COMP353 Databases

Logical Query Languages: Datalog

Logical Query Languages (Section 5.3)

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

Datalog

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

- The head the left hand side of the arrow/implication
- The body the right hand side is a conjunction (AND) of predicates (called subgoals)
- NOTE: The book uses AND in the rule bodies instead of "commas."
- The head is a "positive" predicate (atom) and the subgoals in the rule body are *literals* (an atom or a negated atom)
 - Atom a formula of the form $p(T_1,...,T_n)$, where \mathbf{p} is a predicate name and T_i 's are terms
 - Predicate normal (ordinary) relation name (e.g., movie, p) or
 - built_in predicates (e.g., >= in the above example)

 Terms (arguments) In Datalog, T₁ is either a variable or a constant
 - Subgoals in the rule body may be negated using NOT

Datalog

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

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

Datalog

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

■ This rule may be expressed in RA as:

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

Variable-Based Interpretations of Rules

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

Example

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

Instance r:

- A B
- The only assignments that make the first subgoal true are:
 - 1. $I_1: X \rightarrow 1, Z \rightarrow 2$ 2. I_2 : $X \rightarrow 2$, $Z \rightarrow 3$.
- In case (1),

Instance s: A B

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

Tuple-Based Interpretations of Rules

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

Example

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

Instance r:

Have 4 assignments of tuples to subgoals:

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

Datalog Programs

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

Operations in Datalog

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

Operations in Datalog

- **Projection operation**
 - RA: $p = \pi_x(r)$
 - Datalog: $p(X) \leftarrow r(X,Y)$.

Operations in Datalog

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

Operations in Datalog

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

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

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

Operations in Datalog

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

Operations in Datalog

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

$$\begin{split} tj2(X,\,Y,\,Z,\,W) &\longleftarrow r(X,Y),\,s(Z,\,W),\,X \geq Z. \\ tj2(X,\,Y,\,Z,\,W) &\longleftarrow r(X,Y),\,s(Z,W),\,Y \leq W. \end{split}$$

Operations in Datalog

- Join operation
 - Equi-join
 - RA: ej3 = r ⊳⊲_{Y=Z}s
 - Datalog: ej3(X,Y,Z,W) ← r(X,Y), s(Z,W), Y = Z.
 OR even better (simpler):
 ej3(X,Y,Y,W) ← r(X,Y), s(Y,W).

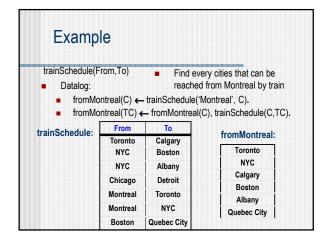
Operations in Datalog

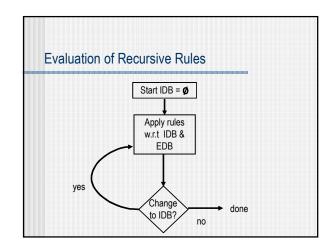
- Join operation
 - Natural join
 - RA: nj4 = r ⊳⊲s
 - Datalog: $nj4(X,Y,W) \leftarrow r(X,Y), s(Y,W)$.

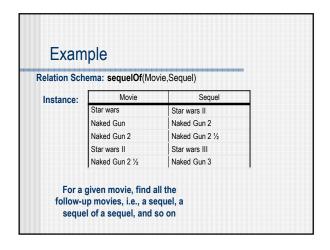
Example: Datalog Queries/Programs ■ Database schema: movie(Title, Year, Length, FilmType, StudioName) starsin(Title, Year, StarName) ■ Query: Find the names of stars of movies that are at least 100 minutes long ■ Relational Algebra Expression: Q = π_stantame (σnamph_atot (movie) ▷ < starsin) ■ Datalog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

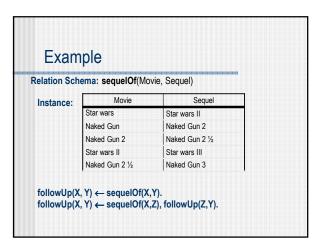
Expressive Power of Datalog

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









Recursion

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

Example

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

Safety

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

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

Safety

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

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