Subsumption for XML Types

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Abstract

XML data is often used (validated, stored, queried, etc) with respect to different types. Understanding the relationship between these types can provide important information for manipulating this data. We propose a notion of subsumption for XML to capture such relationships. Subsumption relies on a syntactic mapping between types, and can be used for facilitating validation and query processing. We study the properties of subsumption, in particular the notion of the greatest lower bound of two schemas, and show how this can be used as a guide for selecting a storage structure. While less powerful than inclusion, subsumption generalizes several other mechanisms for reusing types, notably extension and refinement from XML Schema, and subtyping.

1 Introduction

XML [5] is a data format for Web applications. As opposed to e.g., relational databases, XML documents do not have to be created and used with respect to a fixed, existing schema. This is particularly useful in Web applications, for simplifying exchange of documents and for dealing with semistructured data. But the lack of typing has many drawbacks, inspiring many proposals [2, 3, 4, 9, 11, 22, 23, 34] of type systems for XML. The main challenge in this context is to design a typing scheme that retains the portability and flexibility of untyped XML. To achieve this goal, the above proposals depart from traditional typing frameworks in a number of ways. First, in order to deal with both structured and semistructured data, they support very powerful primitives, such as regular expressions [2, 9, 25, 34, 27] and predicate languages to describe atomic values [2, 6, 9]. Secondly, documents remain independent from their type, which allows the same document to be typed in multiple ways according to various application needs. These features result in additional complexity: the fact that data is often used with respect to different types, means that it is difficult to recover the traditional advantages (such as safety and performance enhancements) that one expects from type systems. To get these advantages back, one need to understand how types of the same document relates to each other.

In this paper, we propose a notion of subsumption to capture the relationship between XML types. Intuitively, subsumption captures not just the fact than one type is contained in another, but also captures some of the structural relationships between the two schemas. We show that subsumption can be used to facilitate commonly used type-related operations on XML data, such as type assignment, or for query processing.

We compare subsumption with several other mechanisms aimed at reusing types. Subsumption is less powerful than inclusion, but it captures *refinement* and *extension*, recently introduced by XML Schema [34], subtyping, as in traditional type systems, as well as the instantiation mechanism of [9, 33]. As a consequence, subsumption provides some formal foundations to these notions, and techniques to take advantage of them.

We study the lattice theoretic properties of subsumption. These provide techniques to rewrite inclusion into subsumption. Notably we show the existence of a *greatest lower bound*. Greatest lower bound captures the information from several schemas, while preserving the relationship with them, and can be used as the basis for storage design.

Practical scenario. To further motivate the need for a subsumption mechanism for XML, consider the following application scenario. In order to run an integrated shopping site for some useful product, such as mobile phone jammers, company "A" accesses catalogs from various sources. The first catalog, on the left below, is taken from company "SESP" [21], while the second, on the right, is extracted from miscellaneous pages.

```
<products>
  <jammer>
    <company>SESP</company>
    <name>VHP Jammer</name>
    <price><onrequest/></price>
    <case><type>Mobile Attache Case</type>
    </case></jammers>
  <jammer>
    <company>SESP</company>
    <name>Full Milspec. Portable
```

```
<products>
  <jammer>
    <name>Static High Power (HP) Jammer</name>
    <price><onrequest/></price>
    <case><type>metal</type>
          <size>180x180x80mm</size></case></jammer>
  <jammer>
    <name>Personal Jammer (PL & PH)</name>
    <company>JamLogic</company>
    <price><onrequest/></price>
```

```
        High  Power (HP) Jammer</name>
    <price><onrequest/></price>
    <case><type>Rugged military
                type case</type></case>
    <booster><range>1km</range></booster>
    <supplement>39</supplement></jammer>
  ...
```

```
    <input>Digital or Analog</input>
    <warranty>2 years</warranty>
  </jammer>
  <jammer>
    <name>M2 Mini Cell-Phone Jammer</name>
    <price>749</price></jammer>
  ...
```

Company "SESP" only sells high power jammers, and provides precise information about their products as the SESP schema, given on the left hand side below[1]. This schema indicates that the `SESPcatalog` (we write types in upper case and element names in lower case), is composed of an element with name `products`, which has 0 or more children of type `HPJammer` ('`*`' stands for the Kleene star). `HPJammer`s have a `company` sub-element which is always `"SESP"`, a `name`, etc., and may have a `booster` option with a `supplement` cost. On the right-hand side is the schema used by company "A". Because it accesses jammer information from many places, it supports a more general description where `Jammer`s might not have a company information, and may have any kind of `Option`, with or without a `supplement`.

```
SESPCatalog := products *HPJammer;

HPJammer :=
   jammer [ company [ "SESP" ],
            name [ String ],
            price [ Int | onrequest ],
            case [ type [ String ],
                   ?size [ String ] ],
            ?(booster [ range [ Int ] ],
              supplement [ Int ] ) ];
```

```
IntegratedCatalog := products * Jammer;

Jammer :=
   jammer [ ?company [ String ],
            name [ String ],
            price [ Int | onrequest ],
            *(Option,
              ?supplement [ Int ] ) ] ];

Option := Symbol *Any;
```

Because it knows precisely the type of its data, company SESP can support more efficient storage (using, for instance, techniques proposed in [13, 17, 32]), with fast access to the `name`, `price` and `case` information. But the fact that company "A" assumes a different type for the same data results in a mismatch. Verifying that type `SESPCatalog` is included in type `IntegratedCatalog` allows company "A" to make sure the information provided by SESP will conform to the expected structure. On the other hand, inclusion does not help in more specific operations, such as: actually assigning types of the integrated schema to elements of the SESP document, or understanding that the `name` and `price` elements can be efficiently accessed using the storage used by company SESP. Doing so requires to understand that the `name` and `price` in the `Jammer` type *are related to* the `name` and the `price` elements in the `HPJammer` type. We shall see that subsumption allows one to understand this relationship and to take advantage of it.

Another important use of typing is to support better query processing. To find all jammers that have a two years warranty, one can write the following YAT$_L$ [9, 15, 10] query:

```
define q($x) = make $n
               match $x with products/jammer/{ name/$n,
                                                warranty/$w }
               where contains($w,"2 years");
```

[1]Note that we will write some of the examples using the concrete schema syntax developed for the YAT System [9] and whose (partial) BNF is given in the appendix.

whose input type is[2]:

```
q_type := products * jammer [ *(Name | Warranty | Other) ];
Name := name * Any;
Warranty := warranty * Any;
Other := ^(Name | Warranty);
```

Company "A" might wish to support queries on all `Jammers`, but more efficient access for the query above, i.e. for products with a warranty. The classsical relational approach [29] would be to use a specific access structure for the warranty field, but unfortunately, the integrated schema does not mention it. We will see that the greatest lower bound of the query type and the integrated schema results in a new schema (with an explicit `warranty` field) that can be used for storage design, while the relationships with the original schemas are preserved through subsumption.

Organization of the paper. Section 2 introduces the type system we will use in the rest of the paper (essentially that of [2]) and the notion of type assignment. Section 3 defines subsumption, investigates its properties and its use for validation. Section 4 compares it to other relations on types, such as inclusion, refinement and extension in XML Schema, etc. Section 5 studies the greatest lower bound, the corresponding lattice, and how this can be used to bridge the gap between inclusion and subsumption. Section 6 discusses how one can take advantage of subsumption for query processing. Section 7 summarizes related works and indicates directions for future work.

2 Data model and type system

Data model. The data model, based on ordered labeled trees with references, is similar to other previously proposed models [9, 14, 24, 27]. $\mathcal{O}$ denotes a fixed (infinite) set of *object ids* and $\mathcal{L}$ a fixed set of *labels*. References are modeled as a special type of node, that is labeled with a distinguished symbol "&" in $\mathcal{L}$ and has exactly one child. The root of the database is treated specially: A database is a tree with a root "$\triangle$", which has *no* label, and cannot be referenced by any node. (The reason for the special treatment of the root is explained later.)

Definition 2.1 A *database* is a structure of the form $D = \langle O_D, label_D, children_D \rangle$, where

1. $O_D \subset \mathcal{O}$;
2. $label_D$ is a mapping from O_D to $\mathcal{L}$;
3. $children_D$ is a mapping from $O_D \cup \{\triangle\}$ to $\cup_{i \geq 0} O_D^i$; If $label_D(o) = \&$, then $children(o) \in O_D^1$;
4. The structure obtained considering only children of non-reference nodes (nodes with a label other than "&") is a tree.

Example 2.2 The upper part of Figure 1 is a (partial) representation for the Jammers document from Section 1 and would correspond to the following structure. $D = \langle O_D, label_D, children_D \rangle$, where $O_D = \{o_1, o_2, \ldots\}$, $children(\triangle) = [\ldots, o_1, \ldots]$, and

$$\begin{array}{ll} label(o_1) = \text{jammer} & children(o_1) = [o_{11}; o_{12}; o_{13}; o_{14}] \\ label(o_{11}) = \text{company} & children(o_{11}) = [o_{111}] \\ label(o_{111}) = \text{"SESP"} & children(o_{111}) = [\ ] \\ \vdots & \vdots \end{array}$$

[2]Here, ^ stands for the complement of a type. Complement will be explained in Section 6

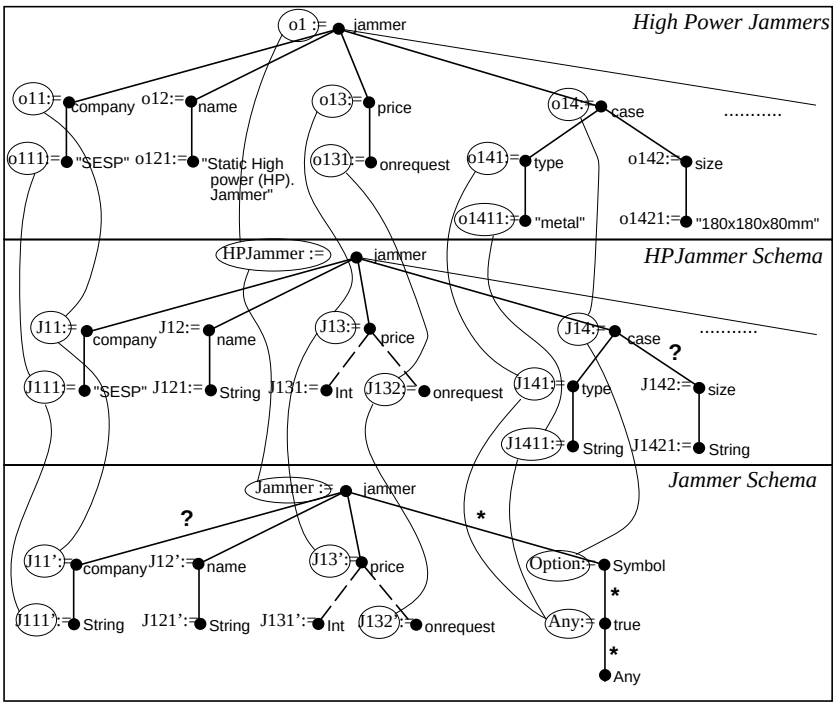

Figure 1: Type assignment and subsumption mapping

Type system. We adopt the type system of [2, 24], where predicates are used to describe labels and regular expressions are used to describe children. Note though that we do not handle unordered trees, and that we model references in a slightly different way. Also, we choose not to use XML Schema [34], which is more a user syntax for types than a model, but we will explain later on how subsumption can be used in the context of XML Schema.

Let $\mathcal{T}$ be a fixed, infinite, set of *type names*. Let $\mathcal{P}$ be a fixed set of *type predicates* ranging over labels, which is closed under disjunction, conjunction, and complementation. We use τ, τ' etc., to denote elements of $\mathcal{T}$. Regular expressions over $\mathcal{T}$ are of the form ϵ, τ, $\&\tau$, $(regexp_1, regexp_2)$, $(regexp_1 \mid regexp_2)$, or $regexp^*$, where $regexp_1$ and $regexp_2$ are regular expressions, and $\tau \in \mathcal{T}$. $L(R)$ denotes the language defined by the regular expression R, in which $\&\tau$ is treated as a single symbol.

Definition 2.3 A *type schema* is a structure of the form $S = \langle T_S, predicate_S, regexp_S \rangle$, where

1. T_S is a finite subset of $\mathcal{T}$;
2. $predicate_S$ is a mapping from T_S to $\mathcal{P}$ such that for each τ, either $predicate_S(\tau) = \{\&\}$, or $\& \notin predicate_S(\tau)$; and
3. $regexp_S$ is a mapping from $T_S \cup \{\triangle\}$ to regular expressions over T_S. Whenever $predicate_S(\tau) = \{\&\}$, $regexp_S(\tau)$ must be of the form $\tau_1 \mid \cdots \mid \tau_n$.

Example 2.4 The middle part of Figure 1 is a (partial) representation of the schema for HP jammers and would correspond to the following structure. $S_{\text{cat}} = \langle T_{\text{cat}}, p_{\text{cat}}, r_{\text{cat}} \rangle$, where $T_{\text{cat}} =$

$\{\mathbf{catalog}, \mathbf{HPjammer}, \mathbf{J_{11}}, \mathbf{J_{12}}, \mathbf{J_{13}}, \mathbf{J_{14}}, \mathbf{J_{111}}, \ldots, \mathbf{J_{1421}}\}$, $regexp(\triangle) = \mathbf{catalog}$, and

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
predicate_{\text{cat}}(\mathbf{HPjammer}) = \{\text{jammer}\} & regexp_{\text{cat}}(\mathbf{HPjammer}) = \mathbf{J_{11}}, \mathbf{J_{12}}, \mathbf{J_{13}}, \mathbf{J_{14}} \\
\vdots & \vdots \\
predicate_{\text{cat}}(\mathbf{J_{13}}) = \{\text{price}\} & regexp_{\text{cat}}(\mathbf{J_{13}}) = \mathbf{J_{131}}|\mathbf{J_{132}} \\
predicate_{\text{cat}}(\mathbf{J_{131}}) = \{0, 1, \ldots\} & regexp_{\text{cat}}(\mathbf{J_{131}}) = \epsilon \\
predicate_{\text{cat}}(\mathbf{J_{131}}) = \{\text{onrequest}\} & regexp_{\text{cat}}(\mathbf{J_{132}}) = \epsilon \\
\vdots & \vdots
\end{array}
$$

For convenience, we will now write examples with $\tau \mapsto p; r$, where p and r are the predicate and regular expression corresponding to τ. We will write $predicate(\tau) = \mathbf{true}$ to mean that it is satisfied by all tags *except* "&" – the restrictions on the interaction between reference and non-reference types guarantee that this will never cause any confusion.

Typing and type assignment.

Definition 2.5 Let D be a database and S a schema. We say D is of type S under the type assignment θ, and write $D :_\theta S$ iff θ is a function from $O_S \cup \{\triangle\}$ to $T_S \cup \{\triangle\}$ such that:

1. $\theta(\triangle) = \triangle$,
2. for each $o \in O_D$, $predicate_S(\theta(o)) \models label(o)$, and
3. for each $o \in O_D \cup \{\triangle\}$ with $children(o) = [o_1, \ldots, o_n]$, $\theta(o_1) \ldots \theta(o_n) \in L(regexp_S(\theta(o)))$.

We say that D is of type S, and write $D : S$, iff $D :_\theta S$ for some θ. Models(S) is the set of databases of type S, i.e., $\{D \mid D : S\}$. It is immediate that $D :_\theta S$ and $D' \subseteq D$ (i.e., $O_{D'} \subseteq O_D$ and the corresponding labels and children are the same) imply $D' :_{\theta|O_{D'}} S$.

Example 2.6 Figure 1 illustrates the type assignment between the `Jammer` document and the `HPJammer` schema, corresponding to the following θ:

$$
\begin{array}{rclrcl}
\theta(o_1) & = & \mathbf{HPjammer} & \theta(o_{11}) & = & \mathbf{J_{11}} \\
\theta(o_{13}) & = & \mathbf{J_{13}} & \theta(o_{131}) & = & \mathbf{J_{132}} \\
\theta(o_{14}) & = & \mathbf{J_{14}} & \theta(o_{141}) & = & \mathbf{J_{141}} \\
 & \vdots & & & \vdots &
\end{array}
$$

Type assignment is the most important information coming out of the typing process (also called *validation* in the XML world). Once computed, it allows the system to efficiently obtain the type of a given data whenever needed, e.g., in order to chose the storage or take query processing decisions at run time Note that type assignment information is logically provided in the XML Query data model [14] by the `Def_T` reference[3].

However simple, our type system is powerful enough to capture most of the other proposals, including XML Schema. It can be used to represent existing type information from heterogeneous sources [9, 33, 2] or to describe mixes of structured and semistructured data. The two following remarks will also play an important role in the rest of the paper.

[3] `http://www.w3.org/TR/query-datamodel/#def_t`

Remark 2.7 One can define `Any` as the schema that types all databases:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \triangle & \mapsto & (\tau_{\text{anytype}} \mid \tau_{\text{anyref}})^* \\ \tau_{\text{anyref}} & \mapsto & \{\&\}; (\tau_{\text{anyref}} \mid \tau_{\text{anytype}}) \\ \tau_{\text{anytype}} & \mapsto & \mathbf{true}; (\tau_{\text{anytype}} \mid \tau_{\text{anyref}})^* \end{array}$$

For any database D, D : `Any`. $\square$

Remark 2.8 For each database D, one can define a schema S that types this database only, by taking T_S such that it contains exactly a type name τ for each object o in O_D, with $\theta(o) = \tau$, $predicate_S(\tau) = \{label_D(o)\}$ and $regexp_S(\tau) = children_D(o)$. Then, $D :_\theta S$ and Models$(S) = \{D\}$.

We will write $S_{[D]}$ the schema that types the database D only. We will call `None` the schema that types the empty database only. `None` has $T_{\texttt{None}} = \emptyset$ and $regexp_{\texttt{None}}(\triangle) = \epsilon$. $\square$

3 Subsumption

Intuitively, subsumption relies on a mapping between types (playing a role similar to type assignment for typing) and on inclusion between regular expressions over these types.

Definition 3.1 Let S and S' be two schemas. We say that schema S *subsumes* S' under the *subsumption mapping* θ, and write $S \preceq_\theta S'$, iff θ is a function from $T_S \cup \{\triangle\}$ to $T_{S'} \cup \{\triangle\}$ such that:

1. $\theta(\tau) = \triangle$ iff $\tau = \triangle$.
2. For all $\tau \in T_S$, $predicate_S(\tau) \rightarrow predicate_{S'}(\theta(\tau))$.
3. For all $\tau \in T_S \cup \{\triangle\}$, $\theta(L(regexp_S(\tau))) \subseteq L(regexp_{S'}(\theta(\tau)))$.

We write $S \preceq S'$ if there exists a θ such that $S \preceq_\theta S$, and $S \approx S'$ for $(S \preceq S') \wedge (S' \preceq S)$.

Example 3.2 Figure 1 illustrates the subsumption mapping between the `Jammer` and `HPJammer` types, corresponding to the following θ':

$$\begin{array}{rr} \theta'(\mathbf{HPJammer}) = \mathbf{Jammer} & \theta'(\mathbf{J_{11}}) = \mathbf{J'_{11}} \\ \theta'(\mathbf{J_{111}}) = \mathbf{J_{111}} & \theta'(\mathbf{J_{13}}) = \mathbf{J'_{13}} \\ \theta'(\mathbf{J_{14}}) = \mathbf{Option} & \theta'(\mathbf{J_{141}}) = \mathbf{Any}\ldots \end{array}$$

The following propositions cover the elementary properties of subsumption. The first states that type checking is a special case of subsumption, and is a direct consequence of Remark 2.8. The second and third propositions state the transitivity of subsumption, and more importantly of their underlying subsumption mapping, giving the means to propagate relationships between types.

Proposition 3.3 Let S, S', S'' be three schemas, and D be a database.

1. $D :_\theta S$ iff $S_{[D]} \preceq_\theta S$.
2. $S \preceq_{\theta_1} S'$ and $S' \preceq_{\theta_2} S''$ imply $S \preceq_{\theta_2 \circ \theta_1} S''$.
3. If $D :_{\theta_1} S$ and $S \preceq_{\theta_2} S'$, then $D :_{\theta_2 \circ \theta_1} S'$.

Using subsumption for validation. An important consequence of proposition 3.3 is the ability to take advantage of subsumption for computing type assignments. Intuitively, if one has a type assignment for a given data, and a subsumption mapping from the original type to the new type, the new type assignment can be obtained by simple composition rather than by evaluating the type assignment from scratch.

This is especially useful as in most practical scenarios, including the one we sketched in Section 1, XML data is generated from a legacy source, along with its original schema (`SESPCatalog`). If instead of checking inclusion, company "A" computes subsumption between the two schemas, it obtains the new type-assignment at the same time. This approach has a number of advantages. First, the size of schema is orders of magnitude smaller than the data. Secondly, this can be done at compile time, without requiring to access the whole data.

Example 3.4 For instance, assume Company "A" runs a query to the SESP store that returns the jammer o_1. We know from θ in Example 2.4 that o_1 has type **HPJammer** and from θ' in Example 3.2, that **HPJammer**s correspond to **Jammer**s in the integrated schema. This gives us directly that the type of o_1 with respect to the integrated schema is **Jammer** (see also Figure 1).

4 Comparison with inclusion, extension, et al

To get a better understanding of the scope of subsumption, we now compare it to other relations over types, notably, inclusion, XML schema's mechanisms of refinement and extension, subtyping, and the instantiation mechanism of [9].

Inclusion. Type inclusion is defined in terms of containment of models.

Definition 4.1 $S \subseteq S'$ iff $\text{Models}(S) \subseteq \text{Models}(S')$. $S \equiv S'$ iff $(S \subseteq S') \wedge (S' \subseteq S)$.

Of course, subsumption provides additional information compared to inclusion because of the subsumption mapping. A natural question is: can one always find a subsumption mapping between two types for which inclusion holds.

Proposition 4.2 Let S and S' be two schemas. Then (1) $S \preceq S' \rightarrow S \subseteq S'$, but not conversely; (2) $\approx$, and $\equiv$ are equivalence relations, and (3) $S \approx S' \rightarrow S \equiv S'$, and this implication is proper.

Proof: (2) is trivial. (1) and (3) are direct consequences of Remark 2.8. To see why the implications are proper, consider the following type schemas:

$$\begin{array}{rrcl} S,\, S' & \tau_1 & \mapsto & \{a\};\epsilon \\ & \tau_2 & \mapsto & \{a\};\epsilon \\ S & \triangle & \mapsto & \tau_1^*, \tau_2 \\ S' & \triangle & \mapsto & \tau_1, \tau_2^* \end{array}$$

Then both S and S' type precisely those databases for which $children(\triangle)$ are all leaves with tag "a", but neither $S \preceq S'$ or $S' \preceq S$. $\square$

As shown in [19, 20], type inclusion can be used to type-check XML languages. Proposition 4.2 implies that some queries might type-check even though a subsumption mapping does not exist. In such a case one might not be able to take advantage of subsumption. Fortunately, we will

see that there are many practical cases for which a subsumption mapping between types exists, including: when they are defined through XML Schema's refinement or extension mechanisms or when they are exported from a traditional type system with subtyping. Moreover, we will show (Proposition 5.6) that if $S'' \subseteq S$, then one can construct a schema S'' equivalent to S for which $S'' \preceq S'$.

Extension and refinement. XML Schema: Part 1 [34] defines two subtyping-like mechanisms, called *extension* and *refinement*, aimed at reusing types. For obvious space limitations, we cannot explain all the complex features of XML Schema, so our presentation will rely on a simple modelization of these two mechanisms[4]. In a nutshell, *extension* allows to add new fields to a given type, while *refinement* provides syntactic means to restrict the domain of a given type.

Example 4.3 The following XML Schema declaration defines a `Stated-Address` by *refining* an `Address` to always have a unique `state` element and `US-Address` by extending `Stated-Address` with a new `zip` element.

```
<complexType name="Address">
  <element name="street" type="string"/>
  <element name="city"   type="string"/>
  <element name="state"  type="string" minOccurs="0" maxOccurs="1"/>
</complexType>

<complexType name="Stated-Address" base="Address" derivedBy="refinement">
  <element name="street" type="string"/>
  <element name="city"   type="string"/>
  <element name="state"  type="string" minOccurs="1" maxOccurs="1">
</complexType>

<complexType name="US-Address" base="Stated-Address" derivedBy="extension">
 <element name="zip"   type="positiveInteger"/>
</complexType>
```

In our model, these three types would be defined as follows:

$$regexp(\mathbf{Address}) = \mathbf{Street}, \mathbf{City}, \mathbf{State}?, \tau_{\text{anytype}}*$$
$$regexp(\mathbf{Stated\text{-}Address}) = \mathbf{Street}, \mathbf{City}, \mathbf{State}, \tau_{\text{anytype}}*$$
$$regexp(\mathbf{US\text{-}Address}) = \mathbf{Street}, \mathbf{City}, \mathbf{State}, \mathbf{Zip}, \tau_{\text{anytype}}*$$

The type τ_{anytype}, as defined in Remark 2.7, indicates the ability to have additional fields. Note that the subsumption relationship holds **US-Address** $\preceq$ **Stated-Address** $\preceq$ **Address**.

Proposition 4.4 A type τ' derived by extension or refinement from a type τ is such that $\tau \preceq \tau'$.

Proof Sketch: Refinement corresponds to adding a field at the end of a given type. This corresponds to regular expressions of the form: $regexp = \tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n, \tau_{\text{anytype}}*$, and $regexp' = \tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n, \tau_{n+1}, \tau_{\text{anytype}}*$ for which inclusion holds with $\theta(\tau_{n+1}) = \tau_{\text{anytype}}$.

Extension can be obtained by restricting a datatype, which yields inclusion between predicates. `minOccur` and `maxOccur` restrictions corresponds to regular expressions of the form:

[4]The reader might consult [30] for more details.

$$regexp = (\underbrace{\tau, \tau, \ldots, \tau}_{n}), \underbrace{\tau?, \ldots, \tau?}_{m} \quad \text{and} \quad regexp' = (\underbrace{\tau, \tau, \ldots, \tau}_{n'}), \underbrace{\tau?, \ldots, \tau?}_{m'}$$

For which inclusion holds when $n \leq n'$ and $(n+m) \geq (n'+m')$. Union type restrictions corresponds to regular expressions of the form $regexp = \tau_1 | \ldots | \tau_n | \ldots | \tau_{n+m}$, and $regexp' = \tau_1 | \ldots | \tau_n$ for which inclusion holds. The proposition is then proved by induction.

Subtyping. The literature proposes a large number of different mechanisms called or related to subtyping [7, 26, 28]. Basic subtyping usually relies on two mechanisms: additions of new attributes in tuples (e.g., `{ name: String; age: Int } <: { name: String }`) and restrictions on atomic types (e.g., `Int <: Float`). The last mechanism is captured by predicate restrictions in our context, while the first is captured by adding `Any`* types when modeling tuples[5].

Instantiation. [9] proposes a notion of *instantiation* that corresponds to certain restrictions over types. This mechanism allows: restrictions on the label predicates, restrictions on the arity of collections (similar to the minOccur and maxOccur restrictions in XML schema), and restrictions on the unions. As for XML Schema, these restrictions yields only types for which subsumption holds.

5 Greatest Lower and Least Upper Bound

Let S and S' be two schemas. We consider equivalence classes of schemas with respect to subsumption $[S]_{\approx}$, ordered by $\preceq$, and show that this is a lattice. The greatest lower bound, defined below, is the most important operation: intuitively, it results in a schema that describes all the type information that is common to the given schemas.

We shall assume that whenever τ and τ' are in $\mathcal{T}$, so is the symbol $\tau \sqcap \tau'$. We need to define appropriately intersection of regular expressions: our regular expressions are over type names, but the intersection should be over the *semantics* of the types, not the names. For example, if the regular expressions are τ_1^* and (τ_2, τ_3), the intersection will be $((\tau_1 \sqcap \tau_2), (\tau_1 \sqcap \tau_3))$.

Definition 5.1 Let S and S' be two type schemas.[6] $S \sqcap S'$ and $S \sqcup S'$ are the schemas:

1. (a) $T_{S \sqcap S'} = \{\tau \sqcap \tau' \mid \tau \in T_S, \tau' \in T_{S'}\}$; (b) $T_{S \sqcup S'} = T_S \cup T_{S'}$.
2. (a) for all $\tau \in T_S$, $\tau' \in T_{S'}$, $predicate_{S \sqcap S'}(\tau \sqcap \tau') = predicate_S(\tau) \wedge predicate_{S'}(\tau')$; (b) for $\tau \in T_S$, $predicate_{S \sqcup S'}(\tau) = predicate_S(\tau)$ and for $\tau \in T_{S'}$, $predicate_{S \sqcup S'}(\tau) = predicate_{S'}(\tau)$.
3. (a) for all $\tau \in T_S$, $\tau\tau'_{\text{anytype}} \in T_{S'}$, $regexp_{S \sqcap S'}(\tau \sqcap \tau') = regexp_S(\tau) \cap regexp_{S'}(\tau')$, and $regexp_{S \sqcap S'}(\triangle) = regexp_S(\triangle) \cap regexp_{S'}(\triangle)$; (b) $regexp_{S \sqcup S'}(\tau) = regexp_S(\tau)$ for $\tau \in T_S$, $regexp_{S \sqcup S'}(\tau) = regexp_{S'}(\tau)$ for $\tau \in T_{S'}$, and $regexp_{S \sqcup S'}(\triangle) = regexp_{S'}(\triangle) | regexp_{S'}(\triangle)$.

Example 5.2 Consider the following two schemas (where τ_{anytype} is as in the definition of the schema `Any`).

$$\begin{array}{lllll} S\text{:} & \triangle & \mapsto & (\tau_1, \tau_{\text{anytype}}*) \\ & \tau_1 & \mapsto & \{a\}; \epsilon \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{lllll} S'\text{:} & \triangle & \mapsto & (\tau_{\text{anytype}}*, \tau_2) \\ & \tau_2 & \mapsto & \{b\}; \epsilon \end{array}$$

[5] Note however that our type system does not capture the unordered semantics of tuples.

[6] We assume for simplicity that T_S and $T_{S'}$ are disjoint. This can always be achieved by appropriate renaming.

Then $S \sqcap S'$ is:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \triangle & \mapsto & ((\tau_1 \sqcap \tau_{\text{anytype}}) \ , \ (\tau_{\text{anytype}} \sqcap \tau_{\text{anytype}})* \ , \ (\tau_{\text{anytype}} \sqcap \tau_2)) \\ \tau_1 \sqcap \tau_{\text{anytype}} & \mapsto & \{a\}; \epsilon \\ \tau_{\text{anytype}} \sqcap \tau_2 & \mapsto & \{b\}; \epsilon \end{array}$$

where $\tau_{\text{anytype}} \sqcap \tau_{\text{anytype}}$ is defined in the same way as τ_{anytype}, with appropriate renaming.

The greatest lower bound is the best description of all of the type information that we have about both schemas. In particular, if a database is typed by both S and S', it is also typed by $S \sqcap S'$. Formally (along with dual results for least upper bound), this means:

Proposition 5.3 1. $S \sqcap S' \preceq S$ and $S \sqcap S' \preceq S'$; $S \preceq S \sqcup S'$ and $S' \preceq S \sqcup S'$.

2. If $S'' \preceq S$ and $S'' \preceq S'$, then $S'' \preceq S \sqcap S'$; similarly If $S \preceq S''$ and $S' \preceq S''$, then $S \sqcup S' \preceq S''$.

3. If $D : S$ and $D : S'$, then $D : S \sqcap S'$ and $D : S \sqcup S'$.

Theorem 5.4 $\mathcal{L} = \langle [\mathcal{S}]_{\approx}, \sqcap_{\approx}, \sqcup_{\approx}, [\texttt{None}]_{\approx}, [\texttt{Any}]_{\approx} \rangle$ is an incomplete distributive lattice without complement. $\square$

The next theorem is essential as it gives a relationship between the syntactic definitions of $S \sqcap S'$ and $S \sqcup S'$ and the semantics of the respective schemas. The proof of this theorem relies on Remark 2.8, that connects typing, on which Models are defined, and subsumption.

Theorem 5.5 For any schemas S and S', $\text{Models}(S \sqcap S') = \text{Models}(S) \cap \text{Models}(S')$ and $\text{Models}(S \sqcup S') = \text{Models}(S) \cup \text{Models}(S')$. $\square$

The use of untagged roots was introduced in [2]. The above results give another technical reason why such special treatment of the root is needed. Specifically, if the database root were allowed to be tagged, then $\mathcal{L}$ would not be distributive. On the other hand, a data model based on forests rather than trees would not work either, as then $\text{Models}(S \sqcup S') = \text{Models}(S) \cup \text{Models}(S')$ would not hold.

Subsumption is weaker that inclusion, as there are schemas that are contained in other schemas without subsuming them. For this reason, the following Corollary is very important: it shows that whenever a schema S is contained in a schema S', S can be rewritten in an equivalent way such that S subsumes S'.

Corollary 5.6 Let S and S' be two schemas such that $\text{Models}(S) \subseteq \text{Models}(S')$. Then there exists a schema S'' such that (1) $S'' \equiv S$ and (2) $S'' \preceq S'$.

Proof: Immediate, by letting $S'' = S \sqcap S'$. $\square$

Using the greatest lower bound for storage. Standard relational techniques are used to design storage structures that take into account which queries are likely to be asked. If we take query `q` from the introduction, one might wish to find a schema S that would allow to store data in such a way this query is answered in an efficient way. However, if one only consider the integrated schema, one can only use the available information about `Jammers`. Existing techniques [13, 17, 32] would provide the following relational schema:

```
jammers(jid, company, name, price);
options(jid,att,treeid);
tree(treeid,...);
```

where the `tree` table is used to store any tree, playing a similar role to the overflow graph in [13].

The greatest lower bound can be used to derive a schema that includes the `warranty` attribute. After appropriate renaming of types, this would look as follows:

```
Warranty_Product := product [ ?company [ String ],
                              name [ String ],
                              price [ Int | onrequest ],
                              *(  Warranty
                                | (OtherOption,
                                   ?supplement [ Int ]) ) ];
Warranty := warranty * Any;
OtherOption := ^Warranty;
```

We can then use this information to store the data with a faster access to the `warranty` attribute, using the following relational schema:

```
jammers(jid, company, name, price);
jammers(jid, warranty);
options(jid,att,supplement,treeid);
tree(treeid,...);
```

6 Query processing with subsumption

We now illustrate how subsumption can be helpful for query processing. The key remark is that navigation through documents can be captured by types. This is the approach taken by YAT$_{\mathrm{L}}$ [9, 10] and Xduce [19] by using regular expressions for pattern matching. Other languages [12, 1] can easily be expressed in this framework.

From queries to types. Obviously, pattern matching in queries and types are not *exactly* the same. If one considers query `q`, one can see a mismatch between the syntax of filters and the underlying type. Therefore, the first step is to map filter expressions to their underlying type structure in order to be able to use subsumption. Notably, we need the ability to construct the complement to a schema:

Definition 6.1 Let S be a schema. A *complement* of S is a schema S' such that $\mathrm{Models}(S) \cup \mathrm{Models}(S') = \mathcal{D}$ and $\mathrm{Models}(S) \cap \mathrm{Models}(S') = \emptyset$.

As opposed to what indicates [2], our type system is not closed under complement.

Proposition 6.2 There exists a schema S which does not have a complement.

The proof of this proposition makes use of the existence of references. The complement does exist if we define the complement only with respect to the class of reference-free databases. Note that this result is a simple extension of a known result from tree grammars [31] to predicates holding on infinite sets of words.

Proposition 6.3 Let S be a schema. There exists a schema S' such that $\text{Models}_{\text{norefs}}(S) \cup \text{Models}_{\text{norefs}}(S') = \mathcal{D}$ and $\text{Models}_{\text{norefs}}(S) \cap \text{Models}_{\text{norefs}}(S') = \emptyset$, where $\text{Models}_{\text{norefs}}(S)$ is the class of models of S that have no nodes labeled with "&".

Bind operation. The bind operation evaluates the type-related part of a query.

Definition 6.4 Let S be a schema, and let r be a regular expression over type names $\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n$ in S, such that each τ_i occurs exactly once in r, let θ be a type assignment $D :_\theta S$, and let $v_1, \ldots, v_m$ $(m \leq n)$ be variables. Then $\mathbf{Bind}_R(v_1, \ldots, v_m)(D)$ assigns to each v_i the set of $o \in D$ such that some word w containing o is mapped by θ to a word in $L(R)$.

The the `match` clause of the YAT$_\text{L}$ query q in the introduction illustrates this operation. Following [8], this is converted into several applications of the **Bind** operator. The **Bind** operation matches a regular expression with the data, and returns a binding between variables in the query and values in the document. Most XML processors evaluates the corresponding operation by loading the document in memory and parse it according to the given filter. This can be expensive and does not make use of the fact that we may already have knowledge of the data structure.

In particular, assume that we have stored the document using the relational schema given in the last section, and let θ be the subsumption mapping from the greatest lower bound to the query type. This immediately implies that the values of `$n` are precisely those that that correspond to the type(s) that are mapped to the type `name` in the `Jammer` schema – and from the stored type assignment for the schema we know that these are the `name` attributes in the first table, and how to access them.

7 Related work and conclusion

Typing for XML is a heavily studied problem. Existing work covers the type systems themselves [2, 9, 11, 34], type checking [19, 25] and type inference [24, 27]. XML types have been used for query formulation [18], query optimization [16, 8], storage [13, 32], and compile-time error detection [19]. A notion of subsumption was proposed in [6] for unordered semistructured data based on a graph bisimulation. Our work extends this approach to types that involve order and regular expressions.

There are many directions in which this work can be continued. First of all, while our work (and most other work in this area), uses a list model for data, for database applications a set semantics may be more appropriate, and therefore extending the results to sets (and bags) would be of interest. For applying the results to inheritance, as indicated above, one may want to be able to type an object in multiple ways – formally this may be captured by the greatest lower bound, but this does not provide the intuitive semantics desired here.

We have not discussed complexity in this paper. Typing a database is a special case of subsumption (where the database is itself the schema), and the complexity of typing is known [2] to be hard. Many of the problems that relate to typing become tractable in the case of *unambiguous* schemas: in our framework there are many possible definitions of ambiguity, such as the existence of a single typing, unambiguity up to reference nodes, unambiguous regular expressions, etc. Efficient evaluation of queries is one of the main motivation for this work. Many complex parameters must be taken into account in this context, such as the impact of storage structures, memory management issues, etc. To evaluate the real impact of subsumption, we consider an implementation of the techniques presented here in the context of the YAT System [9, 8].

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A Concrete type language

Here is a simple version of the concrete type language used for the examples of the paper.

```
SCHEMA_DEF ::=
  (PATTERN_DEF)*
;

PATTERN_DEF ::=
  PATTERN_NAME ':=' PATTERN_DESC;
;

PATTERN_DESC ::=
  | PATTERN_SINGLE
  | PATTERN_SINGLE '|' PATTERN_DESC
        (* union type *)
  | '^' PATTERN_DESC
        (* complement *)
;

PATTERN_SINGLE:=
  | NODE
        (* leaf of a tree *)
  | NODE [| CHILDREN |]
        (* non-extensible list of children *)
  | NODE [ CHILDREN ]
        (* extensible list of children *)
;

CHILDREN ::=
  | CHILD
```

```
        (* a single child *)
  | CHILD ',' CHILDREN
        (* sequence of several children *)
;

CHILD ::=
  | '(' PATTERN_DESC ')'
        (* for sub expressions *)
  |  PATTERN_SINGLE
        (* for a unique child element *)
  | '*' '(' PATTERN_DESC ')'
        (* for kleene star on several children *)
  | '*' PATTERN_SINGLE
        (* short-cut when kleene star is applied on
           only one child *)
  | '+' '(' PATTERN_DESC ')'
        (* one to many on several children *)
  | '+' PATTERN_SINGLE
        (* short-cut when one to many is applied on
           only one child *)
  | '?' '(' PATTERN_DESC ')'
        (* for option on several children *)
  | '?' PATTERN_SINGLE
        (* short-cut when option is applied on
           only one child *)
;

NODE ::=
  | DATA
  | ATOMIC_TYPE
  | REF
;

DATA ::=
  | BOOL
  | CHAR
  | INT
  | FLOAT
  | STRING
  | SYMBOL
;

ATOMIC_TYPE ::=
  | BOOL_TYPE
  | INT_TYPE
  | FLOAT_TYPE
  | STRING_TYPE
  | SYMBOL_TYPE
  | ANY_TYPE
;
```

```
REF ::=
  | '&' PATTERN_NAME
        (* for typed references *)
  | PATTERN_NAME
        (* for recursive types *)
;
```

B Proofs

Proof of Proposition 4.2: (1) and the implications in (2) are immediate. To show $S \equiv S' \not\Rightarrow S \approx S'$, let S and S' be as follows. S is defined by $T_S = \{\tau_1, \tau_2\}$, with $predicate_S(\tau_1) = predicate_S(\tau_2) = \{a\}$, $regexp_S(\triangle) = \tau_1\tau_2^*$ and $regexp_S(\tau_1) = regexp_S(\tau_2) = \epsilon$. S' is defined as $T_{S'} = \{\tau_1', \tau_2'\}$, with $predicate_{S'}(\tau_1') = predicate_{S'}(\tau_2') = \{a\}$, $regexp_{S'}(\triangle) = \tau_1'^*\tau_2'$ $regexp_{S'}(\tau_1') = regexp_{S'}(\tau_2') = \epsilon$. Then both S and S' are satisfied precisely by those databases D such that all of the nodes other than the roots are leaves with label a. Therefore $S \equiv S'$. If there was a subsumption mapping such that $S \preceq_\theta S'$, then τ_1 and $\tau_2\}$ are mapped elements of $\{\tau_1', \tau_2'\}$. But there is no way that θ can map $L(\tau_1^*\tau_2)$ into a subset of $L(\tau_1'\tau_2'^*)$. □

Proof of Proposition 5.3: Let θ map every $\tau \sqcap \tau'$ to τ. One can then show that $S \sqcap S' \preceq_\theta S$. For (2), let $S'' \preceq_\theta S$, $S'' \preceq_{\theta'} S$, and let θ'' map τ'' to $\theta(\tau'') \sqcap \theta'(\tau'')$. This implies that $S'' \preceq_{\theta''} S \sqcap S'$. □

Proof of Theorem 5.4: The proof that $\mathcal{L}$ is a lattice is standard. The properties of $\mathcal{L}$ are shown as follows:

1. Incompleteness. Consider the sequence of schemas S_n with $T_{S_n} = \{\tau_i \mid i = 1, \ldots, n\}$, and where $predicate_{S_n}(\tau_i) = \mathbf{true}$, $regexp_{S_n}(\tau_i) = \epsilon$ and

$$regexp_{S_n}(\triangle) = (\tau_1 \ldots \tau_n\tau_n^*) \mid (\tau_1 \ldots \tau_{n-1}) \mid \cdots \mid \tau_1 \mid \epsilon \ .$$

   These schemas satisfy $S_{i+1} \preceq S_i$. We claim that the set $\{S_1, S_2, \ldots\}$ does not have a g.l.b.. For, assume that S were such a g.l.b; since T_S is finite there must be a k such that $|T_S| \leq k$. We claim that every word w in $L(regexp_S(\triangle))$ is of length at most k. Otherwise, let w be a word is of length greater than k, and let $n > k$. Since $S \preceq S_n$, $\theta(w)$ is in $L(regexp_{S_n}(\triangle))$, of length greater than k, but the prefix of length $\leq n-1$ of all words in $L(regexp_{S_n}(\triangle))$ must consist of distinct symbols, a contradiction.

   Therefore let l be the length of the longest word in $L(regexp_S(\triangle))$, and let τ_1', ... , τ_{l+1}' be new type names. Let S' be the schema with $T_{S'} = T_S \cup \{\tau_1', \ldots, \tau_{l+1}'\}$, $predicate_{S'}(\tau_i') = \mathbf{true}$ $regexp_{S'}(\tau_i') = \epsilon$, $predicate_{S'}(\tau) = \mathbf{true}$, $regexp_{S'}(\tau) = \epsilon$ for all $\tau \in T_S$, and $regexp_{S'}(\triangle) = (regexp_S(\triangle) \mid \tau_1' \ldots \tau_{l+1}')$.

   Clearly $S \preceq S'$. $S' \not\preceq S$ as a subsumption mapping from S' to S would map $\tau_1' \ldots \tau_{l+1}'$ to a word of length $l+1$, which cannot be in $L(regexp_S(\triangle))$. Finally, if θ is such that $S \preceq_\theta S_n$, we can extend θ to θ' by mapping τ_i' to τ_i, and obtain $S' \preceq_{\theta'} S_n$. This means S is not a g.l.b, a contradiction.

2. No complement. This in fact follows from the fact that such a complement would also be a model-theoretic one, but can be easily shown directly as follows. Let S be the schema with $T_S = \{\tau_1, \tau_2\}$, $children(\triangle) = [\tau_1]$, $children(\tau_1) = [\tau_2]$, $children(\tau_2) = \epsilon$, and $predicate_S(\tau_1) = predicate_S(\tau_2) = \mathbf{true}$. Suppose S' is a complement, and therefore $S \sqcup S' = \mathtt{Any}$, in particular,

for some θ, $\texttt{Any} \preceq_\theta S \sqcup S'$. But then $\theta(\tau_{\text{anytype}}) = \tau_1$ or $= \tau_2$, and in both cases we immediately get a contradiction.

3. Distributivity. Let $\tilde{\tau}$ be a type in $T_{S \sqcap (S' \sqcup S'')}$. Then $\tilde{\tau}$ is of the form $\tau \sqcap \tau'$, where $\tau' \in T_{S' \sqcup S''}$. But then τ' must be in either S' or S'', and so τ is in either $S \sqcap S'$ or $S \sqcap S''$, hence in $(S \sqcap S') \sqcup (S \sqcap S'')$. The case of the root is an immediate consequence of distributivity of the set operations on the corresponding regular languages. □

Proof of Proposition 5.5: Since $D \in \text{Models}(S)$ iff $D \preceq S$, $\text{Models}(S) \cap \text{Models}(S') = \text{Models}(S \sqcap S')$ follows immediately from Proposition 5.3. Proposition 5.3 however, only shows that $\text{Models}(S) \cup \text{Models}(S') \subseteq \text{Models}(S \sqcup S')$ (duality does not work on the conjunction in the statement of a proposition). Equality is shown as follows. Let $D :_\theta S \sqcup S'$. Then $\mathit{children}(\triangle) \in L(\mathit{regexp}_{S \sqcup S'}(\triangle)) = L(\mathit{regexp}_S(\triangle)) \cup L(\mathit{regexp}_{S'}(\triangle))$; assume for example that $\mathit{children}(\triangle) \in L(\mathit{regexp}_S(\triangle))$. Since all objects in O_D are reachable from $\triangle$, an easy induction shows that $D :_\theta S$.

Proof of Proposition 6.2: Let S be the schema defined by $T_S = \{\tau_1, \tau_2\}$, $\mathit{predicate}_S(\tau_1) = \mathit{predicate}_S(\tau_2) = \{\&\}$, $\mathit{regexp}_S(\triangle) = (\tau_1 \mid \tau_2)^*$, $\mathit{regexp}_S(\tau_1) = \tau_2$, and $\mathit{regexp}_S(\tau_2) = \tau_1$. This means, intuitively, that the children of the root of a database, with the reference arcs, form a 2-colorable directed graph in which all nodes have outdegree 1. Let S' be the complement of S, let $n = |T_{S'}|$, $m = 2\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil + 1$, and let D be the database with $O_D = \{o_1, \ldots, o_m\}$, $\mathit{label}(o_i) = \&$, $\mathit{children}(\triangle) = [o_1, \ldots, o_m]$, $\mathit{children}(o_1) = o_2$, ... , $\mathit{children}(o_{m-1}) = o_m$, $\mathit{children}(o_m) = o_1$.

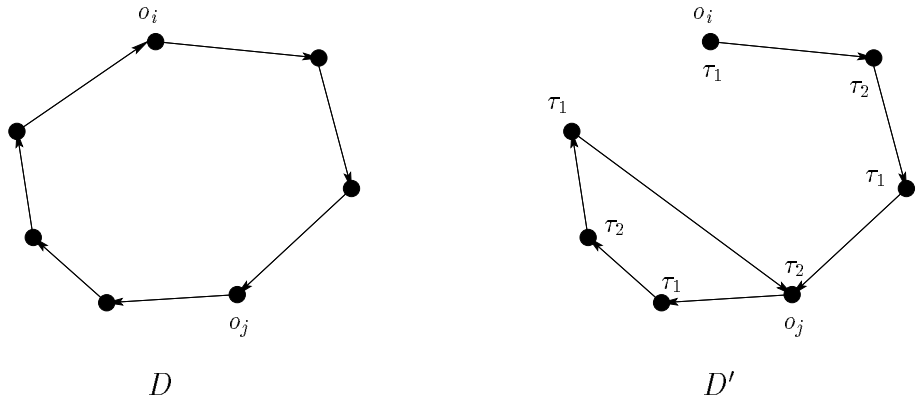

Figure 2: Proof of Proposition 6.2. All the nodes in these figures are children of the root, which is not shown explicitly. The ordering of the children does not matter

Since m is odd, the graph in Figure B is not 2-colorable, and so $D \notin \text{Models}(S)$. But then $D \in \text{Models}(S')$, i.e., there exists a θ such that $D :_\theta S'$. Since $|O_D| > |T_S|$, O_D must contain two o_i and o_j with the same type, $\theta(o_i) = \theta(o_j)$. Let D' be the database defined in exactly the same way as D except for $\mathit{children}(o_{i-1}) = o_j$ when $j - i$ is odd, and $\mathit{children}(o_{j-1}) = o_i$ when $j - i$ is even (if $i = 1$, use o_m instead o_{j-1}). Clearly (see Figure 2) the resulting graph is 2-colorable, and so $D' \in \text{Models}(S)$. On the other hand, since the only difference between D and D' is in the child of o_{i-1} (or o_{j-1}), and both children, o_i and o_j are assigned the same type by θ, it follows that $D' :_\theta S'$, and so $D' \in \text{Models}(S')$, a contradiction. □

Definition of schema complement: Let $T = \{\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n\}$ and $T' = \{\tau'_1, \ldots, \tau'_m\}$ be finite sets of type names. We use $T \sqcap T'$ as a shorthand for $\{\tau \sqcap \tau' \mid \tau \in T, \tau' \in T'\}$, and $\sqcap T$ as a shorthand for

$\tau_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap \tau_n$. In order to define the complement, we distinguish between the reasons why an object cannot be typed with a type τ. This could be because the predicate does not match the label, or because the children do not match the regular expression. In the first case, the object will be typed with $\neg^p$ ("negate predicate"), and in the second case with $\neg^r$ ("negate regular expression"). If both reasons apply, it will be typed with $\neg^p$. Let $T = \{\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n\}$, and $\sigma : T \mapsto \{+, \neg^p, \neg^r\}$. Then $\hat{\tau}(\sigma)$ is defined as $\tau_1^{\sigma(1)} \sqcap \cdots \sqcap \tau_m^{\sigma(m)}$ (where τ_i^+ is τ_i) and $\sqcap^* T$ is $\{\hat{\tau}(\sigma) \mid \sigma : T \mapsto \{+, \neg^p, \neg^r\}\}$. If $\sigma(\tau) = +$ we say that τ appears positively in $\hat{\tau}(\sigma)$. The complement of a regular expression is defined in such a way that $\neg^p$ and $\neg^r$ together represent the complement of a type.

Definition B.1 [Partial Complement] Let S be a schema. The *partial complement* of S, $\neg S$ is defined as follows. First, eliminate all cycles from S by replacing types τ labelled by & with the empty (unsatisfiable) predicate. (This does not change $\text{Models}_{\text{norefs}}(S)$.)

1. $T_{\neg S} = \sqcap^* T_S$.
2. Let $\hat{\tau}(\sigma)$ be in $T_{\neg S}$. Then $predicate_{\neg S}(\hat{\tau}(\sigma)) = \bigwedge_{\sigma(\tau)=+,\neg^r} predicate_S(\tau) \wedge \bigwedge_{\sigma(\tau)=\neg^p} \neg predicate_S(\tau)$
3. $regexp_{\neg S}(\triangle) = \neg(regexp_S(\triangle))$
4. $regexp_{\neg S}(\hat{\tau}(\sigma)) = \bigcap_{\sigma(\tau)=+} regexp_S(\tau) \cap \bigcap_{\sigma(\tau)=\neg^r} \neg regexp_S(\tau)$

The construction is related to results on tree grammars, and the proof is similar, the main difference being that we have predicates rather than finite sets of words.