## Logical Query Languages

Motivation:

1. Logical rules extend more naturally to recursive queries than does relational algebra.

- Used in SQL3 recursion.

2. Logical rules form the basis for many information-integration systems and applications.

## Datalog Example

Likes (drinker, beer)
Sells(bar, beer, price)
Frequents (drinker, bar)
Happy (d) <-
Frequents(d,bar) AND
Likes(d,beer) AND
Sells(bar, beer, p)

- Above is a rule.
- Left side $=$ head .

Right side $=$ body $=$ AND of subgoals.

- Head and subgoals are atoms.
$-\quad$ Atom $=$ predicate and arguments.
- Predicate $=$ relation name or arithmetic predicate, e.g. <.
- Arguments are variables or constants.
- Subgoals (not head) may optionally be negated by NOT.


## Meaning of Rules

Head is true of its arguments if there exist values for local variables (those in body, not in head) that make all of the subgoals true.

- If no negation or arithmetic comparisons, just natural join the subgoals and project onto the head variables.


## Example

Above rule equivalent to Happy (d) $=$
$\pi_{\text {drinker }}($ Frequents $\bowtie$ Likes $\bowtie$ Sells)

## Evaluation of Rules

Two, dual, approaches:

1. Variable-based: Consider all possible assignments of values to variables. If all subgoals are true, add the head to the result relation.
2. Tuple-based: Consider all assignments of tuples to subgoals that make each subgoal true. If the variables are assigned consistent values, add the head to the result.

Example: Variable-Based Assignment

$$
S(x, y)<-R(x, z) \text { AND } R(z, y)
$$

AND NOT $R(x, y)$
$R=$


- Only assignments that make first subgoal true:

1. $x \rightarrow 1, z \rightarrow 2$.
2. $\quad x \rightarrow 2, z \rightarrow 3$.

- In case (1), $y \rightarrow 3$ makes second subgoal true. Since $(1,3)$ is not in $R$, the third subgoal is also true.
$\checkmark \quad$ Thus, add $(x, y)=(1,3)$ to relation $S$.
In case (2), no value of $y$ makes the second subgoal true. Thus, $S=$



## Example: Tuple-Based Assignment

Trick: start with the positive (not negated), relational (not arithmetic) subgoals only.

$$
\begin{gathered}
S(x, y)<-R(x, z) \operatorname{AND} R(z, y) \\
\text { AND NOT } R(x, y)
\end{gathered}
$$

$R=$


- Four assignments of tuples to subgoals:

| $R(x, z)$ | $R(z, y)$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $(1,2)$ | $(1,2)$ |
| $(1,2)$ | $(2,3)$ |
| $(2,3)$ | $(1,2)$ |
| $(2,3)$ | $(2,3)$ |

- Only the second gives a consistent value to $z$.
- That assignment also makes NOT $R(x, y)$ true.
- Thus, $(1,3)$ is the only tuple for the head.


## Safety

A rule can make no sense if variables appear in funny ways.

## Examples

- $S(x)<-R(y)$
- $\quad S(x)<-\operatorname{NOT} R(x)$
- $S(x)<-R(y)$ AND $x<y$

In each of these cases, the result is infinite, even if the relation $R$ is finite.

- To make sense as a database operation, we need to require three things of a variable $x$. If $x$ appears in either

1. The head,
2. A negated subgoal, or
3. An arithmetic comparison,
then $x$ must also appear in a nonnegated, "ordinary" (relational) subgoal of the body.

- We insist that rules be safe, henceforth.


## Datalog Programs

- A collection of rules is a Datalog program.
- Predicates/relations divide into two classes:
$-\mathrm{EDB}=$ extensional database $=$ relation stored in DB.
- IDB $=$ intensional database $=$ relation defined by one or more rules.
- A predicate must be IDB or EDB, not both.
- Thus, an IDB predicate can appear in the body or head of a rule; EDB only in the body.


## Example

Convert the following SQL (Find the manufacturers of the beers Joe sells):

Beers (name, manf)
Sells(bar, beer, price)
SELECT manf
FROM Beers
WHERE name IN(
SELECT beer
FROM Sells WHERE bar = 'Joe''s Bar'
);
to a Datalog program.
JoeSells(b) <Sells('Joe''s Bar', b, p)
Answer (m) <-
JoeSells(b) AND Beers (b,m)

- Note: Beers, Sells = EDB; JoeSells, Answer $=$ IDB.


## Expressive Power of Datalog

- Nonrecursive Datalog = relational algebra.
- Datalog simulates SQL select-from-where without aggregation and grouping.
- Recursive Datalog expresses queries that cannot be expressed in SQL.
- But none of these languages have full expressive power (Turing completeness).


## Relational Algebra to Datalog

- Text has constructions for each of the operators of R.A.
- Only hard part: selections with OR's and NOT's.
- Simulate a R.A. expression in Datalog by creating an IDB predicate for each interior node and using the constuction for the operator at that node.

Example: Find the bars that sell two different beers at the same price.


```
R1(bar,beer1,beer,price) <-
    Sells(bar,beer1,price) AND
    Sells(bar,beer,price);
R2(bar,beer1,beer, price) <-
    R1(bar,beer1,beer,price) AND
    beer1 <> beer;
Answer(bar) <-
    R2(bar,beer1,beer,price);
```


## Datalog to Relational Algebra

- General rule is complex; the following often works for single rules:
- Problems not handled: constant arguments and variables appearing twice in the same atom.
- Can you provide the necessary fixes?

1. Use $\rho$ to create for each relational subgoal a relation whose schema is the variables of that subgoal.
2. Handle negated subgoals by finding an expression for the finite set of all possible values for each of its variables ( $\pi$ a suitable column) and take their product. Then subtract.
3. Natural join the relations from (1), (2).
4. Get the effect of arithmetic comparisons with $\sigma$.
5. Project onto head with $\pi$.

- Several rules for same predicate: use $\cup$.


## Example

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{S}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})<-\mathrm{R}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{z}) \operatorname{AND} \mathrm{R}(\mathrm{z}, \mathrm{y}) \\
& \quad \text { AND } \operatorname{NOT} \mathrm{R}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}) \\
& \mathrm{S} 1(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}, \mathrm{z}):=\rho_{R 1(x, z)}(\mathrm{R}) \bowtie \rho_{R 2(z, y)}(\mathrm{R}) ; \\
& \mathrm{S} 2(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}):=\pi_{x}(\mathrm{~S} 1) \times \pi_{y}(\mathrm{~S} 1) ; \\
& \mathrm{S} 3(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}):=\mathrm{S} 2-\rho_{R 3(x, y)}(\mathrm{R}) ; \\
& \mathrm{S}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}):=\pi_{x, y}(\mathrm{~S} 1(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}, \mathrm{z}) \bowtie \mathrm{S} 3(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})) ;
\end{aligned}
$$

## Recursion

- IDB predicate $P$ depends on predicate $Q$ if there is a rule with $P$ in the head and $Q$ in a subgoal.
- Draw a graph: nodes $=$ IDB predicates, arc $P \rightarrow Q$ means $P$ depends on $Q$.
- Cycles iff recursive.

Recursive Example

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Sib}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})<-\operatorname{Par}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{p}) \operatorname{AND} \operatorname{Par}(\mathrm{y}, \mathrm{p}) \\
& \operatorname{AND} \mathrm{x}<>\mathrm{y} \\
& \operatorname{Cousin}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})<-\operatorname{Sib}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}) \\
& \text { Cousin }(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})<-\operatorname{Par}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{xp}) \\
& \text { AND Par }(\mathrm{y}, \mathrm{yp}) \\
& \text { AND Cousin }(\mathrm{xp}, \mathrm{yp})
\end{aligned}
$$

Iterative Fixed-Point Evaluates Recursive Rules


## Example

## EDB Par =



Note, because of symmetry, Sib and Cousin facts appear in pairs, so we shall mention only $(x, y)$ when both $(x, y)$ and $(y, x)$ are meant.

|  | Sib | Cousin |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Initial | $\emptyset$ | $\emptyset$ |
| Round 1 | $(b, c),(c, e)$ | $\emptyset$ |
| add: | $(g, h),(j, k)$ |  |
| Round 2 | $(b, c),(c, e)$ |  |
| add: | $(g, h),(j, k)$ |  |
| Round 3 | $(f, g),(f, h)$ |  |
| add: | $(g, i),(h, i)$ |  |
|  | $(i, k)$ |  |
| Round 4 | $(k, k)$ |  |
| add: | $(i, j)$ |  |

