

# DATABASE THEORY

## Lecture 20: Outlook

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Knowledge-Based Systems

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More recent versions of this slide deck might be available.  
For the most current version of this course, see  
[https://iccl.inf.tu-dresden.de/web/Database\\_Theory/en](https://iccl.inf.tu-dresden.de/web/Database_Theory/en)

# Database Theory in Practice?

We have seen many query languages:

- CQ, FO, (2)RPQ, C(2)RPQ, Datalog, linear Datalog, semipositive Datalog, . . .

. . . and many optimisation techniques:

- optimisation of tree-like queries
- CQ containment and equivalence
- Datalog implementation techniques

Is any of this relevant in practice?

# Review: FO, relational algebra, and SQL

The following are essentially equivalent:

- First-order queries
- Relational algebra queries
- “Basic” SQL queries

where different applications may use slightly different variants

(named vs. unnamed perspective; tuple-relational calculus; domain independent vs. active domain semantics; . . .)

We get CQs when restricting to SELECT-PROJECT-JOIN queries.

↪ All RDBMSs implement FO queries, and CQs as special case

# Recursive Queries in SQL

The SQL'99 standard supports recursive queries through the `WITH RECURSIVE` construct.

- IDB predicates are called **common table expressions** (CTE) in SQL
- A CTE is defined by a single SQL query, which can use the CTE recursively
- The standard defines a fixed point semantics, similar to Datalog
- Widely supported today (IBM DB2, PostgreSQL, Oracle 11g R2, MS SQL Server, . . .), but implementations vary and don't conform to a common standard so far

# Recursive Queries in SQL: Example

Find all ancestors of Alice:

```
WITH RECURSIVE ancestor(young, old) AS (  
    SELECT parent.young, parent.old FROM parent  
    UNION ALL  
    SELECT ancestor.young, parent.old  
    FROM ancestor, parent  
    WHERE ancestor.old = parent.young  
)  
SELECT * FROM ancestor WHERE ancestor.young = 'alice';
```

## Notes:

- UNION ALL keeps duplicates, which leads to a multiset (bag) semantics that may cause termination problems.
- Many RDBMSs will fail to push the selection `ancestor.young = 'alice'` into the recursion; modifying the CTE definition to start from `'alice'` would help them.

# Expressive Power of Recursive SQL

The expressive power of recursive SQL is not easy to determine:

- A CTE uses only a single IDB predicate, but it can use unions
- `UNION ALL` enforces a multiset semantics
- SQL subsumes FO queries (including negation!)
- SQL has other features, e.g., adding numbers
- Specific RDBMSs have own extensions or restrictions

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Some relevant questions:

- **Can I use negation to filter duplicates during recursion?**  
SQL allows this, but implementations like MS SQL Server return wrong results when trying this (unsuitable implementation approach that operates “depth-first” tuple-by-tuple using separate “stacks”).
- **Can I use the CTE more than once in a recursive term?**  
SQL allows this, but not all RDBMSs support it. Even RDBMSs that allow it may not always implement it correctly, so some care is needed.

## Expressive Power of Recursive SQL (2)

SQL is too powerful for a declarative recursive query language:

- Combination of negation and recursion is hard to define and implement.
- Functions such as addition can extend the active domain.

↪ non-declarative approach to recursion (Turing complete)

↪ all implementations allow non-terminating queries

With care, one can still formulate sane queries.

Expressive power in terms of Datalog:

- Minimal: linear Datalog with bounded recursion depth (can still be useful, e.g., for navigating hierarchies)
- Maximal: arbitrary semi-positive Datalog with successor order, and beyond



# Recursion in SQL: Conclusions

## Mixed picture of recursion in SQL:

- SQL'99 supports arbitrary Datalog
- Practical implementations are ad hoc and rather limited
- No simple & terminating queries with unbounded recursion
- Some implementations seem to support at least linear Datalog in a clean way (e.g., PostgreSQL supports `UNION` and duplicate elimination in recursive CTEs, using a special case of semi-naive evaluation)
- Online documentation mostly fails to clarify restrictions

# Recursion in SQL: Conclusions

## Mixed picture of recursion in SQL:

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## Recursive CTEs are not the only option:

- Oracle has a proprietary SQL extension `CONNECT BY`
- similar to Transitive Closure operator in FO queries
- designed for linear recursion

Oracle speaks of “subquery factoring” when using CTEs.

# Practical Recursion Beyond SQL

SQL support for recursion is a bit shaky

~> how about other types of DBMSs?

Recursion plays a role in a number of distinct areas, including:

- Datalog implementations
- XQuery and XPath query languages for XML
- SPARQL query language for RDF
- Graph query languages

# Datalog Implementation in Practice

Dedicated Datalog engines as of 2022 (incomplete):

- **VLog** Fast in-memory Datalog materialisation with bindings to several databases, including RDF and RDBMS (free, co-developed at TU Dresden)
- **Graal** In-memory rule engine with RDBMS bindings (free)
- **Gringo** Fast Datalog-based grounder for answer set programming (free)
- **RDFox** Fast in-memory RDF database with runtime materialisation and updates (commercial)
- **Vadalog** Closed-source engine with several extensions (commercial)
- **Llunatic** PostgreSQL-based implementation of a rule engine (free, discontinued)
- **SocialLite** and **EmptyHeaded** Datalog-based languages and engines for social network analysis
- **DeepDive** Data analysis platform with support for Datalog-based language “DDlog”
- **DLV** Answer set programming engine that is usable on Datalog programs (commercial)
- **Datomic** Distributed, versioned database using Datalog as main query language (commercial)
- **LogicBlox** Big data analytics platform that uses Datalog rules (commercial, discontinued)
- **E** Fast theorem prover for first-order logic with equality; can be used on Datalog as well
- ...

↪ Extremely diverse tools for very different requirements

# Querying RDF Graphs with SPARQL

## SPARQL Protocol and RDF Query Language

- Query language for RDF graphs (roughly: labelled, directed graphs)
- W3C standard, currently in version 1.1 (2013)
- Widely used for accessing RDF databases

# Querying RDF Graphs with SPARQL

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## Structure of a simple SPARQL query:

```
SELECT <variable list> WHERE { <pattern> }
```

- <pattern> is a **basic graph pattern**: a list of “triples” of the form “subject predicate object .” (denoting an edge from subject to object labelled by predicate)
- Patterns may contain variables (marked by prefix ?) that can be selected
- Many other features (more complex conditions in queries, limit & offset, grouping & aggregation, ...)

# SPARQL Query Example

Find people whose parents were born in the same city in Saxony, and return them together with that city:

```
PREFIX ex: <http://example.org/>
SELECT ?person ?city
WHERE {
    ?person ex:hasMother ?mother .
    ?person ex:hasFather ?father .
    ?mother ex:bornIn ?city .
    ?father ex:bornIn ?city .
    ?city ex:locatedIn ex:Saxony .
}
```

Essentially a conjunctive query with ternary EDB predicates written in a simple text-based syntax

# SPARQL and Recursion

Since version 1.1, SPARQL supports C2RPQs:

## Property Path Expressions

Regular expression syntax:

- Single letter: name (URI) of a property (predicate) in RDF
- Converse  $\ell^-$  of letter  $\ell$  is written as  $\hat{\ell}$
- Sequence ( $\circ$ ) is  $/$ , alternative ( $+$ ) is  $|$ , zero-or-more is  $*$
- Other features: optional  $?$ , one-or-more  $+$ , atomic negation  $!$

Example:

```
PREFIX ex: <http://example.org/>
```

```
SELECT ?person ?ancestor
```

```
WHERE {
```

```
    ?person ( (ex:hasMother|ex:hasFather)+ ) ?ancestor .
```

```
}
```



# Recursion in SPARQL: Conclusions

## Widely supported feature of most modern RDF databases

- Set-based semantics that agrees with C2RPQs
- Typically implemented in a declarative way (no operational extensions)
- Guaranteed to terminate, given sufficient resources
- Performance depends on implementation and data (not all implementations have a good optimiser for property paths)
- Example systems: BlazeGraph, OpenLink Virtuoso, Stardog, Amazon Neptune, . . .
- Frequently used (in particular on Wikidata, where around 20% of SPARQL queries used \* in Jan–Mar 2018 [Malyshev et al., ISWC 2018])

# Recursion in other Graph Databases

Graph databases support recursive queries, but there is no standard query language  
→ sometimes not fully clear what is supported/moving target

Example: Cypher query language in Neo4J

```
MATCH (p)-[r:HasMother|HasFather*]->(a)
WHERE p.name='Alice'
RETURN p,r,a
```

- Support for retrieving matched paths (*r* in example)
- Additional graph search features (shortest path, limited recursion, etc.)
- No full support for RPQs, since stars cannot be applied to complex expressions
- Query matching is based on **isomorphism** rather than homomorphism

(does not make a difference when checking the existence of simple paths, but does make a difference for CQs and for counting queries)

For further information on graph databases and their features, see the course “[Knowledge Graphs](#)” at TU Dresden (offered in winter term).

# Recursion in XML Document Processing

**XML** a W3C standard for a document markup language

- XML is used for markup and data representation
- XML documents can be interpreted under a tree-shaped Document Object Model (DOM)
- DOM tree is an ordered tree where each node has a type, and optionally also attribute values

The XML query language **XPath** defines ways to query XML DOMs

- W3C standard now in version 3.0 (2014); many practical implementations based on XPath 1.0
- Key concept: expressions to select (query) nodes and attributes in a DOM tree
- Recursion is important for navigating trees

# XPath Expression Examples

XPath expressions navigate the DOM tree by using natural binary relations among nodes, called *axes*, such as “child” and “descendant.”

Example XPath expressions:

- `/A/B` nodes of type B that are children of a node of type A that is the root of the DOM tree
- `A//C` arbitrary descendants of the a node of type A that is the start node (context node) for the query
- `//C[./D/E]/F` nodes of type F that are the child of a node of type C anywhere in the DOM, where the C-node has a D child that has an E child.

There are many further features related to attribute selection and use of other axes

# XPath: Expressive Power

XPath is related to 2RPQs

- There are some differences between DOM trees and words
- Many XPath location steps could be written in 2RPQ

**Predicates** in square brackets are used to test additional path-like conditions for a node

- Example:  $A[./B]$  only matches  $A$ -type nodes that have a descendant of type  $B$
- Corresponds to unary sub-2RPQs of the form  $\exists y.E(x, y)$  that test if a node  $x$  has an  $E$ -path to some other node

$\leadsto$  not expressible in (C)2RPQs without further extensions

# Recursion in XPath: Conclusions

## XPath: XML navigation base on path queries

- Declarative, set-based semantics
- Standardised in several versions
- Many implementations (program libraries, some DBMS)
- Large number of features – hard to analyse theoretically

## Related approaches:

- **XQuery**: extension of XPath with computational features
- **CSS Selectors**: simple query language for navigating HTML documents

# Summary and Outlook



# Summary: Queries

We have covered three main topics:

- first-order queries
- Datalog
- path query languages

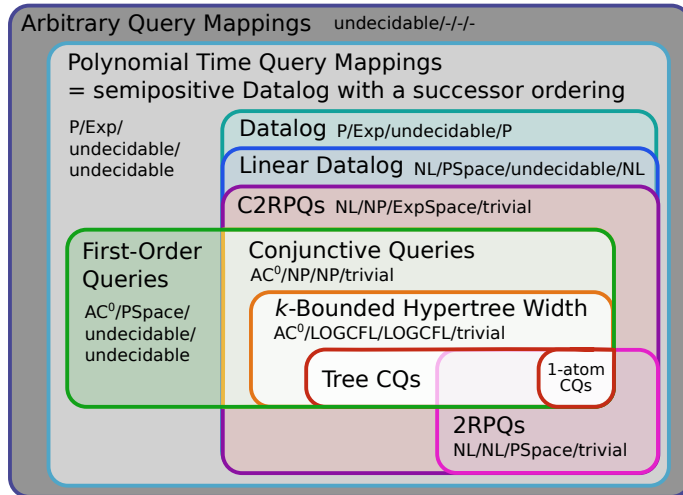
looking at the following main aspects:

- expressive power
- complexity of query answering
- complexity/feasibility of perfect query optimisation
- some algorithmic approaches

Equal focus on results and methods

↪ understanding **why** something holds

# The Ultimate Big Picture



Legend: Data compl./Comb. & Query compl./Equivalence & containment/Emptiness

# The Big Picture: Notes for Offline Reading

- Given complexities usually are upper and lower bounds (“complete”), though  $AC^0$  is just an upper bound
- “Linear Datalog” refers to the strict definition given in the course. Some authors consider a final CQ “on top” of linear Datalog programs, but this does not change anything (see below).
- The “-” for arbitrary query mappings mean that these problems are not defined (we have no query expressions that could be the input of an algorithm, just mappings).
- Some complexities given were not shown, including P-completeness of Datalog emptiness (left as exercise).
- Most complexities for semipositive Datalog with a successor ordering are easily obtained from Datalog using the fact that the required negated EDB predicates and ordering facts can be added to a given database in polynomial time.

# The Big Picture: Notes for Offline Reading

Emptiness of semipositive Datalog with a successor ordering is not quite so obvious . . .

Proof sketch:

- Emptiness of the intersection of two context-free grammars  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  is undecidable.
- The word problem of context-free grammars is in P.
- A database can encode a word if it is a linear chain using binary letter predicates. This can be checked in P.
- Semipositive Datalog with successor captures P, so there is a Boolean query  $P_{G_1, G_2}$  in this language that decides if the database encodes a word that is in  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ .
- The emptiness problem of  $P_{G_1, G_2}$  is equivalent to the emptiness problem for  $G_1 \cap G_2$ .

# The Big Picture: Notes for Offline Reading

The fact that linear Datalog extends C2RPQ is not obvious either:  
how can we express conjunctions over IDBs there?

Proof sketch:<sup>1</sup>

- The C2RPQ can be viewed as a CQ over IDBs that are defined by linear Datalog programs obtained for 2RPQs
- Without loss of generality, we assume that each of these linear Datalog programs uses differently named IDB predicates
- We transform this CQ over IDB atoms step by step
- In each step, process two IDB atoms  $Q(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and  $R(y_1, \dots, y_m)$ 
  - Replace them by a single new atom  $R'(x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_m)$
  - Use linear rules that consist of all rules used for defining  $Q$  together with modified versions of the rules for  $R$  that “remember” a binding for  $Q$  while deriving facts about  $R$ .
- Continue until only one IDB is left in the conjunction.

---

<sup>1</sup>For details on a similar proof, see Theorem 3 in P. Bourhis, M. Krötzsch, S. Rudolph: Reasonable Highly Expressive Query Languages, Proc. IJCAI 2015.

# Summary: Dependencies

## Dependencies

- provide useful information about the database schema
- can be used for defining (recursive) views and integrating data
- generalise many concrete types of DB dependencies

The **chase** provides a principled bottom-up method for computing universal models and answering queries.

**Query entailment under dependencies is undecidable,**

but we have seen three approaches to overcome this:

- **Finiteness**: universal models are finite (several acyclicity notions)
- **Bounded treewidth**: universal models have bounded treewidth (several guardedness conditions)
- **First-order rewritability**: queries can be finitely rewritten (linearity and other conditions)

# Conclusions

The relational data model remains the most widely used general data model, but alternative data models are now also relevant:

- “noSQL” data models (graphs, trees, documents, map, ...)
- All major RDBMS vendors have products in this space, sometimes based on their RDBMSs, sometimes not
- Revival of specialised stores and data models

The same basic theory applies to relational and non-relational DBMSs:

- all data models can be viewed as relational
- fundamental query types re-appear in many settings (CQs, path queries, ...)
- non-relational DBMS are taking the lead in realising more advanced concepts (recursive queries, clean set-based semantics)

# What's next?

Current data management landscape is extremely dynamic and hard to predict – interesting times!

- Many further topics not covered here (data stream processing, distributed models of computation, analytical queries, ...)
- Many theoretical questions remain open (further query languages, constraints/ontologies, algorithms, ...)

A wider view is key to success:

- Practitioners need to know their tools and be ready to combine them into custom solutions
- Theoreticians need to combine methods from distinct areas and re-integrate practical developments



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Basic principles are more important than short-lived technology trends, but practice and theory must interact to create relevant and meaningful solutions.