COMP353 Databases

Logical Query Languages: Datalog

Logical Query Languages (Section 5.3)

- Motivation
 - Logical if-then rules extend rather "naturally" and easily to recursive queries; Relational algebra doesn't!
 - · Recursion is considered in SQL3
 - Logical rules (Datalog) form a basis for development of many concepts and techniques in database and knowledge base systems, with many applications such as data integration

Datalog

AlongMovie(Title, Year) ← movie(Title, Year, Length, Type), Length >= 100.

- The head the left hand side of the arrow/implication
- The body the right hand side is a conjunction (AND) of predicates (called subgoals)
- NOTE: The book uses AND in the rule bodies instead of commas. AlongMovie(Title, Year) ← movie(Title, Year, Length, Type) AND Length >= 100.
- The **head** is a positive predicate (atom) and the subgoals in the rule body are Atoms
- Atom a formula of the form $p(T_1,...,T_n)$, where **p** is a predicate and T_i 's are *terms* ■ Predicate – **normal** (ordinary) relation name (e.g., movie, p) or

 - built-in predicates (e.g., >= in the above example)
 Terms (arguments) In Datalog, T₁ is either a variable or a constant
 - Subgoals in the rule body may be "negated" using NOT

Datalog

longMovie(Title, Year) ← movie(Title, Year, Length, Type), Length >= 100.

- A variable in a rule body is called *local* if it appears only in the rule body, e.g., Length and Type
- The head is "true" if there are values for local variables that make every subgoal (in the rule
- If the body includes no negation, then the rule can be viewed as a join of relations in the rule body followed by a projection on the head variable(s)

Datalog

 $longMovie(Title, Year) \leftarrow movie(Title, Year, Length, Type), Length >= 100.$

This rule may be expressed in RA as:

 $\rho_{\text{longMovie}}(\pi_{\text{Title,Year}}(\sigma_{\text{Length} \geq 100}(\text{movie})))$

Variable-Based Interpretations of Rules

- In principle, given the rule
- r: H ← B1,...,Bk.
 - we consider all possible assignments \mathcal{I} of values (constants in the domain) to the variables in the rule.
- Such assignments \mathcal{I} are called interpretations.
- For every interpretation \mathcal{I} of the rule, if the body is true under \mathcal{I} , we add to the head relation, the tuple defined by H under \mathcal{I} . (we only consider ground interpretations/substitutions).
 - That is, if I(Bi) is true, ∀ i ∈ {1,...,k}, then I(H) is true.
 - In this case, we say that "I satisfies r" or "I is a model for r", (this is denoted as $I \models r$)

Example

 $s(X, Y) \leftarrow r(X, Z), r(Z, Y), NOT r(X, Y).$

Instance r:

Α	В
1	2
2	3

The only assignments that make the first subgoal true are:

1.
$$I_1: X \to 1, Z \to 2$$

2. $I_2: X \to 2, Z \to 3$.

In case (1),

Instance s: A B

- $Y \rightarrow 3$ makes the second subgoal r(Z,Y) true
- Since (1, 3) ∉ r, then "NOT r(X,Y)" is also true
- Thus, we infer tuple (1, 3) for the head relation, s
- - No value of "Y" makes the second subgoal true

Tuple-Based Interpretations of Rules

- Consider tuple variables for each positive normal subgoals that range over their relations
 - For each assignment of tuples to each of these subgoals, we determine the implied assignment $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ of values to variables
 - If the assignment I is:
 - · consistent and also
 - satisfies all the subgoals (normal and built-ins) in the body then we add to the head relation, the tuple defined by the head H under I

Example

 $s(X, Y) \leftarrow r(X, Z), r(Z, Y), NOT r(X, Y).$

Instance r:

- Have 4 assignments of tuples to subgoals:
- r(X,Z) r(Z,Y)(1, 2) (1, 2)
- 2. (1, 2) (2, 3) (2, 3)(1, 2)
- Instance s:
- A B
- (2, 3)(2, 3)
- Only the second assignment is consistent for the value assigned to Z and satisfies the negative subgoal "NOT r(X,Y)"
 - \rightarrow (1,3) is the only tuple we get for s

Datalog Programs

- A datalog program is a finite collection of rules
- Note: while standard datalog does not allow negation, in our presentation here, the programs and rules are actually in datalog extended with negation and built-in predicates.
- Predicates/relations can be divided into two classes
 - EDB Predicates (input relations), also called FACTS
 - · Extensional database = relations stored explicitly in DB
 - IDB Predicates (derived/output relations), defined by rule(s)
 - · Intensional database
 - · They are similar to views in relational databases
- Note: EDB predicates appear only in the rule body and IDBs appear in the head and possibly in the body

Operations in Datalog

- The usual set operations
- Consider relation schemas r(X,Y) and s(X,Y)
 - Intersection
 - RA: Q=ros
 - Datalog: $q(X,Y) \leftarrow r(X,Y)$, s(X,Y).
 - Union
 - RA: Q = rus
 - Datalog: the following two rules:
 - 1. $q(X,Y) \leftarrow r(X,Y)$.
 - 2. $q(X,Y) \leftarrow s(X,Y)$. Difference
 - RA: Q=r-s
 - Datalog: $q(X,Y) \leftarrow r(X,Y)$, **NOT** s(X,Y).

Operations in Datalog

- Projection operation
 - RA: p = π_x(r)
 - Datalog: p(X) ← r(X,Y).

Operations in Datalog

- Selection operation
 - RA: $s = \sigma_{x>10 \text{ AND } y=5}(r)$
 - Datalog: s(X,Y) ← r(X,Y), X >10, Y = 5.

Operations in Datalog

- Selection operation. Recall the schema of r(X,Y).
 - RA: $s = \sigma_{x>10 \text{ OR } y=5}(r)$
 - · Datalog: the following two rules:
 - 1. $s(X, Y) \leftarrow r(X, Y), X > 10$.
 - 2. s(X, Y) ← r(X, Y), Y = 5.

Note: the following Datalog program is equivalent to the above.

- s(A,B) ← r(A,B), A>10.
- 2. s(C,D) ← r(C,D), D = 5.

Operations in Datalog

- Cartesian Product operation
- Consider relation schemas r(A, B) and s(C, D)
 - RA: Q=rxs
 - Datalog: $q(X, Y, Z, W) \leftarrow r(X,Y), s(Z,W)$.

Operations in Datalog

- Join operation
 - Theta-join with an AND condition, e.g., "c₁ AND c₂"
 - $tj1 = r \triangleright \triangleleft_{x > z \text{ AND } y < w} s$
 - Datalog: $tj1(X, Y, Z, W) \leftarrow r(X,Y), s(Z,W), X > Z, Y < W.$
 - Theta-join with an OR condition, e.g., "c₁ OR c₂"
 - RA: tj2 = r ⊳⊲_{x>zor y<w}s
 - Datalog: the following two rules:

 $tj2(X,\,Y,\,Z,\,W) \leftarrow r(X,Y),\,s(Z,\,W),\,X \geq Z.$ $tj2(X, Y, Z, W) \leftarrow r(X,Y), s(Z,W), Y < W.$

Operations in Datalog

- Join operation
 - Equi-join
 - RA: ej3 = $r \triangleright \triangleleft_{Y=Z} S$
 - Datalog: $ej3(X,Y,Z,W) \leftarrow r(X,Y), s(Z,W), Y = Z.$ OR even better (simpler): ej3(X,Y,Y,W) \leftarrow r(X,Y), s(Y,W).

Join operation Natural join

- RA: nj4 = r ⊳⊲s

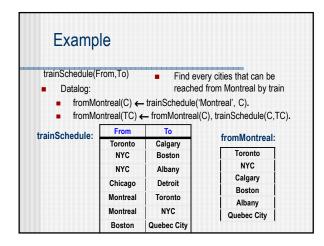
Operations in Datalog

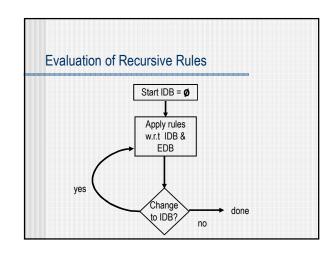
• Datalog: $nj4(X,Y,W) \leftarrow r(X,Y), s(Y,W)$.

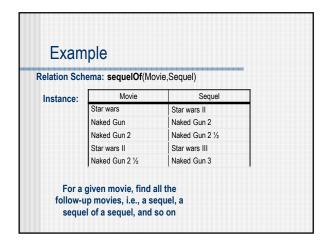
Example: Datalog Queries/Programs ■ Database schema: movie (Title, Year, Length, FilmType, StudioName) starstn(Title, Year, StarName) ■ Query: Find the names of stars of movies that are at least 100 minutes long ■ Relational Algebra Expression: Q = π_stantame (σnamph_atot (movie) ▷ < starsIn) ■ Datalog program: r1(Title, Year, Length, Type, Studio) ← movie(Title, Year, Length, Type, Studio), Length >= 100. r2(Title, Year, Length, Type, Studio, Name) ← r1(Title, Year, Length, Type, Studio, StarsIn(Title, Year, Name). q(Name) ← r2(Title, Year, Length, Type, Studio, Name). As in RA case, we could express this query using just one rule, as follows: q(Name) ← movie(Title, Year, Length, Type, Studio), Length >= 100, starsIn(Title, Year, Name).

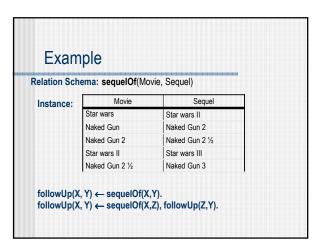
Expressive Power of Datalog

- Relational algebra = Nonrecursive Datalog+ negation
- Datalog can express SQL SELECT-FROM-WHERE statements that do not use aggregation and/or grouping
- The SQL-99 standard supports recursion but it is not part of the "core" SQL-99 standard that every DBMS should support
- Some DBMS implementations, e.g. DB2, support linear recursion









Recursion

- Let P be any datalog program
- We say an IDB predicate **r** in P *depends on* predicate s if there is a rule in P with r as the head and s as a subgoal in the rule body
- Construct the (dependency) graph of P:
 - Nodes -- IDB predicates in P
 - Arcs -- an arc from node r to s if r depends on s
 - Label the arc with '¬' for negated subgoals
- P is recursive iff its dependency graph has a cycle

Example $followUp(X, Y) \leftarrow sequelOf(X, Y)$. $followUp(X, Y) \leftarrow sequelOf(X, Z), followUp(Z, Y).$

Safety

- It is possible to write a rule that makes "no sense".
- Example of such rules:

 - $s(X) \leftarrow r(Y).$ $s(X) \leftarrow NOT r(X).$
 - $s(X) \leftarrow r(Y), X < Y$.
- In each of these rules, the IDB relation **s** (output relation) could be infinite, even if (the input) relation r is finite
- Such rules are said to be not safe

Safety

- For a rule to be safe, the following conditions must hold:
 - If a variable X appears in the rule head, then X must appear in an "ordinary" predicate in the body or be equal to such a variable (directly or indirectly), e.g., X=Y, and Y appears in an ordinary predicate in the rule body.

Recall: the predicates could be ordinary or built-in.