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Converting One Type-Based Abstract Domain to Another

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Abstract. The specific problem that motivates this paper is how to obtain abstract descriptions of the meanings of imported predicates (such as built-ins) that can be used when analysing a module of a logic program with respect to some abstract domain. We assume that abstract descriptions of the imported predicates are available in terms of some “standard” assertions. The first task is to define an abstract domain corresponding to the assertions for a given module and express the descriptions as objects in that domain. Following that they are automatically transformed into the analysis domain of interest. We develop a method which has been applied in order to generate call and success patterns from the CiaoPP assertions for built-ins, for any given regular type-based domain. In the paper we present the method as an instance of the more general problem of mapping elements of one abstract domain to another, with as little loss in precision as possible.

1 Motivation

When performing static analysis of a logic program, the source code for some parts of it may be inaccessible for some reason (the code might be in external modules, built-in system predicates, foreign-language libraries, and so on). In order to analyse such a program accurately, abstract descriptions of the behaviour of the missing code have to be supplied, otherwise some coarse over-approximation (or sometimes under-approximation) has to be used.

It can take considerable effort to specify the properties of built-ins and library predicates over a given abstract domain, and those properties need to be specified for each domain for which the calling code is to be analysed. Our intention is to specify once and for all the properties of library predicates, using a general and expressive abstract domain of descriptions; these specifications are then converted to another abstract domain when a particular analysis is to be performed.

The following general principles of abstract domain construction [1] are applied. Given two abstract interpretations of a concrete semantics, say \( \mathcal{A}_1 \) and
\( A_2 \), with abstraction and concretisation functions \( \alpha_1, \gamma_1, \alpha_2 \) and \( \gamma_2 \) respectively, the aim is to translate descriptions in \( A_1 \) to descriptions in \( A_2 \). The best representative of an element \( a_1 \in A_1 \) in \( A_2 \) is \( \alpha_2(\gamma_1(a_1)) \). If we can implement a function equivalent to this we can just apply it to descriptions expressed using elements of \( A_1 \) to obtain descriptions in \( A_2 \). For the abstract domains that we consider, namely those based on regular types, we show that the function can be implemented by constructing the reduced product domain \( A_1 \star A_2 \), with concretisation function \( \gamma_2 \). Our method can be presented as the computation, for a given element \( a_1 \in A_1 \), of the corresponding element \( a_1 \star \in A_1 \star A_2 \), such that \( \gamma_2(a_1 \star) = \gamma_1(a_1) \), and then computing the most precise element \( a_2 \) in the domain of \( A_2 \) such that \( \gamma_2(a_1 \star) \sqsubseteq \gamma_2(a_2) \). \( a_1 \) has an exact representative in \( A_1 \star A_2 \) but we cannot in general find an exact representative of \( a_1 \star \) in \( A_2 \). In our method, \( A_1 \) is the general-purpose domain, while \( A_2 \) is a particular analysis domain.

Assertions in CiaoPP. In the CiaoPP system [2] an assertion language is provided that allows properties of predicates to be stated in a flexible, general language. The properties of built-ins and many library predicates have been expressed in this assertion language. The question addressed in this work is how to use such information in an analysis over a (new) particular abstract domain. The method described in this paper allows us to take any given assertions about a module’s imported predicates and translate them safely (and accurately) into the domain under consideration. We use domains based on regular types, realised as pre-interpretations [3], using a subset of the CiaoPP assertion language to explain the approach.

In the CiaoPP assertion language, approximations of the success set of a predicate can be specified, among many other aspects of computation. We do not enter into the notation for the assertions here; detailed examples can be seen in [2]. We can extract this information in the form of a set of abstract atoms of the form \( p(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \), for a predicate \( p/n \), where \( d_1, \ldots, d_n \) are the names of abstract term descriptions defined within the CiaoPP system.

Example 1. The success of \( \text{length}/2 \) is described by \( \{\text{length}(\text{list}, \text{int})\} \). Here \( \text{int} \) is a primitive type and \( \text{list} \) is defined by a set of regular type rules. If the analysis of interest concerns modes \( \text{ground} \) and \( \text{nong} \) (non-ground), then this description would be transformed automatically into \( \{\text{length}(\text{g}, \text{g}), \text{length}(\text{nong}, \text{g})\} \). In order to achieve this transformation we need to derive the information that a list can be either ground or non-ground, while an \( \text{int} \) is ground.

An alternative approach (currently pursued in the CiaoPP system) is to define relationships between analysis domains in advance (a type lattice) [2]. For example, the fact that arithmetic expressions are ground can be pre-defined. Once that is done, an assertion, say, that the predicate \( </2 \) succeeds with both arguments bound to arithmetic expressions can safely be translated into the modes domain as an assertion that both arguments are ground.

In contrast, the approach defined here allows arbitrary relationships to be derived automatically, for user-defined types as well as pre-defined ones. We
focus here on transforming assertions about success of predicates, but the same
approach can be followed for assertions on calls.

Related Work. The most closely related work is concerned with systematically
constructing abstract domains from other domains [1, 4]. These principles have
been applied in combining different abstractions from primitive operations in
the ASTREE analyser (see e.g [5]). We make use of the reduced product in this
paper, but domain construction is not our main aim, but rather to transfer infor-
mation from one given domain to another given domain. Although the principles
are well understood (see Section 2), we do not know of other work that applies
them systematically to this problem.

Section 2 explains the general principles behind our solution. In Section 3 we
review the kind of abstract domain that we deal with, namely, domains based
on regular types and define a general solution for such domains. In Section 4
we describe how we construct a single set of regular types from the various
different kinds of assertion in the CiaoPP assertion language, and thus define
the standard domain. Section 5 presents the procedure for mapping descriptions
in the standard domain into any given user-supplied domain based on regular
types. The soundness and precision of the procedure are established by relating
it to the general solution. Section 6 contains the results of some experiments
in transforming CiaoPP assertions into various simple mode and type domains.
Finally in Section 7 we present conclusions and future work.

2 General Characterisation of the Problem

We restrict our attention to abstract interpretations based on a Galois connec-
tion, which is given by a 4-tuple \( \langle (D, \sqsubseteq_D), (A, \sqsubseteq_A), \alpha, \gamma \rangle \) where \( (D, \sqsubseteq_D) \) and
\( (A, \sqsubseteq_A) \) are partially ordered sets, the concrete and abstract domain of inter-
pretation respectively, and \( \alpha : D \to A \) and \( \gamma : A \to D \) are adjoined functions
satisfying

\[
\forall x \in D, y \in A : (\alpha(x) \sqsubseteq_A y) \iff (x \sqsubseteq_D \gamma(y)).
\]

\( \alpha(x) \) represents the best possible description of some concrete object \( x \) in the
abstract domain \( A \), while \( \gamma(y) \) represents the most imprecise element of the
concrete domain \( D \) that is described by some abstract object \( y \).

If \( (D, \sqsubseteq_D) \) and \( (A, \sqsubseteq_A) \) are complete lattices, then the functions \( \alpha \) and \( \gamma \) determine each other; in particular we have \( \alpha(x) = \cap \{ y \mid x \sqsubseteq_D \gamma(y) \} \), where \( \cap \) is the meet operator in \( (A, \sqsubseteq_A) \).

Suppose \( \langle (D, \sqsubseteq_D), (A_1, \sqsubseteq_{A_1}), \alpha_1, \gamma_1 \rangle \) and \( \langle (D, \sqsubseteq_D), (A_2, \sqsubseteq_{A_2}), \alpha_2, \gamma_2 \rangle \) are two
abstract interpretations with same concrete domain. Then given an element \( a_1 \in
A_1 \), we can compute the best representation in \( A_2 \) of \( a_1 \) as \( \alpha_2(\gamma_1(a_1)) \).

In the applications considered in this paper, the domains are complete lattices.
We are not provided explicitly with the abstraction function \( \alpha \). Therefore, the
expression \( \alpha_2(\gamma_1(a_1)) \) mentioned above is rewritten as

\[
\alpha_2(\gamma_1(a_1)) = \cap \{ y \in A_2 \mid \gamma_1(a_1) \sqsubseteq_D \gamma_2(y) \}
\]
This expression suggests that all elements \( y \) of the set \( A_2 \) have to be enumerated, which is not practical in general. A practical algorithm for computing the required element of \( A_2 \) is obtained in the remainder of the paper, for domains that are based on pre-interpretations.

3 Analysis Domains Based on Regular Types

As shown in [3], any set of regular types (a non-deterministic finite tree automaton) over a logic program’s signature can be used to build a pre-interpretation, and hence an abstract interpretation of the program. In this section we summarise this family of abstract interpretations and some key properties.

A set of regular types is defined by a set of type symbols \( Q \), a signature \( \Sigma \), and a set of rules of the form \( f(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \rightarrow d \), where \( f/n \in \Sigma \) and \( d, d_1, \ldots, d_n \in Q \). A set of regular type definitions can be seen as a finite tree automaton (FTA). For our purposes we regard the two notions as interchangeable, and speak of the states of an FTA as “types”. (We assume that every state of an FTA is an accepting (or final) state.) Let \( \text{Term}_\Sigma \) be the set of terms constructible from the function symbols in \( \Sigma \). Given a state (type) \( d \), let \( L(d) \subseteq \text{Term}_\Sigma \) be the set of terms accepted by \( d \); that is, for all \( t \in L(d) \) there is a bottom-up derivation starting at \( t \) and ending at \( d \). We can also think of \( L(d) \) as standing for the terms of “type” \( d \). Full details of these concepts can be found in the literature [6].

It is known [6] that an arbitrary FTA can be transformed to an equivalent bottom-up deterministic FTA (or DFTA). The defining condition of a DFTA is that there are no two rules with the same left hand side. An arbitrary FTA can also be completed, meaning that it is extended so that there exists a rule \( f(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \rightarrow d \) for each choice of \( f, d_1, \ldots, d_n \). (An extra state may need to be added to the FTA.) Let \( \text{Term}_\Sigma \) be the set of terms constructible from the function symbols in \( \Sigma \). Given a state (type) \( d \), let \( L(d) \subseteq \text{Term}_\Sigma \) be the set of terms accepted by \( d \); that is, for all \( t \in L(d) \) there is a bottom-up derivation starting at \( t \) and ending at \( d \). We can also think of \( L(d) \) as standing for the terms of “type” \( d \). Full details of these concepts can be found in the literature [6].

Example 2. Let \( \Sigma = \{ [], /0, [.] /2, a/0, s/1 \} \). The following rules define a complete DFTA over \( \Sigma \):

\[
\begin{align*}
\{ [] \} & \rightarrow \text{list}, [\text{list}] \rightarrow \text{list}, [\text{nonlist}] \rightarrow \text{list}, \\
\text{list}[\text{nonlist}] & \rightarrow \text{nonlist}, [\text{nonlist}] \rightarrow \text{nonlist}, a \rightarrow \text{nonlist}, \\
s(\text{list}) & \rightarrow \text{nonlist}, s(\text{nonlist}) \rightarrow \text{nonlist}
\end{align*}
\]

The rules define two types \emph{list} and \emph{nonlist}. Each term in \( \text{Term}_\Sigma \) is accepted by one of these two. This induces a partition of \( \text{Term}_\Sigma \) into two disjoint sets, lists and non-lists. The above DFTA could be obtained by determinizing and completing the following FTA:

\[
\begin{align*}
\{ [] \} & \rightarrow \text{list}, [\text{dynamic}] \rightarrow \text{list}, [\text{dynamic}] \rightarrow \text{dynamic}, s(\text{dynamic}) \rightarrow \text{dynamic}, a \rightarrow \text{dynamic}
\end{align*}
\]

Note that the two types \emph{list} and \emph{dynamic} are not disjoint, in fact \( L(\text{list}) \subset L(\text{dynamic}) \) in this case.
Representation of States in a Determinized FTA. Let $Q$ be the set of states of an FTA. The textbook algorithm for determinization [6] constructs a DFTA whose set of states is some subset of $2^Q$, say $Q$. Let $\{d_1, \ldots, d_k\}$ be a state in $Q$. The set of terms accepted by $\{d_1, \ldots, d_k\}$ in the determinized DFTA is exactly those terms that are accepted by all of $d_1, \ldots, d_k$ in the original FTA and by no other state. This is summarised formally as follows.

Property 1. $\{d_1, \ldots, d_k\} \in Q$ iff $\{L(d_1) \cap \ldots \cap L(d_k)\} \subseteq \{Q \setminus \{d_1, \ldots, d_k\}\}$ is nonempty.

Define $\text{dettypes}(d, Q) = \{d' | d' \in Q, d \in d'\}$. Let $d \in Q$, and let $L_Q(d)$ represent the terms accepted by $d$ in the original FTA. Let $\{d_1, \ldots, d_k\} \in Q$ and let $L_Q(\{d_1, \ldots, d_k\})$ be the set of terms accepted by $\{d_1, \ldots, d_k\}$ in the corresponding DFTA. Then we have $L_Q(d) = \bigcup\{L_Q(d') | d' \in \text{dettypes}(d, Q)\}$.

Intuitively, $\text{dettypes}(d, Q)$ tells us the set of states in $Q$ into which $d$ is split during determinization. Thus, the use of sets of states from the original FTA to denote states in the DFTA gives us a convenient way of relating each state in the original FTA with the “equivalent” set of states in the corresponding DFTA.

Example 3. Let $Q = \{\text{list}, \text{dynamic}\}$ with transitions as defined in Example 2. The determination algorithm yields states $Q = \{\{\text{list}, \text{dynamic}\}, \{\text{dynamic}\}\}$ corresponding to list and nonlist respectively. Then $\text{dettypes}(\text{dynamic}, Q) = \{\{\text{list}, \text{dynamic}\}, \{\text{dynamic}\}\}$ and $\text{dettypes}(\text{list}, Q) = \{\{\text{list}, \text{dynamic}\}\}$. This shows that the type list in the original FTA corresponds to $\{\text{list}, \text{dynamic}\}$ in the DFTA, while the type dynamic is split into two disjoint types $\{\text{list}, \text{dynamic}\}$ (lists) and $\{\text{dynamic}\}$ (non-lists) in the DFTA.

Determination of the Union of Two FTAs. Let $\langle Q_1, \Sigma, \Delta_1 \rangle$ and $\langle Q_2, \Sigma, \Delta_2 \rangle$ be FTAs based on the same signature and let $\langle Q_1 \cup Q_2, \Sigma, \Delta_1 \cup \Delta_2 \rangle$ be the union of the two automata. (Note, we can assume without loss of generality that $Q_1$ and $Q_2$ are disjoint.) Determine all three automata; we will refer to the sets of states of the respective DFTAs as $Q_1$, $Q_2$ and $Q_\ast$.

3.1 Correspondence Between Pre-interpretations and DFTAs

A pre-interpretation $J$ of a signature $\Sigma$ is defined by a domain $Q_J$ and a mapping $I_J$ which maps each $n$-ary function symbol $f/n \in \Sigma$ to a function $Q_J^n \rightarrow Q_J$, denoted $f_J$.

It was shown in [3] that a complete DFTA is equivalent to a pre-interpretation of $\Sigma$. Thus when we speak of a pre-interpretation we could equally well refer to a completed DFTA and vice versa. Each rule $f(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \rightarrow d$ in the DFTA corresponds to an equation $f_J(d_1, \ldots, d_n) = d$ in the pre-interpretation $J$. The set of rules with the same function $f/n$ on the left defines the function $f_J$ onto which $f/n$ is mapped by $I_J$. The DFTA is complete, hence the function $f_J$ is total.
Example 4. The DFTA in Example 2 can be written as the pre-interpretation $J$ with domain \{list, nonlist\} and functions $[,]|, a_J, s_J$ defined by:

$$
\begin{align*}
\{[,] &= \text{list}, [\text{list}][\text{list}] = \text{list}, [\text{nonlist}][\text{list}] = \text{list}, [\text{list}][\text{nonlist}] = \text{nonlist}, \\
[\text{nonlist}][\text{nonlist}] &= \text{nonlist}, a_J = \text{nonlist}, \\
s_J(\text{list}) &= \text{nonlist}, s_J(\text{nonlist}) = \text{nonlist}
\end{align*}
$$

### 3.2 Concrete and Abstract Domains of Interpretation

We take the concrete semantic domain of a logic program to be the set of its Herbrand interpretations [7] over an extended signature containing constants corresponding to variables, thus allowing information about term instantiation to be captured [11]. Note that models based on this semantics cannot capture certain properties directly, such as definite freeness. However, the semantics provides a useful approximation of the computed answers. Let $\Sigma$ be the signature of the language of the program, consisting of a set of ranked function and predicate symbols. Let $\text{Atom}_\Sigma$ be the set of atoms of form $p(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ where $p \in \Sigma$ is an $n$-ary predicate symbol and $t_1, \ldots, t_n \in \text{Term}_\Sigma$. $\text{Atom}_\Sigma$ is often called the Herbrand base of $P$. A Herbrand interpretation of $P$ is a subset of $\text{Atom}_\Sigma$, representing the atoms interpreted as true. The lattice of Herbrand interpretations $\mathcal{D} = \langle 2^{\text{Atom}_\Sigma}, \subseteq, \cup, \cap, \emptyset, \text{Atom}_\Sigma \rangle$ is called the concrete domain.

**From a Pre-Interpretation to an Abstract Domain.** Let $J$ be a pre-interpretation of $\Sigma$ with domain $Q_J$. The set $\text{Atom}_J$ is the set of expressions $p(d_1, \ldots, d_n)$ where $p \in \Sigma$ is an $n$-ary predicate symbol and $d_1, \ldots, d_n \in Q_J$. The lattice of interpretations over $J$, $\mathcal{A}_J = \langle 2^{\text{Atom}_J}, \subseteq, \cup, \cap, \emptyset, \text{Atom}_J \rangle$ is called the abstract domain based on pre-interpretation $J$. A Galois connection between $\mathcal{A}_J$ and $\mathcal{D}$ is given by the concretisation function $\gamma_J : 2^{\text{Atom}_\Sigma} \rightarrow 2^{\text{Atom}_J}$:

$$
\gamma_J(S) = \bigcup \{ \{p(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \mid t_i \in L(d_i), 1 \leq i \leq n \} \mid p(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \in S \}.
$$

The expression $L(d_i)$ above refers to the subset of $\text{Term}_\Sigma$ accepted by $d_i$ (considered as the state of a DFTA), as mentioned above.

Although we are not concerned with the semantic function in the present work, we note that the least model $M_J[P]$ of a program $P$ for a pre-interpretation $J$ can be obtained by a fixpoint computation. $M_J[P]$ is an abstraction of the least Herbrand model $M[P]$, in the sense that $\gamma(M_J[P]) \supseteq M[P]$. So any FTA forms the basis for an abstraction of a program in which the meaning of a predicate $p$ is abstracted by a set of domain atoms over the corresponding disjoint types.

**Property 2.** Let $\mathcal{A}_J$ be the abstract domain constructed from pre-interpretation $J$. Then each element of the abstract domain represents a unique element of the concrete domain; that is, for all $S_1, S_2 \in 2^{\text{Atom}_J}$, $S_1 = S_2$ iff $\gamma_J(S_1) = \gamma_J(S_2)$. This holds because for all $d_1, d_2 \in Q_J$, $d_1 = d_2$ iff $L(d_1) \cap L(d_2) \neq \emptyset$.

**Constructing a Product Domain.** Suppose $J_1$ and $J_2$ are DFTAs obtained from FTAs $\langle Q_1, \Sigma, \Delta_1 \rangle$ and $\langle Q_2, \Sigma, \Delta_2 \rangle$ respectively.
Let \( \mathcal{A}_1 = (2^{\text{Atom}_{1}}, \subseteq, \cup, \cap, \emptyset, \text{Atom}_{1}) \) and \( \mathcal{A}_2 = (2^{\text{Atom}_{2}}, \subseteq, \cup, \cap, \emptyset, \text{Atom}_{2}) \) be the resulting abstract domains. We form a product domain \( \mathcal{A}_* = (2^{\text{Atom}_*}, \subseteq, \cup, \cap, \emptyset, \text{Atom}_*) \) where \( J_* \) is the DFTA of the union \( (Q_1 \cup Q_2, \Sigma, \Delta_1 \cup \Delta_2) \).

**Claim.** We claim that \( \mathcal{A}_* \) is the reduced cartesian product \( \mathcal{A}_1 \ast \mathcal{A}_2 \) [1].

This claim is informally justified as follows. The reduced product of \( \mathcal{A}_1 \) and \( \mathcal{A}_2 \) is defined as the result of applying a reduction operator \( \rho \) [1] to the cartesian product of domains of \( \mathcal{A}_1 \) and \( \mathcal{A}_2 \) (with elements ordered componentwise). The effect of \( \rho \), informally speaking, is to “bring to the abstract the conjunction of properties we would have in the concrete”. Let \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \) be elements of \( 2^{\text{Atom}_{1}} \) and \( 2^{\text{Atom}_{2}} \) respectively. Then \( \mathcal{A}_* \) contains a unique element \( S_* \) such that \( \gamma_1(S_1) \cap \gamma_2(S_2) = \gamma_*(S_*) \). Such an element \( S_* \) exists since the intersection of any two regular types in the original DFTAs is represented in the DFTA of the union. Thus \( \mathcal{A}_* \) is at least as precise as the cartesian product of \( \mathcal{A}_1 \) and \( \mathcal{A}_2 \). \( S_* \) is unique (for each \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \)) due to Property 2. This implies that the reduction operator [1] is the identity function when applied to the product domain.

**Lemma 1.** Let \( J_1, J_2 \) and \( J_* \) be pre-interpretations constructed as above. \( Q_1 \) is the set of states in the FTA used to derive \( J_1 \). Let \( S_* \in 2^{\text{Atom}_{1}}. \) Then the element \( S_1 \in 2^{\text{Atom}_{1}} \) defined as \( S_1 = \{p(d_1 \cap Q_1, \ldots, d_n \cap Q_1) \mid p(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \in S_* \} \) is the best approximation of \( S_* \) in the domain \( 2^{\text{Atom}_{1}}. \) That is, \( S_1 = \cap \{S'_1 \mid \gamma_*(S_1') \subseteq \gamma_1(S'_1)\}. \) (Similarly for \( S_2 \) by symmetry.)

**Proof.** The notation \( \bar{d} \) means that \( \bar{d} \) is a state in a DFTA, i.e. it is a set of states from the original FTA. First show that \( \{p(d_1 \cap Q_1, \ldots, d_n \cap Q_1) \mid p(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \in S_* \} \subseteq \cap \{S'_1 \mid \gamma_*(S_1') \subseteq \gamma_1(S'_1)\}. \) Let \( p(e_1, \ldots, e_n) \in \{p(d_1 \cap Q_1, \ldots, d_n \cap Q_1) \mid p(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \in S_* \} \) such that for \( 1 \leq i \leq n, d_i = e_i \cup f \) where \( f \cap Q_1 = \emptyset. \) Then \( \gamma_*(S_1') \) contains an element \( p(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \) such that for \( 1 \leq i \leq n, t_i \in L(e_i \cup f) \), where \( f \cap Q_1 = \emptyset \). For any element \( S'_1 \in 2^{\text{Atom}_{1}}, \) if \( p(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \in \gamma_1(S'_1) \) then \( p(e_1, \ldots, e_n) \in S'_1 \) since each \( t_i \in L(\bar{e}) \) for exactly one \( \bar{e} \subseteq Q_1 \), and that \( \bar{e} \) must be \( \bar{e}_i \). Hence \( p(e_1, \ldots, e_n) \in \cap \{S'_1 \mid \gamma_*(S_1') \subseteq \gamma_1(S'_1)\}. \)

Now show that \( \cap \{S'_1 \mid \gamma_*(S_1') \subseteq \gamma_1(S'_1)\} \subseteq \{p(d_1 \cap Q_1, \ldots, d_n \cap Q_1) \mid p(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \in S_* \}. \) Let \( p(\bar{e}_1, \ldots, \bar{e}_n) \in \cap \{S'_1 \mid \gamma_*(S_1') \subseteq \gamma_1(S'_1)\}. \) If for all \( S'_1 \in 2^{\text{Atom}_{1}}, \) such that \( \gamma_*(S_1') \subseteq \gamma_1(S'_1), p(\bar{e}_1, \ldots, \bar{e}_n) \in S'_1 \), then \( S_* \) contains at least one element \( p(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \) such that for \( 1 \leq i \leq n, d_i = e_i \cup f \) and \( f \cap Q_1 = \emptyset. \) This is because \( \gamma(e_i) \cap \gamma_*(d) = \emptyset \) for all \( d \) not of the form \( d = e \cup f \) and \( f \cap Q_1 = \emptyset. \) Hence \( p(\bar{e}_1, \ldots, \bar{e}_n) \in \{p(d_1 \cap Q_1, \ldots, d_n \cap Q_1) \mid p(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \in S_* \}. \)

**Property 3.** A product domain \( \mathcal{A}_1 \ast \mathcal{A}_2 \) can precisely represent elements of its factors \( \mathcal{A}_1 \) and \( \mathcal{A}_2. \) That is, if \( S_1 \) is an element of the domain of \( \mathcal{A}_1 \) then there exists an element \( S_* \) in the domain of \( \mathcal{A}_* \) such that \( \gamma_1(S_1) = \gamma_*(S_*). \) The element is unique by Property 2. Furthermore, \( S_1 = \{p(d_1 \cap Q_1, \ldots, d_n \cap Q_1) \mid p(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \in S_* \} \) by Lemma 1.
Example 5. Let \(Q_1, \Sigma, \Delta_1\) and \(Q_2, \Sigma, \Delta_2\) be FTAs, where \(Q_1 = \{g, \text{nong}\}\) and \(Q_2 = \{\text{list, dynamic, int}\}\), where these elements have their expected meanings. The DFTA states \(Q_1\) obtained from \(Q_1\) are \(\{\{g\}, \{\text{nong}\}\}\) and the DFTA states \(Q_2\) obtained from \(Q_2\) are \(\{\{\text{dynamic, list}\}, \{\text{dynamic, int}\}, \{\text{dynamic}\}\}\). The states \(Q_\ast\) of the DFTA obtained from the union \((Q_1 \cup Q_2, \Sigma, \Delta_1 \cup \Delta_2)\) are

\[
\{\{\text{dynamic, list, g}\}, \{\text{dynamic, list, nong}\},
\{\text{dynamic, int, g}\}, \{\text{dynamic, g}\}, \{\text{dynamic, nong}\}\}.
\]

(Note that there are fewer states in \(Q_\ast\) than in the cartesian product of \(Q_1\) and \(Q_2\).) Consider \(S_1 = \{p(\{g\}, \{g\})\} \in 2^{\text{Atom}, 1}\). Then the element \(S_\ast \in 2^{\text{Atom}, 2}\) such that \(\gamma_1(S_1) = \gamma_\ast(S_\ast)\) is

\[
\begin{align*}
p(\{\text{dynamic, list, g}\}, \{\text{dynamic, g}\}),& \hspace{1em} p(\{\text{dynamic, list, g}\}, \{\text{dynamic, int, g}\}), \\
p(\{\text{dynamic, int, g}\}, \{\text{dynamic, list, g}\}),& \hspace{1em} p(\{\text{dynamic, int, g}\}, \{\text{dynamic, int, g}\}), \\
p(\{\text{dynamic, int, g}\}, \{\text{dynamic, int, g}\}),& \hspace{1em} p(\{\text{dynamic, g}\}, \{\text{dynamic, int, g}\}), \\
p(\{\text{dynamic, g}\}, \{\text{dynamic, g}\}).
\end{align*}
\]

It contains every possible combination of arguments from the product DFTA states that intersect with \(\{g\}\).

In this case, any non-empty subset \(S'_\ast\) of \(S_\ast\) also satisfies \(S_1 = \{p(d_1 \cap Q_1, \ldots, d_n \cap Q_1) \mid p(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \in S'_\ast\}\).

3.3 Transformation from One Type Domain to Another

Now we can summarise the general method for representing an element of a domain based on regular types in another domain based on different types.

**Proposition 1.** Suppose \(J_1\) and \(J_2\) are two DFTAs (i.e. pre-interpretations) obtained from FTAs \((Q_1, \Sigma, \Delta_1)\) and \((Q_2, \Sigma, \Delta_2)\) respectively. Let \(J\) be the DFTA of the union \((Q_1 \cup Q_2, \Sigma, \Delta_1 \cup \Delta_2)\).

Given \(S_1 \in 2^{\text{Atom}, 1}\), let \(S_\ast \in 2^{\text{Atom}, 2}\) satisfy \(\gamma_1(S_1) = \gamma_\ast(S_\ast)\). Property 3 shows that this exists (though we did not yet show an explicit procedure for computing it). Then let \(S_2 = \{p(d_1 \cap Q_2, \ldots, d_n \cap Q_2) \mid p(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \in S_\ast\}\). Then \(S_2 = \alpha_2(\gamma_1(S_1))\), that is, \(S_2\) is the best representative of \(S_1\) in \(2^{\text{Atom}, 2}\).

**Proof.** \(S_2 = \cap\{S'_1 \mid \gamma_\ast(S_\ast) \subseteq \gamma(S'_1)\}\) by Lemma 1. But since we know that \(\gamma_1(S_1) = \gamma_\ast(S_\ast)\), we can write \(S_2 = \cap\{S'_1 \mid \gamma_1(S_1) \subseteq \gamma(S'_1)\}\). This is equivalent to \(S_2 = \alpha_2(\gamma_1(S_1))\) (see Section 2).

4 Construction of a Standard Abstract Domain from the CiaoPP Assertion Language

As already mentioned, a set of assertions in the CiaoPP assertion language about success of a predicate \(p/n\) can be interpreted as a set of abstract atoms of form
Converting One Type-Based Abstract Domain to Another

$p(d_1,\ldots,d_n)$ where $d_1,\ldots,d_n$ are the names of regular types defined within the CiaoPP system. Such a description is called an abstract success set. Note that the CiaoPP system itself does not present all such values $d_i$ as regular types. There are modes and primitive types as well; however, as shown below, in the context of a particular program and signature we are able to interpret all of these concepts as regular types defined by a finite set of rules. A discussion of the use of regular types to represent modes is contained in previous work [3, 8].

Having expressed all the abstract values $d_i$ as regular types, we will apply the determinization algorithm on the regular types to obtain an abstract domain, as summarised in Section 3. This will be called the standard domain for a program.

Example 6. The abstract success sets for some built-in predicates, as contained in the standard assertion database of CiaoPP, is shown in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicate</th>
<th>Success Set</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>atom_concat/2</td>
<td>{atom_concat(atm, atm, atm)}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write/2</td>
<td>{write(stream, term)}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>length/2</td>
<td>{length(list, int)}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is/2</td>
<td>{is(num, arithexpression)}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here, atm, int and num are primitive types; stream, list and arithexpr are defined by means of regular type rules, and term denotes the set of all terms.

The rules defining stream, for example, are as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{user\_input} & \rightarrow \text{stream} \\
\text{user\_output} & \rightarrow \text{stream} \\
\text{user\_error} & \rightarrow \text{stream} \\
\text{\$stream'(int, int)} & \rightarrow \text{stream}
\end{align*}
\]

We will now show how all such descriptions, including primitive types and those such as term can be defined as regular types, in the context of a given program.

4.1 Construction of the Standard FTA

Given a program $P$, we construct the standard abstract domain. It is based on a finite tree automaton $\langle Q_{\text{std}}, \Sigma_{\text{std}}, \Delta_{\text{std}} \rangle$. We now show how each of these components is made up.

The standard types $Q_{\text{std}}$. The states $Q_{\text{std}}$ consist of the following components: (1) a set of defined system types $Q_s$, defined by rule $\Delta_s$; (2) a set of primitive types $Q_{\text{prim}}$; (3) a set of contextual types $Q_{\text{cntxt}}$.

The defined system types $Q_s$ comprise types that are defined by regular type rules in the CiaoPP assertion language. Example include arithexpr and list as shown in Example 6, which are used in many predicates, and also keylist, lock_mode, io_mode, stream and stream_alias which concern only one or two library predicates. The primitive types $Q_{\text{prim}}$ include num, int, flt, neginf and atm which implicitly are defined as infinite (or very large) sets of constants, but are in practice defined by means of a characteristic predicate that is true or false for each constant. The descriptors gnd, nonvar, var, term and struct are called
contextual types since their definition depends on the particular signature. In CiaoPP these are also handled by means of a characteristic predicate, but unlike primitive types they may be true for non-constants. We define the set of standard types \( Q_{\text{std}} = Q_s \cup Q_{\text{prim}} \cup Q_{\text{cntxt}} \).

The global signature of a program \( \Sigma_{\text{std}} \). We now construct \( \Sigma_{\text{std}} \), the global signature, which consists of the following components: (1) the program signature \( \Sigma_P \); (2) the system signature \( \Sigma_s \); (3) the primitive signature \( \Sigma_{\text{prim}} \). Note that, unlike \( Q_{\text{std}} \), the global signature is dependent on the program to be analysed as well as the standard system functions and constants.

Given a program \( P \) to be analysed let \( \Sigma_P \) be the set of function symbols occurring in \( P \) and let \( \Sigma_s \) be the set of function symbols occurring in \( \Delta_s \), the rules defining \( Q_s \). The primitive signature \( \Sigma_{\text{prim}} \) is a set of constant symbols that contains sufficient constants to distinguish each of the primitive types \( Q_{\text{prim}} \). More precisely, for each non-empty subset \( D = \{d_1, \ldots, d_k\} \) of \( Q_{\text{prim}} \), let \( \Sigma_D \) be the set of constants that are of type \( d_i \) for all \( d_i \in D \), and are not of any other type. Then \( \Sigma_{\text{prim}} \) contains at least one constant from each non-empty set \( \Sigma_D \).

We also insist that \( \Sigma_{\text{prim}} \) is disjoint from \( \Sigma_P \cup \Sigma_s \). A typical set of constants in \( \Sigma_{\text{prim}} \) is \( \{0, 1, 1.0, -1, \text{'$CONST'}\} \). Thus for instance, we know that the set \( \text{nnegint} \subset \text{int} \); therefore \( \Sigma_{\text{prim}} \) should contain at least one constant that is in both \( \text{int} \) and \( \text{nnegint} \) (e.g. 1) and one which is in \( \text{int} \) but not in \( \text{nnegint} \) (e.g. \(-1\)). However, note that if \( P \) happens to contain the constants 1 or \(-1\) we must pick another member of \( \text{int} \cap \text{nnegint} \) instead of 1 or another member of \( \text{int} \setminus \text{nnegint} \) to replace \(-1\).

We define the global signature \( \Sigma_{\text{std}} = \Sigma_P \cup \Sigma_s \cup \Sigma_{\text{prim}} \cup \{\text{'$VAR'}\} \) where \( \text{'$VAR'} \) is a constant that does not appear in any other component of \( \Sigma_{\text{std}} \). We will discuss the role of \( \text{'$VAR'} \) when constructing the contextual type rules.

The global type rules \( \Delta_{\text{std}} \). The set of type rules defining the types \( Q_{\text{std}} \) over the signature \( \Sigma_{\text{std}} \) consists of the following components: (1) the system type rules \( \Delta_s \); (2) the primitive rules \( \Delta_{\text{prim}} \); (3) the contextual type rules \( \Delta_{\text{cntxt}} \).

The system type rules \( \Delta_s \) are simply extracted from the CiaoPP system. For the primitive rules we assume that the Prolog system provides some built-in predicate for testing whether a given constant is of a given primitive type. Hence given the signature \( \Sigma_{\text{std}} \) we can enumerate the set of rules \( \Delta_{\text{prim}} \) of the form \( c \rightarrow d \) where \( c \in \Sigma_{\text{std}} \setminus \{\text{'$VAR'}\} \) is a constant, \( d \in Q_{\text{prim}} \) and \( c \) is of type \( d \).

The types in \( Q_{\text{cntxt}} \) are those whose definitions depend on the signature, such as \text{gnd}. Given the global signature \( \Sigma_{\text{std}} \), then \( \Delta_{\text{cntxt}} \) is a set of rules defining each type in \( Q_{\text{cntxt}} \) in terms of \( \Sigma_{\text{std}} \). The details of the rules for \text{gnd}, \text{nonvar}, \text{var}, \text{term} and \text{struct} are as follows.

- \( f(\text{gnd}, \ldots, \text{gnd}) \rightarrow \text{gnd} \), for each \( n \)-ary function \( f \in \Sigma_{\text{std}} \setminus \{\text{'$VAR'}\} \);
- \( f(\text{term}, \ldots, \text{term}) \rightarrow \text{nonvar} \), for each \( n \)-ary function \( f \in \Sigma_{\text{std}} \setminus \{\text{'$VAR'}\} \);
- \( f(\text{term}, \ldots, \text{term}) \rightarrow \text{term} \), for each \( n \)-ary function \( f \in \Sigma_{\text{std}} \setminus \{\text{'$VAR'}\} \);
- \( f(\text{term}, \ldots, \text{term}) \rightarrow \text{struct} \), for each \( n \)-ary function \( (n > 0) \) \( f \in \Sigma_{\text{std}} \setminus \{\text{'$VAR'}\} \);
- the single rule \( \text{'$VAR'} \rightarrow \text{var} \).
Note the role of \( \$VAR \); it is a constant that appears in the type term and var but no other type. The idea is to distinguish the general type term from other types (such as gnd), by including a constant \( \$VAR \) that no other type contains, apart from var, which only contains \( \$VAR \). Thus a predicate argument that is specified as term can contain any term (since \( L(\text{term}) \supset L(d) \) for all \( d \)) including terms that are of no other type. This technique has been used to model the presence of variables in previous work applying pre-interpretations for program analysis [9–11].

**Determinization of the Standard FTA.** Having constructed the finite tree automaton \( \langle Q_{\text{std}}, \Sigma_{\text{std}}, \Delta_{\text{std}} \rangle \) we can build a pre-interpretation and hence an abstract domain, called the **standard domain**, as described in Section 3. In the DFTA obtained by determinizing \( \langle Q_{\text{std}}, \Sigma_{\text{std}}, \Delta_{\text{std}} \rangle \) the states are elements of \( 2^{Q_{\text{std}}} \). In the worst case, the set of states would be \( 2^{|Q_{\text{std}}|} - 1 \), but it turns out to be much less. The number of DFTA states is in fact 37, almost the same as the size of \( Q_{\text{std}} \). We can produce a compact representation for \( \Delta_{\text{std}} \). Then the number of transitions in the DFTA, if represented explicitly, would be very large (24,239) but we use a compact representation as discussed in [12]. The determinization procedure takes approximately 0.6 seconds. In fact the conversion procedure does not use the DFTA rules, but relies only on the set of states of the DFTA, thanks to the use of the representation of states as elements of \( 2^{Q_{\text{std}}} \).

**Representation of Abstract Success Sets in the Standard Domain.** An abstract success set obtained from the CiaoPP assertion database, such as those shown in Example 6, can be represented as an element of the standard domain. Let \( M^p \) be the abstract success set of some predicate \( p \). Let \( Q_{\text{std}} \) be the set of states in the standard DFTA. Then the representation of \( M^p \) in the standard domain is

\[
M^p_{\text{std}} = \{ p(d'_1, \ldots, d'_n) \mid p(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \in M^p, \forall i : 1 \leq i \leq n : d'_i \in \text{dettypes}(d_i, Q_{\text{std}}) \}.
\]

\( M^p_{\text{std}} \) is an exact representation of \( M^p \) as formalised by the following property.

**Property 4.** Let \( \gamma \) be the concretisation function in the standard domain. Then \( \gamma(M^p_{\text{std}}) = \{ p(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \mid p(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \in M^p, t_i \in L(d_i), 0 \leq i \leq n \} \). Here \( L(d_i) \) refers to the set of terms accepted by \( d_i \) in the standard FTA. The property follows from the definition of \( \text{dettypes} \).

**5 The User Domain and the Construction of the Product Domain**

Now we turn to the question of converting the descriptions of predicates given with respect to the states of the standard FTA into descriptions in terms of some other, user-supplied FTA. Let \( \langle Q_u, \Sigma_u, \Delta_u \rangle \) be an FTA given by the user. We assume that \( \Sigma_u \subseteq \Sigma_{\text{std}} \). (This is no loss of generality since the program \( P \) can
always to modified to contain more function symbols without affecting its intended behaviour, e.g. by adding a dummy clause containing the required function symbols.) Therefore we consider the FTA with the full signature \( \langle Q_u, \Sigma_{std}, \Delta'_u \rangle \). \( Q_u \) also contains the contextually defined type \( \text{dynamic} \) and possibly other contextual types; \( \Delta'_u \) is obtained from \( \Delta_u \) by extending the definitions of those contextual types for the full signature \( \Sigma_{std} \). We also assume that if a type appears both in \( Q_u \) and \( Q_{std} \) then it has the same meaning in both.

The intention is to analyse the given program \( P \) with respect to the preinterpretation obtained by determinizing the user-supplied FTA. The user domain for analysis is based on the DFTA obtained from \( \langle Q_u, \Sigma_{std}, \Delta'_u \rangle \) as described in Section 3.

We construct an FTA combining the standard FTA with the user-supplied FTA \( \langle Q_u, \Sigma_{std}, \Delta'_u \rangle \). The union FTA \( \langle Q_{std} \cup Q_u, \Sigma_{std}, \Delta'_u \cup \Delta_{std} \rangle \) is determinized, and the product abstract domain is the abstract domain obtained from the resulting DFTA.

### 5.1 Converting Abstract Success Sets to the User Domain

As already discussed, we are supplied with an abstract success set of each of the external predicates \( p/n \) in \( P \), as a set of atoms of form \( p(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \) where \( d_1, \ldots, d_n \in Q_{std} \). (We can safely assume a default abstraction where all arguments are of type term, if no abstraction is defined).

**Representing an abstract success set in the product domain.** Let \( p/n \) be a predicate and let its abstraction over \( Q_{std} \) be \( M_p \). Let \( Q \) be the set of states in the product DFTA that is obtained from the standard FTA and some user FTA. Then the corresponding abstract success set, defined over the set of determinized types \( Q^* \), is defined as

\[
M^*_p = \{ p(d'_1, \ldots, d'_n) \mid p(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \in M^p \land \forall i : 1 \leq i \leq n : d'_i \in \text{dettypes}(d_i, Q^*) \}.
\]

**Property 5.** Let \( \gamma \) be the concretisation function in the product domain. Then \( \gamma(M^*_p) = \{ p(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \mid p(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \in M^p, t_i \in L(d_i), 0 \leq i \leq n \} \). Here \( L(d_i) \) refers to the set of terms accepted by \( d_i \) in the standard FTA. As for Property 4 this shows that an abstract model has an exact representation in the product domain.

**Example 7.** Let the given abstract success set of \( \text{length}/2 \) be \( \{ \text{length}(\text{list}, \text{int}) \} \). Let the user FTA be the following definitions of the types \( \text{matrix} \) and \( \text{row} \) along with the rules \( f(\text{dynamic}, \ldots, \text{dynamic}) \rightarrow \text{dynamic} \) for each \( f/n \in \Sigma_{std} \).

\[
[\text{dynamic}] \rightarrow \text{row} \\
[\text{dynamic}|\text{row}] \rightarrow \text{row} \\
[\text{row}|\text{matrix}] \rightarrow \text{matrix}
\]

Then the abstract success set in the product domain includes 32 abstract atoms. An example of an atom in the set is
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The first argument represents one of the disjoint types that make up the type list in the product DFTA, and similarly the second argument is a part of the int type.

Projecting a model onto user types. The final stage is to project the model from the product domain onto the user domain. Let \( p \in E_P \) be an external predicate and let \( M^p \) be the model of \( p \) over the determinized types \( T' \). Then the projection of \( M^p \) onto the user types \( Q_u \) is defined as \( M^p_u = \{ p(d'_1 \cap Q_u, \ldots, d'_n \cap Q_u) \mid p(d'_1, \ldots, d'_n) \in M^p \} \). Note that we can ensure that each argument \( d'_i \cap Q_u \) is non-empty by including dynamic in \( Q_u \).

Example 8. Let \( M^\text{length} \) be the model of length in the product domain as in the previous example. Let \( Q_u = \{ \text{matrix}, \text{row}, \text{dynamic} \} \). Then the projection of \( M^\text{length} \) onto \( Q_u \) is

\[
\{ \text{length}(\{\text{row}, \text{dynamic}\}, \{\text{dynamic}\}),
\text{length}(\{\text{matrix}, \text{row}, \text{dynamic}\}, \{\text{dynamic}\}) \}
\]

The projected model is not expressed directly in the set of user types \( Q_u \) but rather in the disjoint types resulting from determinizing \( Q_u \). The model expressed in this form is exactly what is required for computing a model of the program \( P \) over the user types, using the approach in [3].

The projected models are safe approximations of the models over the standard types, and are the best available approximations in the user domain.

Proposition 2. Let \( P \) be a program and let \( p \) be an externally defined predicate occurring in \( P \). Let \( M^p \) be an abstraction of the success set of \( p \) over the standard types \( Q_{std} \) and let \( M^p_{std} \) be the exact representation of \( M^p \) in the standard domain. Let \( M^p_u \) be the projection onto the user types \( Q_u \). Then \( M^p_u = \alpha_u(\gamma_{std}(M^p_{std})) \), which is the best available safe approximation of \( M^p_{std} \) in the user domain.

Proof. This is a direct consequence of Proposition 1 and Property 5.

6 Implementation and Experiments

We have implemented the procedure in Ciao-Prolog and used it to compute built-in tables for a range of built-ins over simple domains, such as the Pos domain and the default domain used with the binding time analysis tool for the Logen system [8].

Note that the results obtained are not always the best possible for a given domain. This is due to two main causes. Firstly, the assertion database of CiaoPP is not yet complete. Secondly, even where values have been entered they do not always capture dependencies between arguments. For example, for the list append.
Table 1. Standard Abstract Models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicate</th>
<th>Standard model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>is/2</td>
<td>is(num, arithexpression)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>number/1</td>
<td>number(num)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>member/2</td>
<td>member(term, str)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>length/2</td>
<td>length(list, int)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=../2</td>
<td>=..(term, list)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write/1</td>
<td>write(stream, term)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atom_concat/3</td>
<td>atom_concat(atm, atm, atm)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The abstract model for the given abstraction might be \( \{ \text{app}(\text{list}, \text{list}) \} \). Since a list can be either ground or non-ground, we cannot derive an accurate description of \( \text{app} \) over the Pos domain from the given information. The optimal result would be \( \{ \text{app}(\text{g}, \text{g}), \text{app}(\text{g}, \text{nong}, \text{nong}), \text{app}(\text{nong}, \text{g}, \text{nong}), \text{app}(\text{nong}, \text{nong}, \text{nong}) \} \), but our procedure will return the most general model having all eight possible combinations of \( g, \text{nong} \) arguments.

We show in Table 1 the abstract models of certain predicates extracted from the CiaoPP database. Table 2 shows the derived models over the FTA defining the types \textit{dynamic} and \textit{static} (which denote the same as \textit{gnd} and \textit{term} in the standard models, but are the names used in the binding time analysis of LOGEN). The DFTA has two states \( \{ \{ \text{dynamic}, \text{static} \}, \{ \text{dynamic} \} \} \) denoting ground and non-ground terms respectively. An underscore stands for either state. This domain is equivalent to Pos [13] but the models derived in Table 2 are not the best possible within the domain, though they are optimal with respect to the given standard models. Table 3 shows the derived models over the FTA defining the types \textit{dynamic} and \textit{var}. The corresponding DFTA contains states \( \{ \{ \text{dynamic}, \text{var} \}, \{ \text{dynamic} \} \} \) denoting variable and non-variable terms respectively.

Regarding performance and scalability, we remark that so far we handle the full set of types from the CiaoPP database without problems, using a Prolog implementation. The conversion is performed off-line, not during analysis, so

Table 2. Models over \{\text{dynamic}, \text{static}\} (ground) and \{\text{dynamic}\} (non-ground)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicate</th>
<th>Abstract model for types {\text{dynamic, static}}</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>is/2</td>
<td>is({dynamic, static}, {dynamic, static})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>number/1</td>
<td>number({dynamic, static})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>member/2</td>
<td>member(_)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>length/2</td>
<td>length({dynamic}, {dynamic, static})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=../2</td>
<td>=..(_)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write/1</td>
<td>write({dynamic, static}, {dynamic})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atom_concat/3</td>
<td>atom_concat({dynamic, static}, {dynamic, static}, {dynamic, static})</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Models over \{dynamic, var\} (var) and \{dynamic\} (non-var)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicate</th>
<th>Abstract model for types {dynamic, var}</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>is/2</code></td>
<td><code>is(\{dynamic\}, \{dynamic\})</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>number/1</code></td>
<td><code>number(\{dynamic\})</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>member/2</code></td>
<td><code>member(\{dynamic\})</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>length/2</code></td>
<td><code>length(\{dynamic\}, \{dynamic\})</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>=../2</code></td>
<td><code>=..(\{dynamic\})</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>write/1</code></td>
<td><code>write(\{dynamic\}, \{dynamic, var\})</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>atom\_concat/3</code></td>
<td><code>atom\_concat(\{dynamic\}, \{dynamic\}, \{dynamic\})</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

absolute time is not critical. However, so far the target user domains have been small. The efficient determinization algorithm described in [12] performs well and we do not anticipate problems moving to larger domains. Scalability issues do arise in representing the models themselves, in domains based on DFTAs with a large number of states. Compact representations of relations using techniques such as BDDs [14, 15] seem to be promising approaches to this problem, and we have already made use of BDDs in handling DFTAs [12].

7 Conclusions and Future Work

We have described a method for translating abstract descriptions of success sets of predicates from a general purpose assertion language, the CiaoPP assertion language, into any regular type-based abstract domain. Current work is directed towards automatic translation of the assertions for all standard library predicates into commonly used domains. Effort also needs to be put into completing and making more precise the existing assertions on predicates. We have described the method applied to success set descriptions, but the method applies to call patterns, or backwards analyses, provided that the abstract domain is based on regular types.

We believe that this work also underlines the generality and versatility of regular types for constructing analysis domains. The fact that special purpose, program specific domains can be constructed easily makes it all the more relevant to be able to render information about imported code in such domains, as this work does. Future work will continue to explore the potential of regular type domains and combine them with other domains such as numeric domains.

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