

DATABASE THEORY

Lecture 14: Datalog Implementation

Markus Krötzsch Knowledge-Based Systems

TU Dresden, 19th June 2018

Review: Datalog

A rule-based recursive query language

```
\begin{aligned} & \text{father(alice, bob)} \\ & \text{mother(alice, carla)} \\ & & \text{Parent}(x,y) \leftarrow \text{father}(x,y) \\ & & \text{Parent}(x,y) \leftarrow \text{mother}(x,y) \\ & \text{SameGeneration}(x,x) \\ & \text{SameGeneration}(x,y) \leftarrow \text{Parent}(x,v) \land \text{Parent}(y,w) \land \text{SameGeneration}(v,w) \end{aligned}
```

- Datalog is more complex than FO query answering
- Datalog is more expressive than FO query answering
- Semipositive Datalog with a successor ordering captures P
- Datalog containment is undecidable

Remaining question: How can Datalog query answering be implemented?

Implementing Datalog

FO queries (and thus also CQs and UCQs) are supported by almost all DBMS

→ many specific implementation and optimisation techniques

How can Datalog queries be answered in practice?

→ techniques for dealing with recursion in DBMS query answering

Implementing Datalog

FO queries (and thus also CQs and UCQs) are supported by almost all DBMS → many specific implementation and optimisation techniques

How can Datalog queries be answered in practice?

→ techniques for dealing with recursion in DBMS query answering

There are two major paradigms for answering recursive queries:

- Bottom-up: derive conclusions by applying rules to given facts
- Top-down: search for proofs to infer results given query

Computing Datalog Query Answers Bottom-Up

We already saw a way to compute Datalog answers bottom-up: the step-wise computation of the consequence operator T_P

Bottom-up computation is known under many names:

- Forward-chaining since rules are "chained" from premise to conclusion (common in logic programming)
- Materialisation since inferred facts are stored ("materialised") (common in databases)
- Saturation since the input database is "saturated" with inferences (common in theorem proving)
- Deductive closure since we "close" the input under entailments (common in formal logic)

Naive Evaluation of Datalog Queries

A direct approach for computing T_P^{∞}

```
T_{p}^{0} := \emptyset
01
        i := 0
02
03
         repeat:
                 T_{p}^{i+1} := \emptyset
04
                 for H \leftarrow B_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge B_\ell \in P:
05
06
                          for \theta \in B_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge B_\ell(T_P^i):
                                  T_{p}^{i+1} := T_{p}^{i+1} \cup \{H\theta\}
07
08
                 i := i + 1
         until T_{p}^{i-1} = T_{p}^{i}
09
         return T_p^i
10
```

Notation for line 06/07:

- a substitution θ is a mapping from variables to database elements
- for a formula F, we write $F\theta$ for the formula obtained by replacing each free variable x in F by $\theta(x)$
- for a CQ Q and database I, we write $\theta \in Q(I)$ if $I \models Q\theta$

An example Datalog program:

(R1)
$$e(1,2)$$
 $e(2,3)$ $e(3,4)$ $e(4,5)$
(R2) $T(x,y) \leftarrow e(x,y)$
 $(x,z) \leftarrow T(x,y) \wedge T(y,z)$

$$\begin{split} T_P^0 &= \emptyset \\ T_P^1 &= \{\mathsf{T}(1,2), \mathsf{T}(2,3), \mathsf{T}(3,4), \mathsf{T}(4,5)\} \\ T_P^2 &= T_P^1 \cup \{\mathsf{T}(1,3), \mathsf{T}(2,4), \mathsf{T}(3,5)\} \\ T_P^3 &= T_P^2 \cup \{\mathsf{T}(1,4), \mathsf{T}(2,5), \mathsf{T}(1,5)\} \\ T_P^4 &= T_P^3 = T_P^\infty \end{split}$$

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$$e(1,2) \quad e(2,3) \quad e(3,4) \quad e(4,5)$$
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An example Datalog program:

(R1)
$$e(1, 2) e(2, 3) e(3, 4) e(4, 5)$$

(R2) $T(x, y) \leftarrow e(x, y)$
 $F(x, z) \leftarrow F(x, y) \wedge F(y, z)$

How many body matches do we need to iterate over?

$$\begin{split} T_P^0 &= \emptyset & \text{initialisation} \\ T_P^1 &= \{\mathsf{T}(1,2),\mathsf{T}(2,3),\mathsf{T}(3,4),\mathsf{T}(4,5)\} & 4 \text{ matches for } (R1) \\ T_P^2 &= T_P^1 \cup \{\mathsf{T}(1,3),\mathsf{T}(2,4),\mathsf{T}(3,5)\} & 4 \times (R1) + 3 \times (R2) \\ T_P^3 &= T_P^2 \cup \{\mathsf{T}(1,4),\mathsf{T}(2,5),\mathsf{T}(1,5)\} & 4 \times (R1) + 8 \times (R2) \\ T_P^4 &= T_P^3 = T_P^\infty & 4 \times (R1) + 10 \times (R2) \end{split}$$

In total, we considered 37 matches to derive 11 facts

Less Naive Evaluation Strategies

Does it really matter how often we consider a rule match? After all, each fact is added only once ...

Markus Krötzsch, 19th June 2018 Database Theory Slide 7 of 13

Less Naive Evaluation Strategies

Does it really matter how often we consider a rule match? After all, each fact is added only once ...

In practice, finding applicable rules takes significant time, even if the conclusion does not need to be added – iteration takes time!

→ huge potential for optimisation

Observation:

we derive the same conclusions over and over again in each step

Idea: apply rules only to newly derived facts

→ semi-naive evaluation

Semi-Naive Evaluation

The computation yields sets $T_P^0 \subseteq T_P^1 \subseteq T_P^2 \subseteq \ldots \subseteq T_P^\infty$

- For an IDB predicate R, let R^i be the "predicate" that contains exactly the R-facts in T^i_P
- For $i \leq 1$, let Δ_{R}^{i} be the collection of facts $R^{i} \setminus R^{i-1}$

We can restrict rules to use only some computations.

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- For an IDB predicate R, let R^i be the "predicate" that contains exactly the R-facts in T_P^i
- For $i \le 1$, let Δ_{R}^i be the collection of facts $\mathsf{R}^i \setminus \mathsf{R}^{i-1}$

We can restrict rules to use only some computations.

Some options for the computation in step i + 1:

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{T}(x,z) &\leftarrow \mathsf{T}^i(x,y) \wedge \mathsf{T}^i(y,z) & \text{same as original rule} \\ \mathsf{T}(x,z) &\leftarrow \Delta^i_\mathsf{T}(x,y) \wedge \Delta^i_\mathsf{T}(y,z) & \text{restrict to new facts} \\ \mathsf{T}(x,z) &\leftarrow \Delta^i_\mathsf{T}(x,y) \wedge \mathsf{T}^i(y,z) & \text{partially restrict to new facts} \\ \mathsf{T}(x,z) &\leftarrow \mathsf{T}^i(x,y) \wedge \Delta^i_\mathsf{T}(y,z) & \text{partially restrict to new facts} \end{split}$$

What to choose?

Semi-Naive Evaluation (2)

Inferences that involve new and old facts are necessary:

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$$\begin{array}{cccc} & & \mathsf{e}(1,2) & \mathsf{e}(2,3) & \mathsf{e}(3,4) & \mathsf{e}(4,5) \\ (R1) & & \mathsf{T}(x,y) \leftarrow \mathsf{e}(x,y) \\ (R2) & & \mathsf{T}(x,z) \leftarrow \mathsf{T}(x,y) \wedge \mathsf{T}(y,z) \end{array}$$

$$T_{P}^{0} = \emptyset$$

$$\Delta_{\mathsf{T}}^{1} = \{\mathsf{T}(1,2),\mathsf{T}(2,3),\mathsf{T}(3,4),\mathsf{T}(3,4),\mathsf{T}(4,5)\} \qquad T_{P}^{1} = \Delta_{\mathsf{T}}^{1}$$

$$\Delta_{\mathsf{T}}^{2} = \{\mathsf{T}(1,3),\mathsf{T}(2,4),\mathsf{T}(3,5)\} \qquad T_{P}^{2} = T_{P}^{1} \cup \Delta_{\mathsf{T}}^{2}$$

$$\Delta_{\mathsf{T}}^{3} = \{\mathsf{T}(1,4),\mathsf{T}(2,5),\mathsf{T}(1,5)\} \qquad T_{P}^{3} = T_{P}^{2} \cup \Delta_{\mathsf{T}}^{3}$$

$$\Delta_{\mathsf{T}}^{4} = \emptyset \qquad T_{P}^{4} = T_{P}^{3} = T_{P}^{3}$$

To derive T(1,4) in Δ_T^3 , we need to combine $T(1,3)\in\Delta_T^2$ with $T(3,4)\in\Delta_T^1$ or $T(1,2)\in\Delta_T^1$ with $T(2,4)\in\Delta_T^2$

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Inferences that involve new and old facts are necessary:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} & & \mathsf{e}(1,2) & \mathsf{e}(2,3) & \mathsf{e}(3,4) & \mathsf{e}(4,5) \\ (R1) & & \mathsf{T}(x,y) \leftarrow \mathsf{e}(x,y) \\ (R2) & & \mathsf{T}(x,z) \leftarrow \mathsf{T}(x,y) \wedge \mathsf{T}(y,z) \end{array}$$

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To derive $\mathsf{T}(1,4)$ in Δ_T^3 , we need to combine $\mathsf{T}(1,3) \in \Delta_\mathsf{T}^2$ with $\mathsf{T}(3,4) \in \Delta_\mathsf{T}^1$ or $\mathsf{T}(1,2) \in \Delta_\mathsf{T}^1$ with $\mathsf{T}(2,4) \in \Delta_\mathsf{T}^2$ \rightsquigarrow rule $\mathsf{T}(x,z) \leftarrow \Delta_\mathsf{T}^i(x,y) \land \Delta_\mathsf{T}^i(y,z)$ is not enough

Semi-Naive Evaluation (3)

Correct approach: consider only rule application that use at least one newly derived IDB atom

For example program:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} & & \text{e}(1,2) & \text{e}(2,3) & \text{e}(3,4) & \text{e}(4,5) \\ (R1) & & \mathsf{T}(x,y) \leftarrow \mathsf{e}(x,y) \\ (R2.1) & & \mathsf{T}(x,z) \leftarrow \Delta_{\mathsf{T}}^{i}(x,y) \wedge \mathsf{T}^{i}(y,z) \\ (R2.2) & & \mathsf{T}(x,z) \leftarrow \mathsf{T}^{i}(x,y) \wedge \Delta_{\mathsf{T}}^{i}(y,z) \end{array}$$

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There is still redundancy here: the matches for $T(x,z) \leftarrow \Delta_T^i(x,y) \wedge \Delta_T^i(y,z)$ are covered by both (R2.1) and (R2.2)

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 \rightarrow replace (R2.2) by the following rule:

$$(R2.2')$$
 $\mathsf{T}(x,z) \leftarrow \mathsf{T}^{i-1}(x,y) \wedge \Delta^i_{\mathsf{T}}(y,z)$

EDB atoms do not change, so their Δ would be \emptyset

 \rightarrow ignore such rules after the first iteration

$$\begin{array}{cccc} & & \text{e}(1,2) & \text{e}(2,3) & \text{e}(3,4) & \text{e}(4,5) \\ & & & & & & & & \\ (R1) & & & & & & & \\ (R2.1) & & & & & & & \\ (R2.2') & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & &$$

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initialisation

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$$\begin{array}{cccc} & & \mathsf{e}(1,2) & \mathsf{e}(2,3) & \mathsf{e}(3,4) & \mathsf{e}(4,5) \\ (R1) & & \mathsf{T}(x,y) \leftarrow \mathsf{e}(x,y) \\ (R2.1) & & \mathsf{T}(x,z) \leftarrow \Delta_\mathsf{T}^i(x,y) \wedge \mathsf{T}^i(y,z) \\ (R2.2') & & \mathsf{T}(x,z) \leftarrow \mathsf{T}^{i-1}(x,y) \wedge \Delta_\mathsf{T}^i(y,z) \end{array}$$

How many body matches do we need to iterate over?

$$\begin{split} T_P^0 &= \emptyset & \text{initialisation} \\ T_P^1 &= \{\mathsf{T}(1,2),\mathsf{T}(2,3),\mathsf{T}(3,4),\mathsf{T}(4,5)\} & 4 \times (R1) \\ T_P^2 &= T_P^1 \cup \{\mathsf{T}(1,3),\mathsf{T}(2,4),\mathsf{T}(3,5)\} & 3 \times (R2.1) \\ T_P^3 &= T_P^2 \cup \{\mathsf{T}(1,4),\mathsf{T}(2,5),\mathsf{T}(1,5)\} & 3 \times (R2.1),2 \times (R2.2') \\ T_P^4 &= T_P^3 &= T_P^\infty & 1 \times (R2.1),1 \times (R2.2') \end{split}$$

In total, we considered 14 matches to derive 11 facts

Semi-Naive Evaluation: Full Definition

In general, a rule of the form

$$\mathsf{H}(\vec{x}) \leftarrow \mathsf{e}_1(\vec{y}_1) \wedge \ldots \wedge \mathsf{e}_n(\vec{y}_n) \wedge \mathsf{I}_1(\vec{z}_1) \wedge \mathsf{I}_2(\vec{z}_2) \wedge \ldots \wedge \mathsf{I}_m(\vec{z}_m)$$

is transformed into m rules

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{H}(\vec{x}) &\leftarrow \mathsf{e}_1(\vec{y}_1) \wedge \ldots \wedge \mathsf{e}_n(\vec{y}_n) \wedge \Delta^i_{\mathsf{l}_1}(\vec{z}_1) \wedge \mathsf{l}^i_2(\vec{z}_2) \wedge \ldots \wedge \mathsf{l}^i_m(\vec{z}_m) \\ \mathsf{H}(\vec{x}) &\leftarrow \mathsf{e}_1(\vec{y}_1) \wedge \ldots \wedge \mathsf{e}_n(\vec{y}_n) \wedge \mathsf{l}^{i-1}_1(\vec{z}_1) \wedge \Delta^i_{\mathsf{l}_2}(\vec{z}_2) \wedge \ldots \wedge \mathsf{l}^i_m(\vec{z}_m) \\ &\cdots \\ \mathsf{H}(\vec{x}) &\leftarrow \mathsf{e}_1(\vec{y}_1) \wedge \ldots \wedge \mathsf{e}_n(\vec{y}_n) \wedge \mathsf{l}^{i-1}_1(\vec{z}_1) \wedge \mathsf{l}^{i-1}_2(\vec{z}_2) \wedge \ldots \wedge \Delta^i_{\mathsf{l}_m}(\vec{z}_m) \end{split}$$

Advantages and disadvantages:

- Huge improvement over naive evaluation
- Some redundant computations remain (see example)
- Some overhead for implementation (store level of entailments)

Summary and Outlook

Datalog queries can be evaluated bottom-up or top-down

Simplest practical bottom-up technique: semi-naive evaluation

Next question:

• How can we implement Datalog in practice?