Web server is implemented using the HTTP server library described in section 5.2. The Web server component itself is very small. It follows the skeleton code described in Figure 13. In our case the `reply/1` predicate extracts the URL root and parameters from the URL. The *Site Configuration Object*, which is introduced in section 9.1.1, is returned by the RDF-interaction component based on the URL root. It is passed on to the HTML-code generation component which generates Web content as shown in `reply_page/1` in Figure 3.

## 9.2 Evaluation

This case study shows that SWI-Prolog is effective for building applications in the context of the Semantic Web. In a single month a fully functional prototype portal has been created providing structured access to multiple collections. The independence of any external libraries and the full support of all libraries on different

platforms made it easy to develop and install in different operating systems. All case study software has been tested to install and run transparently both on Linux and on Microsoft Windows.

At the start of the pilot project we briefly evaluated existing environments for creating multi-faceted browsing portals: We considered the software available from the Flamenco Project (Hearst et al. 2002) and the OntoViews Semantic Portal Creation Tool (Mäkelä et al. 2004). The Flamenco software would require developing a translation from RDF to the Flamenco data representation. OntoViews heavily uses Semantic Web techniques, but the software was unnecessarily complex for our pilot, requiring a number of external libraries. This together with our need for flexible experiments with various setups made us decide to build our own prototype.

The prototype allowed us to easily experiment with and develop various interesting ways of providing users access to integrated heterogeneous collections (van Gendt et al. 2006). The pilot project portal is accessible on line for your evaluation at <http://stitch.cs.vu.nl/demo.html>.

## 10 Conclusion

We have presented an overview of the libraries and Prolog language extensions we have implemented and which we provide to the LP community as Open Source resources. As the presented libraries cover very different functionality we have compared our approach with related work throughout the document. We have demonstrated that Prolog, equipped with an HTTP server library, libraries for reading and writing markup documents, multi-threading, Unicode support, unbounded atoms and atom garbage collection, becomes a flexible component in a multi-tier server architecture. Automatic memory management and the absence of pointers and other dangerous language constructs justify the use of Prolog in security sensitive environments. The middleware, typically dealing with the application logic is the most obvious tier for exploiting Prolog. In our case studies we have seen Prolog active as storage component (section 7), middleware (section 8) and in the presentation tier (section 9).

Development in the near future is expected to concentrate on Semantic Web reasoning, such as the translation of SWRL rules to logic programs. Such translations will benefit from tabling to reach at more predictable response-times and allow for more declarative programs. We plan to add more support for OWL reasoning, possibly supporting vital relations for ontology mapping such as `owl:sameAs` in the low-level store. We also plan to add PSP/PWP-like (section 3) page-generation facilities.

## Acknowledgements

Recent development and preparing this paper was supported by the MultimediaN<sup>28</sup> project funded through the BSIK programme of the Dutch Government. Older

<sup>28</sup> [www.multimedien.nl](http://www.multimedien.nl)

projects that provided a major contribution to this research include the European projects IMAT and GRASP and the Dutch project MIA. The XDIG case-study is supported by FP6 Network of Excellence European project SEKT (IST-506826). The faceted browser case-study is funded by CATCH, a program of the Dutch Organization NWO. We acknowledge the SWI-Prolog community for feedback on the presented facilities, in particular Richard O’Keefe for his extensive feedback on SGML support.

### References

- BECHHOFFER, S., MÖLLER, R., AND CROWTHER, P. 2003. The DIG description logic interface. In *International Workshop on Description Logics (DL2003)*. Rome.
- BROEKSTRA, J., KAMPMAN, A., AND VAN HARMELEN, F. 2002. Sesame: An architecture for storing and querying rdf and rdf schema. In *Proc. First International Semantic Web Conference ISWC 2002, Sardinia, Italy*. LNCS, vol. 2342. Springer-Verlag, 54–68.
- CABEZA, D. AND HERMENEGILDO, M. V. 2003. Distributed WWW programming using (ciao-)prolog and the piLLoW library. *CoRR cs.DC/0312031*.
- DEMOEN, B. 2002. Dynamic attributes, their hProlog implementation, and a first evaluation. Report CW 350, Department of Computer Science, K.U.Leuven, Leuven, Belgium. oct. URL = <http://www.cs.kuleuven.ac.be/publicaties/rapporten/cw/CW350.abs.html>.
- DERANSART, P., ED-DBALI, A., AND CERVONI, L. 1996. *Prolog: The Standard*. Springer-Verlag, New York.
- GRAS, D. C. AND HERMENEGILDO, M. V. 2001. Distributed WWW programming using (ciao-)prolog and the piLLoW library. *TPLP 1*, 3, 251–282.
- HAARSLEV, V. AND MÖLLER, R. 2001. Description of the racer system and its applications. In *Proceedings of the International Workshop on Description Logics (DL-2001)*. Stanford, USA, 132–141.
- HEARST, M., ENGLISH, J., SINHA, R., SWEARINGEN, K., AND YEE, K. 2002. Finding the flow in web site search. *Communications of the ACM 45*, 9 (September), 42–49.
- HORROCKS, I. 1999. Fact and ifact. In *Proceedings of the International Workshop on Description Logics (DL’99)*. 133–135.
- HUANG, Z. AND STUCKENSCHMIDT, H. 2005. Reasoning with multiversion ontologies: a temporal logic approach. In *Proceedings of the 2005 International Semantic Web Conference (ISWC2005)*.
- HUANG, Z., VAN HARMELEN, F., AND TEN TEIJE, A. 2005. Reasoning with inconsistent ontologies. In *Proceedings of the International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence - IJCAI’05*.
- HUANG, Z. AND VISSER, C. 2004. Extended DIG description logic interface support for PROLOG. Deliverable D3.4.1.2, SEKT.
- LETH, L., BONNET, P., BRESSAN, S., AND THOMSEN, B. 1996. Towards ECLiPSe agents on the internet. In *Proceedings of the 1st Workshop on Logic Programming Tools for INTERNET Applications*.
- MÄKELÄ, E., HYVÖNEN, E., SAARELA, S., AND VILJANEN, K. 2004. Ontoviews - a tool for creating semantic web portals. In *International Semantic Web Conference*, S. A. McIlraith, D. Plexousakis, and F. van Harmelen, Eds. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 3298. Springer, 797–811.
- MILLER, G. 1995. WordNet: A lexical database for english. *Comm. ACM 38*, 11 (November).

- PHILIPS, L. 2000. The double metaphone search algorithm. *j-CCCUJ* 18, 6 (June), ??-??
- RAMAKRISHNAN, I. V., RAO, P., SAGONAS, K., SWIFT, T., AND WARREN, D. S. 1995. Efficient tabling mechanisms for logic programs. In *Proceedings of the 12th International Conference on Logic Programming*, L. Sterling, Ed. MIT Press, Cambridge, 697–714.
- SCHLOBACH, S. AND HUANG, Z. 2005. Inconsistent ontology diagnosis: Framework and prototype. Deliverable D3.6.1, SEKT. URL = <http://www.cs.vu.nl/~huang/sekt/sekt361.pdf>.
- SZEREDI, P., MOLNÁR, K., AND SCOTT, R. 1996. Serving Multiple HTML Clients from a Prolog Application. In *Proceedings of the 1st Workshop on Logic Programming Tools for INTERNET Applications*. JICSLP'96, Bonn. Available from <http://clement.info.umoncton.ca/~lpnet/lpnet9.html>.
- VAN GENDT, M., ISAAC, A., VAN DER MEIJ, L., AND SCHLOBACH, S. 2006. Semantic web techniques for multiple views on heterogeneous collections: a case study.
- WIELEMAKER, J. 2003. Native preemptive threads in SWI-Prolog. In *Practical Aspects of Declarative Languages*, C. Palamidessi, Ed. Springer Verlag, Berlin, Germany, 331–345. LNCS 2916.
- WIELEMAKER, J. 2005. An optimised semantic web query language implementation in prolog. In *ICLP 2005*, M. Baggielli and G. Gupta, Eds. Springer Verlag, Berlin, Germany, 128–142. LNCS 3668.
- WIELEMAKER, J., SCHREIBER, G., AND WIELINGA, B. 2003. Prolog-based infrastructure for RDF: performance and scalability. In *The Semantic Web - Proceedings ISWC'03, Sanibel Island, Florida*, D. Fensel, K. Sycara, and J. Mylopoulos, Eds. Springer Verlag, Berlin, Germany, 644–658. LNCS 2870.