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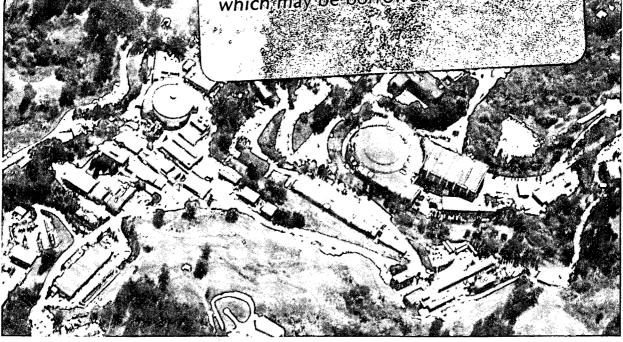
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A. Segev and A. Shoshani

March 1987

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LOGICAL MODELING OF TEMPORAL DATA

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March, 1987

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LOGICAL MODELING OF TEMPORAL DATA

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Abstract

In this paper we examine the semantics and develop constructs for temporal data independent of any traditional data model, such as the relational or network data models. Unlike many other works which extend existing models to support temporal data, our purpose is to characterize the properties of temporal data and operators over them without being influenced by traditional models which were not specifically designed to model temporal data. We develop data constructs that represent sequences of temporal values, identify their semantic properties, and define operations over these structures.

1. INTRODUCTION

Our approach to modeling temporal information is to start with the understanding and specification of the semantics of temporal data independent of any specific logical data model (such as the relational model, the entity-relationship model, the CODASYL network model, etc.) We differ from many other works whose starting point is a given model which is extended to support temporal data. Examples of works that extend the relational model are [Ariav et al 84, Clifford & Tansel 85. Gadia 86. Lum et al 84], and examples of works that extend the Entity-Relationship model are [Klopproge 81, Adiba & Quang 86]. We believe that our approach leads to precise characterization of the properties of temporal data and operators over them without being influenced by traditional models which were not specifically designed to model temporal data. Once such characterization is achieved, we can attempt to represent these structures and operations in specific logical models. Typically, this will require extensions or changes of the logical models; or perhaps will point out that some models are inadequate for temporal modeling.

Our initial motivation for temporal data comes from applications in scientific and statistical databases (SSDBs), where physical experiments, measurements, simulations, and collected statistics are usually in the time domain. Unlike many business applications that deal only with current data. SSDB applications are inherently time dependent, and in most cases the concept of a "current version" does not even exist. However, it is obvious that in business applications, temporal data is also essential. Many business applications keep a complete history of transactions over the database. This is quite obvious in most business applications, such as banking, sales, inventory control, and reservation systems. Furthermore, often this history needs to be statistically analyzed for decision making purposes. Other applications where the time domain is inherent include engineering databases, econometrics, surveys, policy analysis, music, etc.

We do not attempt to model temporal "cause and effect" events (e.g. send a paper to a referee, if the referee does not respond within a month, send a reminder letter), as described in [Studer 86]. We are mainly interested in capturing the semantics of ordered sequences of data values in the time domain, as well as operators over them. Consequently, we define the concept of a Time Sequence (TS), which is basically the sequence of values in the time domain for a single entity instance, such as the salary history of an individual or the measurements taken by a particular detector in an experiment. We define the properties of the TSs, such as their type (continuous, discrete, etc.), their time granularity (minutes, hours, etc.), their life span, and other.

The association of these properties to the TSs allow us the treatment of such sequences in a uniform fashion. First, we can define the same operators for TSs of different types, such as to select parts of a TS or to aggregate over its values. Furthermore, we can define operators between TSs of different types, such as multiplying a discrete TS with a continuous TS. Second, we can design the same physical structures for different types of TSs. We can also take advantage of some of the properties for designing more efficient storage and access of temporal data.

In a recent paper [Shoshani & Kawagoe 86], we have described the Time Sequence framework, with

preliminary ideas on operators aver TSs, and on physical organization for TSs. Another paper [Rotem & Segev 87] describes the design of a physical database structure for TSs. In this paper we are concerned with the precise specification of TSs, collections of TSs, and operators over them. This paper is an extension of an earlier version [Segev & Shoshani 86].

In section 2, we present our view of temporal semantics starting with the basic notion of a temporal value, and leading to constructs representing collections of TSs. In section 3, we give precise definitions of the temporal constructs for a time sequence (TS), and a time sequence collection (TSC). We need these constructs in order to define precisely the operators over them. In section 4, we describe the general structure and properties of such operators, and define their syntax. In section 5, we discuss the requirements that would have to be added to the relational model in order to accommodate the temporal data model developed here. Section 6 contains a summary and planned future work.

2. TEMPORAL SEMANTICS

In this section we describe the semantic properties of temporal data and the intuition for the data constructs we have chosen. In the next section we define precisely these constructs.

2.1. Time sequences

In order to capture the semantics of temporal data, we start with some basic concepts. A temporal data value is defined for some object (e.g., a person), at a certain time point (e.g., March, 1986), for some attribute of that object (e.g., salary). Thus, a temporal data value is a triplet $\langle s, t, a \rangle$, where s is the surrogate for the object, t is the time, and a is the attribute value. Note that for a non-temporal data value t is considered the "current" value, and therefore omitted.

An important semantic feature of temporal data is that for a given surrogate the temporal data values are totally ordered in time; that is they form an ordered sequence. For example, the salary history of John forms an ordered sequence in the time domain. We call such a sequence a time sequence (TS). TSs are basic structures that can be addressed in two ways. Operators over them can be expressed not only in terms of the values (such as "salary greater than 30K"), but also in terms of temporal properties of the sequence (such as "the salary for the last 10 months", or the "revenues for every Saturday"). The results of such operators is also a TS whose elements are the temporal values that qualified.

Since all the temporal values in a TS have the same surrogate value, they can be represented as $\langle s, (t,a)^{\circ} \rangle$, that is a sequence of pairs (t,a) for a given surrogate. It is convenient to view TSs graphically as shown in Figure 1. Imagine that Figure 1a shows a daily balance of a checking account. Note that in this case the pairs in the TS have the values (1,10), (6,3),

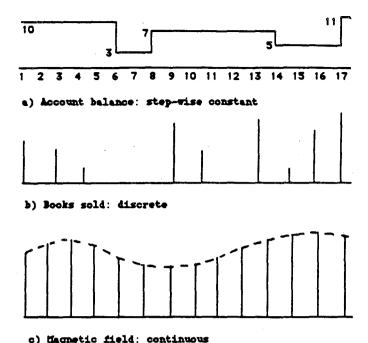


Figure 1: Example of time sequences

(8,7), (14,5), (17,11), but that these values extend to other time points of the sequence as shown. We label such behavior of the TS "step-wise constant". In contrast, Figure 1b shows a TS of the number of copies sold per day for a particular book. Here the temporal values apply only to the days they are specified for. We call this property of the TS "discrete". A further example is shown in Figure 1c which represents measurements of a magnetic field by a particular detector taken at regular intervals (say, every second). In this case, one can interpret the TS as being "continuous" in the sense that values in between the measured points can be interpolated if need be.

These examples illustrate that while a TS is defined structurally as an ordered sequence of temporal values, its semantic behavior can differ according to the application involved. In the next section, we define precisely TSs and their semantic properties. Such a definition will permit us to treat TSs uniformly when defining operations among them. In addition, one can design the same physical structures for TSs that have different semantic properties, such as continuous or discrete. Physical structures for TSs were discussed in a recent paper [Rotem & Segev 87].

2.2. Time sequence collections

It is natural and useful to consider the collection of TSs for the objects that belong to the same class (or type). For example, consider the collection of TSs that represent the salary histories for all the employees in the database. We refer to such a collection as the time sequence collection (TSC). The usefulness of the TSC structure stems from the ability to address the temporal attributes of an entire class, and relate them to other (possibly non-temporal) attributes of the class. For example, we may be interested in the salary history

of employees in the computer department for the last 6 months. Such operations over TSCs are discussed in the Section 4.

Since our purpose here is to model temporal semantics, we choose to stay away from modeling concepts of any specific data model, such as relations, entities, relationships, record types, sets, etc. Rather, we prefer the concept of a class of objects and the representation of TSs for them. A TSC will then be used as the construct to represent the temporal values associated with a class. Our approach is to first define the structure and properties of TSCs as well as operations over them, and then find a mapping to any specific data model that we may choose (relational, Entity-relationship, etc.) Next, we describe classes more precisely. The concepts below have appeared in several forms in the literature. We adopt them here because they are convenient for describing TSCs.

2.3. Classes

A class is any collection of objects that have the same attributes (such as a person, a department, or a detector.) Every object of a class has a unique identifier, called a surrogate. A composite class is a class whose identifier requires more than a single surrogate. For example, "attendance" is a class whose identifier is "student, course". In general, a composite class can be defined by using the identifiers of other classes or other composite classes. For example, suppose that a course can be taught by several professors, then an "assignment" class can be defined from the composite class "attendance" and the class "professor". A composite class can be thought of as a result of the "aggregation" construct discussed in [Smith & Smith 77]. For our purposes, this definition of a class is sufficient. Classes with similar properties will result from the "generalization" construct described in [Smith & Smith 77].

Note that composite classes as described above are constructs that are quite general. For example, in the Entity-Relationship (ER) model entities usually correspond to simple classes, and relationships to composite classes. However, in the ER model one cannot define new relationships using existing relationships, while composite classes can be defined using other composite classes. A CODASYL network model is even more restrictive; not only that sets cannot be used to define further sets or record types, but sets cannot have their own attributes as is the case in relationships of the ER model. Composite classes have no such restrictions. In the relational model one can define relations with composite keys, but the model carries no explicit information that the keys came from other relations. Next, we discuss TSCs as the constructs that describe the temporal properties of classes.

2.4. Simple TSCs

We start with a simple TSC, which is defined for a simple class (i.e a class with a single surrogate as its identifier), and a single temporal attribute. A simple TSC can be described as a triple (S, T, 4) where S, T,

and A are the surrogate, time, and attribute domains, respectively. A simple TSC can thus be viewed as the collection of all the temporal values of a single attribute for all the surrogates of a simple class. It is convenient to think of a simple TSC in a two-dimensional space as shown in Figure 2.

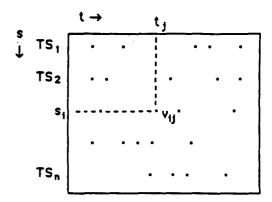


Figure 2: A two-dimensional representation of a time sequence collection

In this representation, each row corresponds to a TS for a particular surrogate. The dots represent points where temporal values exist. In the next two sections we describe the semantics of simple TSCs and operations over them.

We note here that non-temporal values can be represented as a special case of the TSC. A non-temporal attribute has a single time point (usually "current time"), and therefore its TSC will be reduced to a single column structure. This observation is useful later for operations that involve both temporal and non-temporal data.

Complex TSCs are TSCs whose components S, T, and A do not represent a single element. We discuss each in turn.

The case that S is not a single element corresponds to a composite class. We denote this case as $(\overline{S}, T.A)$. This case can also be visualized as a two-dimensional structure, where the rows are labeled with the composite surrogate identifier of the class. This structure is useful in representing the temporal behavior of relationships and their attributes. For example, suppose that people are assigned to different projects over time. The history of such a relationship can be represented as ((S.S), T.A), where (S.S) corresponds to (people, projects), and A corresponds to a binary assignment attribute (which can be represented as the values 0 and 1, for example).

The case that T is not a single element corresponds to a situation where temporal values have more than one time sequence associated with them. Such situations were discussed in length in [Snodgrass & Ahn 85], where the distinction is made between "transaction time" and "valid time". Transaction time

is the time that an action is recorded, and valid time is the time that the action takes effect (e.g. a salary raise recorded in March, but it is effective in January). Other authors called such times as "logical" and "physical" times. We denote this case as (S, \overline{T}, A) . This case requires the support of a single TSC with multiple time lines.

The case that A is not a single element occurs when several attributes occur (or are measured) at precisely the same time points. For example, when collecting air pollution samples at regular intervals, several measurements are taken, such as carbon monoxide, nitrogen compounds, etc. We denote this case as (S.T.A). In addition to the semantic information that these attributes occur together in the time domain, this case also provides a concise way of representing together several TSCs that have the same temporal behavior. An important special case is in representing non-temporal data as the degenerate TSC (S.A), where all the non-temporal attributes can be treated together in a single TSC.

Obviously, any combination of the above three cases can exist simultaneously. To simplify our discussion here, we only describe the constructs (section 3) for simple TSCs. However, the operators (section 4) are defined for TSCs with multiple attributes (S,T,\overline{A}) . Future work will address other extensions for complex TSCs.

3. CONSTRUCTS FOR TEMPORAL DATA

In this section, we define the basic constructs of the temporal data model (TDM). These constructs can be processed by the data manipulation operators presented in the next section. In Section 2 we defined a temporal value as a triplet $\langle s.t.a \rangle$, and a time sequence TS as an object $\langle s.(t.a)^* \rangle$ consisting of a time-ordered set of temporal values for a single surrogate instance.

We distinguish between the time points and the data points of a TS. The time points of a TS are all the potential points in time that can assume data values. In contrast, the data points of a TS are only the points that actually have data values associated with them. For example, suppose that the salary of an individual can change during any month of a certain year, but actual changes took place in April and October. Then, only these two months are called the data points of that TS. Since each of the months could potentially have a value, we refer to them as the time points of the TS. In general, the data points of a TS are a subset of the time points. Next, we define the properties of a TS.

Time Granularity

This property specifies the granularity of the time points (t) of a TS, i.e. the points in time that can potentially have data values. We allow for two time granularity representations - ordinal and calendar. The ordinal representation simply signifies that the

potential time points are counted by integer ordinal position (1,2,3,...). The calendar representation can assume the usual calendar time hierarchy values: year, month, day, ..., second, etc.

Life Span

Each TS has a life span associated with it. The life span is specified by a start_point and an end_point defining the range of valid time points of the TS. The start-times and end-times are also represented as ordinal or calendar. Usually, the time granularity and the life span have the same representation, i.e. they are both ordinal or both calendar. However, this is not a requirement. For example, an experiment may produce a TS of measurements taken every second. Suppose that the start and end times of the experiment are not important. Thus, this TS has a calendar granularity of a second, and an ordinal life span.

We are interested in three cases of a life span:

- a) start_point and end_point are fixed.
- b) start_point is fixed and end_point is current_time.
- c) a fixed distance is defined between the start_point and the end_point. The end_point is "current_time" and the start_point is dynamically changed to maintain the fixed distance from the end_point.

In general, the life span can consist of disjoint non-continuous segments. However, this feature can be represented explicitly in the TS by using "null" data values. A time point with a null value has the meaning that a data value does not exist for this time point. Using null data values can simplify the processing of TS, since it is not necessary to check the legal segments of the life span. Thus, we prefer the use of null values rather than defining multiple segments in the life span.

Regularity

A regular TS contains a value for each time point in the life span interval. Thus, the data points of a regular TS are the same as the time points of that TS. An irregular TS contains values for only a subset of the time points within the life span interval.

While the specification of this property is quite useful for the design of physical structures, it has semantic value as well. It is important for a user to know whether a data value can be expected for every time point of the TS. Also, most time series analysis methods can only be applied to regular TSs.

Type

The type of a TS determines the data values of the TS for time points that do not have explicit data values. In general, there is an interpolation function associated with each TS. Some of the interpolation functions are very common, and therefore are given specific type names below.

We are interested in the following types of time sequences:

- a) Step-wise constant: if (t_i, a_i) and (t_k, a_k) are two consecutive pairs in TS such that $t_i < t_k$, then $a_i = a_i$ for $t_i \le t_j < t_k$.
- b) Continuous: a continuous function is assumed between (t_i, a_i) and (t_k, a_k) which assigns a_j to t_j $(t_i \le t_i \le t_k)$ based on a curve fitting function.
- c) Discrete: each value (a_i) in TS is not related to other values. Consequently, missing values cannot be interpolated.
- d) User defined type: missing values in TS can be computed based on user defined interpolation functions.

It should be noted that the type property may apply to both a regular and irregular TS. For example, a type step-wise constant for a regular TS means that the associated interpolation rule applies to all granularities smaller than or equal to the granularity of the TS; this is true for all continuous types of which step-wise constant is a special case.

Now, we can define a time sequence collection (TSC) more precisely. A TSC is a collection of time sequences for the same surrogate class and with the same properties. The TSC is a basic construct in the TDM and can be manipulated by the operators discussed in the next section.

It follows from the above definition of a TSC that the properties of the TSC are the same as those defined for a TS, since all the TSs that belong the the same TSC have the same properties. Below is an example of a TSC and its properties, as well as two instances of TSs that belong to it.

Example

Surrogate class: bank account number Temporal-attribute type: account balance

Time granularity: day

Life span: start_point=1/1/86; end_point=1/9/86

Regularity: irregular Type: step-wise constant

A TS for account number 1462 is:
((1/1/86,57), (1/4/86,50), (1/6/86,65), (1/9/86,60))
A second TS for account number 2526 is:
((1/1/86,35), (1/3/86,45), (1/7/86,55))

A two-dimensional representation of this TSC is shown in Figure 3a, where rows represent different surrogates and columns represent the time points of the TSC. Although it is convenient to view a TSC in this two-dimensional space, we do not imply that this is the preferred structure either for physical or logical representation. Indeed there may be different representations that can be used for illustrative or visual purposes. For example, Figure 3b shows a graphical representation of the TSC, where the interpolation function (in this case step-wise constant) is used to fill in missing time points. Figure 3c shows a tabular (relational) representation of the TSC. Figure 3d is another tabular representation, where the surrogate values are not repeated (this representation was referred to in the literature as non-first normal form of a relation). Finally, Figure 3e shows an expanded tabular form of the TSC, where the missing values have been interpolated.

The above examples illustrate that the operators defined for TSCs should not be dependent or selected according to a particular representation. Rather, when a particular representation is chosen to conform to a given model (such as tables as in Figure 3c for the relational model), then the operators defined in the next section should be supported by that model.

4. OPERATIONS OVER TSCs

4.1. Principles

The operators presented in this section obey two principles. These principles hold regardless of the complexity of the operators.

The first principle is that every operator over one or more source TSCs will produce a single target TSC. This principle permits the iterative application of operators to form a sequence of complex operations when needed. It should be noted that, in a particular implementation, the basic operators can be combined into higher-level operators.

The second principle is that every operator must have three functional parts: target specification, mapping, and function; we describe them below. This principle ensures that all the operators are consistent. It also permits complex user-defined operators to conform to the format of the other operators.

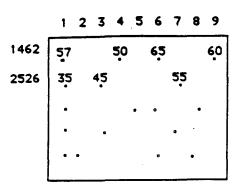
Target Specification

The target specification part determines the valid points of the target TSC. A point of a TSC is specified uniquely by the s and t components of the temporal value. As will be shown later, a target specification can result in a subset of the data points of the source TSC, or can have different data points specified (e.g. the source TSC specifies days, and the target TSC specifies months.)

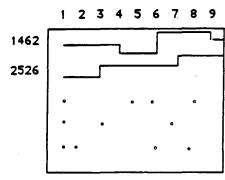
Mapping

The mapping† part specifies for each point of the target TSC the set of points of the source TSC to be manipulated to generate a target temporal value. For example, in an aggregation operation, for each target point there is a set of source points used to generate the target value.

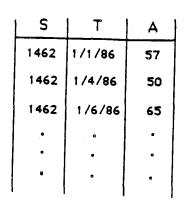
[†] We use here the term mapping in the sense of correspondence between source and target points rather than in its precise mathematical meaning.







b) a graphical representation of a TSC



c) a tabular representation of a TSC

S	(T,A) pairs					
1462	(1/1/86,57),(1/4/86,50),(1/6/86,60), (1/9/86,60)					
2526	(1/1/86,35),(1/3/86,45),(1/7/86,55)					
	•					
	• `					
	•					

۵)	a tabular representation of a TSC with surrogates factored out
	With surroyales ractored out

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1462	57	57	57	50	50	65	65	65	60
2526	35	35	45	45	45	45	5 5	55	55
					:				
					•				
						•			

e) an expanded tabular representation of a TSC

Figure 3: Different representations of a TSC

Function

The function part specifies the function to be applied to the values of the source points in order to generate the target value. This function may be as simple as a sum and other arithmetic operations, or it can involve complex computations that could be user specified by means of a program.

It should be pointed out that any of the above parts may be specified as "identity". In the case of target specification, an identity specification means that all the points in the source *TSC* will appear in the target *TSC*. An identity mapping means that each target point corresponds to the same source point. An iden-

tity function means that the target value is the same as the source value. At the other extreme, each of these parts can be completely user specified by means of a program. We will give below an example that requires user defined parts.

4.2. Common operators

In this section we describe the basic retrieval operators of the TDM. The retrieval operators and their three functional parts are summarized in Table 1: their precise syntax is given in the Appendix. The syntax that we adopted is SQL-like and its general form is given below (the use of [[.]], ...], and ... are explained in the Appendix.)

operator-name INTO target-tsc function FROM source-tsc [.source-tsc]* WHERE target-specification GROUP BY|TO mapping-specification

In general, there are many operators over time sequences that are useful for different applications. For example, there is a large body of literature on time series analysis that uses different operators for statistical analysis, such as regression, cross correlation, etc. Our purpose here is to identify several common operator classes by means of the three parts mentioned above: target specification, mapping, and function. For more complex operations, user defined routines (which can be stored in libraries) can be incorporated in the queries in place of each of these three parts. The most general case is when all three parts are user defined as shown in the last entry of Table 1. In general, user defined parts can replace any of the parts of the operators shown in Table 1.

In addition to the operators shown in Table 1, there are additional operators that we do not specify here in detail. These include a set operator to combine TSCs, update operators, and a data definition operator. The data definition operator is needed in order to create TSCs and to define their properties (discussed in Section 3). The data definition operator can also be used to explicitly change the properties of an existing TSC (implicit changes may occur as a result of data

manipulation operations, e.g. the time granularity of a TSC is changed when the user specifies an aggregation along the time dimension). It should also be noted that certain shortcuts can be incorporated into the syntax by combining functionalities of the basic operators in Table 1 into higher-level operators (including the incorporation of property definition syntax into the basic operators). We do not discuss here such shortcuts any further.

Each operator and its syntax will be explained by examples. The examples utilize the following TSCs.

- BOOK_SALES (type = discrete) contains the daily sales of books (surrogates): the temporal attribute contains the number of books sold, and is named QUANTITY.
- BOOK_PRICE (type = stepwise constant) contains the daily prices (temporal attribute named PRICE) of books (surrogates).
- BOOK (type = nontemporal) contains three attributes for each book: TYPE (math. computers. etc.). AUTHOR-NAME, and DISCOUNT (% discount for QUANTITY>10).
- EMP_COMMISSION (type = discrete) contains the daily commissions (temporal attribute named COMMISSION) of employees (surrogates).
- EMP_SALARY (type = stepwise constant) contains the monthly salaries (temporal attribute named SALARY) of employees (surrogates).

Operator	Target Specification	Mapping	Function		
select	predicate conditions over S,T and A	identity	arithmetic operations over attributes or identity		
aggregate	implied by mapping	group specification over S or T	aggregation operators (sum, maximun,)		
accumulate	identity	sequence specification over T	aggregation operators (sum, maximun,)		
restrict	surrogate restriction by auxiliary TSC	identity	identity		
composition	identity	corresponding points of source TSCs	arithmetic or aggregation operators		
general	user defined	user defined	user defined		

Table 1: Classification of temporal operators

SELECTION

The selection operator extracts parts of a TSC that satisfy a predicate referencing s and/or t and/or a values. The target specification part determines the points (s,t) of the source TSC that will appear in the target TSC. The mapping part is identity in this case, while the function can be either an identity or a manipulation of the a-values. By default, the target TSC inherits all the properties of the source TSC, except the lifespan which may be changed as a result of the temporal clause.

The predicates over the s and a values are the usual predicates found in query languages. However, the predicates over t values have additional features that refer to sequences of the temporal values. Selection over t values can be made by specifying intervals or sequences (in addition to the usual predicates.) Intervals are specified by start and end points. Sequences are specified by giving the number of points desired from a reference point. The sequence points can be specified looking forward (using NEXT) or backwards (using LAST.) There is a distinction made between requesting time points or data points (i.e. only time points that have data values.) The predicates T-NEXT. T-LAST. V-NEXT, V-LAST are used for this purpose. When the reference point of a sequence is specified as ordinal number, it refers to data points or time points according to the predicate (T-LAST, T-NEXT, etc.) used.

The time points can be specified as calendar values (in the same units of the TSC, or as ordinal values referring to their position in the TS. They can also assume the values BEGIN and END to specify the beginning and end of the TS. For example, an interval can be specified as (1/1/86 TO END). We give below several SELECT queries that illustrate some of the above predicates.

Example 1

"Get the January sales figures for books #5 and #9."

SELECT INTO JAN_SALES QUANTITY FROM BOOK_SALES WHERE S IN (5.9) AND T IN (1/1/86 TO 1/31/86)

The example illustrated one possible specification of the time points. In examples 2 and 3 below, assume that the salary TS of employee #10 is ((4/85;24000), (6/85:25000), (8/85:28000), (9/85;30000), (11/85;33000), (1/86:36000)).

Example 2

"Get the 4 salary values preceding January 1986 for employee #10." Note that we want the last four distinct salary values, not the salary for the last four months. Thus, the predicate V-LAST is used.

SELECT INTO EMP10_SALARY SALARY FROM EMP_SALARY WHERE S=10 AND T IN (V-LAST 4 FROM 1/86)

The resulting time and salaries are $\{(6/85:25000), (8/85:28000), (9/85:30000), (11/85:33000)\}$. That is, the values of the 4 TS data points preceding 1/86 are retrieved. Example 3

"Get the salary values of employee #10 in the 4 months preceding January 1986."

This query is the same as in Example 2, except that we use the predicate T-LAST instead of V-LAST. In this case, the resulting time and salaries are {((9/85:30000), (10/85:30000), (11/85:33000), (12/85:33000)}. Note that in this case, the values for October and December were interpolated using the interpolation rule associated with the stepwise-constant type property.

AGGREGATION

The aggregation operator can be applied over groups in the time dimension or the surrogate dimension. For the time dimension, the target specification part determines the new time points of the target TSC. In many cases, time aggregations are for calendar time where the new time points of the target TSC will be of granularity higher than that of the source TSC. For the surrogate dimension, the target specification part will determine new surrogate values; these values are usually a-values from another TSC. For example, books may be aggregated by type, and therefore the new surrogate values will be the TYPE values. For all cases of aggregation, each point in the target TSC is mapped to a set of points in the source TSC (note that in the case of aggregation these sets of points are disjoint). The function to be applied to each set of mapped points can be any aggregate that generates a single-valued output (such as sum, average, count, etc.). By default, the target TSC inherits all the properties of the source TSC, except the time granularity which may be changed, and the type which is changed to discrete.

Example 4

"Sum the book sales by month."

AGGREGATE INTO MONTHLY_SALES
SUM QUANTITY
FROM BOOK_SALES
GROUP T BY MONTH

Note that the time hierarchy and its time-unit keywords are known to the system.

Example 5

"Sum the daily book sales by type."

AGGREGATE INTO TYPE_SALES SUM QUANTITY FROM BOOK_SALES GROUP S BY BOOK.TYPE

In this case, the grouping information (namely, the type of book) is obtained from another TSC.

ACCUMULATION

The accumulation operator is carried out along the time dimension. Its purpose is to obtain a new value for each data point based on a sequence of values preceding or following it in the TS. For example, getting the balance of an account from the TS of deposits and withdrawals involves a SUM accumulation from the beginning of the TS.

The target specification part for this operator is "identity", i.e. the points of the target TSC are the same as the points of the source TSC (which also implies that there is no change in the time granularity). Each point of the target TSC is mapped to a set of points in the source TSC. Unlike the aggregation operation, the sets of mapped points are not disjoint. The function part may be any aggregation function. The default properties of the target TSC are the same as for aggregation.

Example 6

Assume that the temporal values of a TS are 6,4,7,3,5,4. The following illustrates typical mappings and the results of applying the SUM function to them.

GROUP TO BEGIN; the result is: 6,10,17,20,25,29. Each value in the source sequence was replaced by the sum of itself and all the values preceding it.

GROUP TO END; the result is: 29.23.19.12.9.4. Each value in the source sequence was replaced by the sum of itself and all the values following it.

GROUP TO V-LAST 2; the result is: 6.10.11,10.8.9 Each value in the source sequence was replaced by the sum of itself and the value preceding it.

GROUP TO V-NEXT 2; the result is: 10,11,10,8,9,4 Each value in the source sequence was replaced by the sum of itself and the value succeeding it. The usage of T-LAST and T-NEXT is the same as in Example 3.

Example 7

This example calculates a series of moving averages useful in forecasting applications.

"Get a series of 7-day moving averages of book sales."

ACCUMULATE INTO AVG_SALES AVG QUANTITY FROM BOOK_SALES GROUP TO T-LAST 7

RESTRICTION

A restriction operator involves a target TSC, a source TSC, and an auxiliary TSC (following the BY keyword). This operation is similar to the semi-join operation in the relational model. Its purpose is to select only those surrogates of the source TSC that also appear in the auxiliary TSC. For example, suppose that we want to look at sales records of mathematics books only. Since the type of book is in a TSC other than the sales TSC, a restriction operator is needed.

Both the source and the auxiliary TSC must have the same surrogate type. The target specification part qualifies time points of the source TSC only for those surrogates that appear in the auxiliary TSC as explained above. The auxiliary TSC can have

predicate conditions applied to its attributes in order to select the surrogates of interest. The mapping and the function parts of the operation are identity. The target TSC inherits all the properties of the source TSC.

Example 8

"Get the salary history of employees who are paid a commission greater than 1000."

RESTRICT INTO COM_EMP FROM EMP_SALARY BY EMP_COMMISSION.COMMISSION > 1000 COMPOSITION

The composition operator enables manipulation of related data that are part of two TSCs. We distinguish between three types of compositions: pairwise, by surrogate, and by time. In the case of pairwise composition (this is the default when the 'BY comp-method' clause is not specified), the source TSCs must have the same surrogates, time granularity, and lifespan. In this case, a function is applied to each corresponding pair of points (one from each TSC) to produce a single value in the target TSC. The target specification part is identity (with respect to either of the source TSCs). A target point is mapped to two points, each of which is an identity mapping to one of the source TSCs. The function part manipulates each pair of source a-values (values are interpolated when necessary) to produce a single target value. The following example illustrates a pairwise composition.

Example 9

"Get the daily book revenues (assume no discounts)."

COMPOSE INTO BOOK_REVENUE REVENUE=QUANTITY×PRICE FROM BOOK_SALES.BOOK_PRICE

The default properties of the target TSC in pairwise composition are as follows. The time granularity and lifespan properties of the target TSC remain the same as those of the source TSCs. If both source TSCs are regular so is the target TSC: otherwise, the target TSC is irregular. The type of the target TSC is: discrete, if either of the source TSCs is discrete; stepwise constant, if both of the source TSCs are stepwise constant; and continuous, if both source TSCs are continuous or one is continuous and the other is stepwise constant.

The more general case of composition is between the corresponding values of multiple TSCs. We chose to show here the case of two TSCs only since it simplifies its presentation. Clearly, we can get the same effect by multiple applications of the pairwise compositions.

When composition is done by surrogate, the first source *TSC* must be the *TS* of a single surrogate with time granularity and lifespan the same as those of the second source *TSC*. This single surrogate row (when viewed in the 2-dimensional space of Figure 2) is applied to each of the surrogate rows of the second *TSC*. The target specification part is an identity with

respect to the second source TSC. Each target point is mapped to two points; the first point is the identity point in the second source TSC, and the other point is the point in the first TSC having the same time value as the mapped point in the second TSC. The function part and the default properties of the target TSC are the same as in the case of pairwise comparison.

In the case of composition by time, the first source TSC has a single time point. An example is a nontemporal TSC with a single attribute. This operator is similar to the composition by surrogate, except that a time column is applied to each of the columns of the second source TSC. The target specification part is an identity with respect to the second source TSC. Each target point is mapped to two points; the first point is the identity point in the second source TSC, and the other point is the point in the first TSC having the same surrogate value as the mapped point in the second TSC. The function part is the same as in the case of pairwise comparison. The properties of the target TSC are the same as those of the second source TSC. The next example illustrates composition by time.

Example 10

"Get the daily book revenues for discounted sales only." Since discounts exist only when the quantity is greater than 10, we first have to eliminate smaller quantities (these values are replaced by nulls.) This is done with the SELECT statement below. Then, we have to find the discounted price for each book. However, the price of the books changes over time while there is only a single discount value for each book (in the BOOK TSC.) Thus, we need to apply the column DISCOUNT to the BOOK.PRICE TSC. This is done in the first composition (by time). The second composition (pairwise) creates the desired revenue TSC.

SELECT INTO DISCOUNT_QUANTITY
D_QTY=QUANTITY
FROM BOOK_SALES
WHERE QUANTITY > 10

COMPOSE INTO DISCOUNT_PRICE
D_PRICE=(I-(DISCOUNT/100))×PRICE
FROM BOOK.BOOK_PRICE
BY T

COMPOSE INTO DISCOUNT_REVENUE
D_REVENUE=D_QTY×D_PRICE
FROM DISCOUNT_QUANTITY.DISCOUNT_PRICE

4.3. An example of user defined operators

The following is a fairly complex example that is taken from a real application. We go through it in some detail to illustrate how it can be handled with user defined operators over TSCs.

Consider the measurements that result from a typical high energy physics experiment. Such experiments often use several kinds of detectors to determine (eventually) the trajectory, energy, velocity, etc. of particles.

We restrict our attention to two kinds of measurements: electric voltage that corresponds to the position of the particle relative to the detector, and the magnetic field measured at regular intervals.

Suppose that the above measurements are organized as TSCs where the surrogates represent the different detectors. There is one TSC for electric measurements and one TSC for magnetic measurements. The goal is to correct the electric measurements according to the magnetic fields. To achieve this we first have to find the magnetic fields at the positions of the electric detectors, and then use these values to compute the corrected electric values.

Let us consider first computing the magnetic fields at the position of the electric detectors. A general operator can be defined as follows. The target specification part specifies that the surrogates of the target TSC are the same as those of the electric detector TSC. The temporal points stay the same as the magnetic field TSC. The mapping part specifies for each electric detector position (of the target TSC) the relevant magnetic detectors that will be used for computing the magnetic values. This is done by a user provided program that uses the coordinates of the detectors (for example, finding a set of near neighbors). Finally, the function part specifies the computation to be used to generate the target values (for example, a weighted average). Here, again, the function is provided by the user.

Next, the operator for correcting the electric field values is specified. It is a fairly simple composition operator over the electric TSC and the magnetic TSC computed in the previous step. The function part is a user defined program that computes the corrections. Note that the two TSCs may generally have different time points, since the measurements of the magnetic field are taken at regular intervals, while the electric fields are taken only when induced by passing particles. However, this is taken care of automatically by the system, since the magnetic field TSC has the type "continuous", and the values are interpolated by a system supplied interpolation routine. As noted in section 3, the interpolation routine can also be user defined if necessary.

5. REPRESENTING THE TDM IN THE RELA-TIONAL MODEL

We indicated in the introduction that our goal is to develop a temporal model which is independent of any specific traditional data model. Once such a goal is achieved, we can examine what is required to represent the structures and operators we have developed in existing logical models. We examine here the effects of representing the TDM in the relational model. The discussion below is only an outline of such a representation; detailed specifications are the subject of current research.

First, we need to represent TSCs. At first glance this could be simply achieved by defining a relation

with three columns for S, T, and A. However, a TSC has several semantic properties that need to be maintained by the system; i.e., granularity, lifespan, type, and regularity, maintaining these properties is quite important since this is the means by which the system can perform interpolation of data values for missing temporal values and to interpret the operations correctly. Thus, we will need a special relation type (a temporal relation) that supports these semantic properties.

A temporal relation must also have the semantics of being time ordered, as is a TSC. While the tuples can be stored in principle in any order there is an implicit time order for certain operations. For example, assume that the temporal relation represents salary history by month as a step-wise constant sequence. A select operator for the salary in a month that is not stored in the relation would have to order the salary values by month in order to determine the salary in the last appropriate month. Other operators, such as accumulation and composition, also use this implicit order.

The representation of a TSC as a three column relation conforms with the representation of relations as tables. However, it implies a repetition of the surrogate values for all the time values that exist. This is the reason that some authors have chosen to use non-firstnormal form relations. For example, in [Clifford & Tansel 85], the authors proposed some variations of relations. Clifford suppresses the surrogate repetition and lists the time-value pairs of each temporal attribute in successive tuples. Tansel defines a complex data type that contains a list of triples for start-time, end-time, and value. While such representations may improve the visualization of a temporal relation, they are not essential to the representation of a TSC. As long as the system recognizes and supports the logical construct of a temporal relation (with the structural and semantic properties of TSCs), it may choose any of several visual representations, such as those shown in Figure 3.

Next, we examine the operators on TSCs and whether they can be supported by current relational operators. The select operator can be supported with predicate conditions on relations, except that new predicates will have to be defined for the time domain that refer to ordered values (e.g. last 10 months), and calendar values (e.g. every Thursday). The aggregation operator could be supported by the aggregate functions of relational languages, except that the language would need to recognize the calendar hierarchy (e.g. days grouped into months) for the purpose of aggregation.

The accumulation operator cannot be directly represented with relational operators, since it requires a running accumulation of values. Similarly, the composition operator that finds matching values (if necessary by interpolation) in the time domain is an operator that has to be added. The restriction operator which behaves like a semi-join, can probably be defined by a combination of a join and a projection. Finally, to accommodate user defined operators, there would have to be a facility where any of the three parts of an

operator discussed in section 4 (i.e., target specification, mapping, function) can be replaced by a user defined program. Also, the system should permit the interpolation function of a temporal relation to be user defined.

We believe that many of the constructs for operators over *TSCs* developed in this paper can be readily used with temporal relations. This is particularly true for extending SQL since we have used an SQL-like format.

6. SUMMARY AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper we have developed a temporal data model which is independent of any specific traditional data model, such as the relational model. We believe that this approach is more appropriate than extending existing models to accommodate temporal data, since such models were not designed especially to model temporal semantics.

We have defined temporal data structures that support naturally sequences of temporal values. We have described the semantic properties of such structures, and developed operators that manipulate them. We have demonstrated by means of several examples the capability to represent the semantics of and to manipulate temporal data. We have also outlined the requirements to be added to the relational model in order to support the temporal data model presented in this paper. Current research addresses the detailed specifications of such requirements. We also plan to develop the representation of the temporal data model developed here as part or extensions of existing models (other than the relational).

Other research work includes the extension of the operators for complex TSC_{N} to include structures that permit multiple surrogates, as well as multiple time lines; and an investigation of the use of abstract data types methods to define operators on time series.

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Appendix

The following notation is used in the syntax below: lower-case letters are used for variable names: upper-case letters are used for keywords; | denotes 'or': [] is used to designate optional expressions: and * denotes zero or more occurrences. The general syntax of an operator is:

operator-name INTO target-tsc function FROM source-tsc [,source-tsc]* WHERE target-specification GROUP BY | TO mapping-specification

The Syntax of TDM's Data Retrieval Language

SELECT [INTO target-tsc] att-list FROM source-tsc [WHERE select-clause]

AGGREGATE [INTO target-tsc] function
[UNIQUE] [attribute-name]
FROM source-tsc
GROUP [S|T] BY group-clause

ACCUMULATE [INTO target-tsc] function
[UNIQUE] [attribute-name]
FROM source-tsc
GROUP TO acc-clause

RESTRICT [INTO target-tsc] FROM source-tsc BY aux-tsc.att-clause

COMPOSE [INTO target-tsc] c-function FROM source-tsc.source-tsc [BY comp-method]

target-tsc ::= tsc-name source-tsc ::= tsc-name aux-tsc ::= tsc-name

select-clause ::= select-element

(select-clause boolean-op select-clause)

select-element ::= surr-clause | temp-clause | att-clause boolean-op ::= AND | OR

surr-clause ::= [NOT] surr-predicate temp-clause ::= [NOT] temp-predicate

att-clause ::= [NOT] att-predicate

surr-predicate ::= S predicate-op value | S IN (values)

predicate-op ::= = $| \neq | > | \ge | < | \le$ values ::= value [.value]*

value ::= integer | real | string

att-predicate ::= att predicate-op value

| value predicate-op att | att IN (values)

att predicate-op att

att ::= attribute-name | (att arith-op att)

arith-op ::= + $| - | \times | / |$ **

att-list ::= [new-name=] att [.[new-name=] att]*

temp-predicate :: = T predicate-op t-value

| T IN (t-values)

T IN (t-range [,t-range]*)

t-value ::= t-ordinal | t-calendar

t-ordinal :: = integer | BEGIN | END

t-calendar ::= gregorian-value | BEGIN | END

t-values ::= t-ordinal (,t-ordinal)*

| t-calendar [,t-calendar]*

t-range ::= interval | sequence interval ::= t-start TO t-end

sequence ::= sequence-op integer

FROM reference-time

sequence-op ::= V-LAST | V-NEXT | T-LAST | T-NEXT

reference-time ::= t-value

t-start ::= t-value t-end ::= t-value

function ::= AVG | MAX | MIN | SUM | COUNT group-clause ::= time-unit | integer

tsc-name[.attribute-name]

acc-clause ::= sequence-op integer | BEGIN | END

time-unit ::= YEAR | MONTH | DAY | HOUR | MINUTE | SECOND

c-function ::= new-name= aggr-expr

| new-name = arith-expr

aggr-expr ::= aggr-op [attribute-name,attribute-name]

aggr-op ::= MAX | MIN | AVE

arith-expr ::= ((arith-pair) arith-op value)

| (value arith-op (arith-pair))

arith-pair ::= c-att arith-op c-att

c-att ::= att-name | (c-att arith-op value)

(value arith-op c-att)

comp-method ::= S | T

Notes:

1) All tokens in the syntax that end with '-name' are strings of characters amd/or digits.

2) The token 'gregorian-value' can assume different formats (such as mm/dd/yy for months, days, years) which depend on the application. We chose not to specify the formats here.

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