## Database Systems CSE 414

Lecture 13: Datalog
(Ch 5.3-5.4)

## Midterm

- Content
- Lectures 1 through 13 (today / Wednesday)
- HW 1-3, WQ 1-4
- Closed book. No computers, phones, watches, etc.!
- Can bring one letter-sized piece of paper with notes, but..
- test will not be about memorization
- formulas provided for join algorithms \& selectivity
- can ask me during test about anything you could look up
- Similar in format \& content to CSE 414 16sp midterm
- CSE 344 tests include some things we did not cover


## Datalog

- See book: 5.3-5.4
- See also: Query Language primer
- article by Dan Suciu
- covers relational calculus as well

```
USE Adventureworks20esR2;
```



```
AS
-- Anchor nenter definition
    SELECT e.MangerID, e.ETnioveciO, e.Title, edh.DepartmentID,
    MFRO dbo.NYEEmployes AS e
    INNER joiN tunoneesources.EnployeevepartmentHistory As edh 
    CN e.EnploveTID edh. BusinessEntityTD AlD edh. EnvDate IS muLI
    MHERE Manag
```



```
        Nangerid, e.Empi
    INwER JoIN Hmanfe sources.EEproyeeolepartmentHistory as eath
```



```
        NWER JOIN Directreports.asd d
'.. staterent that executes the CIG
```



```
IN
M MHRE di.Groupllame - N Soles and Marketing' OR Level -
    SQL Query vs Datalog
(which would you rather write?)
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Some History
Early database history:
- 60s: network data models
- 70s: relational DBMSs
- 80s: OO-DBMSs
UBMSs still dominate (1988) predicts KBMSs will
replace DBMSs as they replaced what
came before
- KBMS: knowledge-base
- combines data \& logic (inferences)
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\section*{Datalog}

We won't run datalog in 414. Try out on you own:
- Download DLV (http://www.dlvsystem.com/dlv/)
- Run DLV on this file
- Can also try IRIS
(http://www.iris-reasoner.org/demo)

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{Actor(pid, fname, Iname) Casts(pid, mid)} \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{Movie(mid, name, year)} \\
\hline Datalog: Fact & and Rules \\
\hline Facts = tuples in the database & Rules = queries \\
\hline Actor(344759,'Douglas', 'Fowley'). Casts(344759, 29851). & Q1(y) :- Movie(x,y, 1940 '). \\
\hline Casts(355713, 29000). & \\
\hline Movie(7909, 'A Night in Armour', 1910). & \\
\hline Movie(29000, 'Arizona', 1940). & \\
\hline Movie(29445, 'Ave Maria', 1940). & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{Why Do We Learn Datalog?}
- Datalog can be translated to SQL
- Helps to express complex queries
- Increase in datalog interest due to recursive analytics
- A query language that is closest to mathematical logic
- Good language to reason about query properties
- Can show that:
1. Non-recursive datalog \& RA have equivalent power
2. Recursive datalog is strictly more powerful than RA
3. Extended RA \& SQL92 is strictly more powerful than datalog

Actor(pid, fname, Iname)
Casts(pid, mid)
Movie(mid, name, year)

\section*{Datalog: Facts and Rules}
\begin{tabular}{l} 
Facts = tuples in the database \\
\begin{tabular}{|l|c|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{l|l} 
Actor(344759,'Douglas', 'Fowley'). \\
Casts(344759, 29851).
\end{tabular} & Q1(y) :- Movie(x,y,'1940'). \\
Casts(355713, 29000). \\
Movie(7909, 'A Night in Armour', 1910). \\
Movie(29000, 'Arizona', 1940). \\
Movie(29445, 'Ave Maria', 1940). & \begin{tabular}{l} 
Q2(f, I) :- Actor(z,f,l), Casts(z,x), \\
Movie(x,y,'1940').
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Find Actors who acted in Movies made in 1940

\section*{Actor(pid, fname, Iname)
Casts(pid, mid) \\ Casts(pid, mid)}

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Datalog: Facts and Rules
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Facts \(=\) tuples in the database & Rules = queries \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
Actor(344759, 'Douglas', 'Fowley'). \\
Casts(344759, 29851). \\
Casts(355713, 29000). \\
Movie(7909, 'A Night in Armour', 1910). \\
Movie(29000, 'Arizona', 1940). \\
Movie(29445, 'Ave Maria', 1940).
\end{tabular} &  \\
\hline &  \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{Find Actors who acted in a Movie in 1940 and in one in 1910} \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{CSE 414 - Spring 2017} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{Datalog: Terminology}


Actor(pid, fname, Iname)
Casts(pid, mid)
Movie(mid, name, year)

\section*{Datalog: Facts and Rules}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Facts = tuples in the database & Rules \(=\) queries \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
Actor(344759, 'Douglas', 'Fowley'). \\
Casts(344759, 29851). \\
Casts(355713, 29000). \\
Movie(7909, 'A Night in Armour', 1910). \\
Movie(29000, 'Arizona', 1940). \\
Movie(29445, 'Ave Maria', 1940).
\end{tabular} &  \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|r|}{\[
\begin{array}{r}
\text { Q3(f,l) :- Actor(z,f,l), Casts(z,x1), Movie(x1,y1,1910), } \\
\text { Casts(z,x2), Movie(x2,y2,1940) } \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Extensional Database Predicates \(=\) EDB \(=\) Actor, Casts, Movie Intensional Database Predicates \(=\) IDB \(=\) Q1, Q2, Q3

\section*{More Datalog Terminology}

Q(args) :- R1 (args), R2(args), ....
Book writes:
Q(args) :- R1 (args) AND R2(args) AND ....
- \(R_{i}\left(\right.\) args \(\left._{i}\right)\) is called an atom, or a relational predicate
- \(R_{i}\left(\right.\) args \(\left._{i}\right)\) evaluates to true when relation \(R_{i}\) contains the tuple described by args \({ }_{i}\).
- Example: Actor(344759,'Douglas', 'Fowley') is true
- In addition to relational predicates, we can also have arithmetic predicates
- Example: \(z={ }^{\prime} 1940\) '.

Casts(pid, mid)
Movie(id, name, year)

\section*{Datalog program}

A datalog program is a collection of one or more rules Each rule expresses the idea that, from certain combinations of tuples in certain relations, we may infer that some other tuple must be in some other relation or in the query answer Example: Find all actors with Bacon number \(\leq 2\)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline & B0(x) :- Actor(x,'Kevin', 'Bacon') \\
\hline & B1(x) :- Actor(x,f,l), Casts(x,z), Casts(y,z), B0(y) \\
\hline & B2(x) :- Actor(x,f, ), Casts(x,z), Casts(y,z), B1(y) \\
\hline & Q4(x) :- B0(x) \\
\hline & Q4(x) :- B1 (x) \\
\hline & Q4(x) :- B2(x) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Note: Q4 means the union of B0, B1, \& B2

\section*{Recursive Datalog}
- In datalog, rules can be recursive
\(\operatorname{Path}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})\) :- \(\operatorname{Edge}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})\).
\(\operatorname{Path}(x, y):-\operatorname{Path}(x, z), \operatorname{Edge}(z, y)\).
- We'll focus on non-recursive datalog

Movie(id, name, year)

\section*{Datalog with negation}

Find all actors who do not have a Bacon number < 2
```

B0(x) :- Actor(x,'Kevin', 'Bacon')
B1(x) :- Actor(x,f,l), Casts(x,z), Casts(y,z), B0(y)
Q6(x) :- Actor(x,f,I), not B1(x), not B0(x)

```

\section*{Actor(id, fname, Iname) \\ Casts(pid, mid) \\ Movie(id, name, year) \\ Safe Datalog Rules}

Here are unsafe datalog rules. What's "unsafe" about them?

U1 ( \(x, y\) ) :- Movie( \(x, z, 1994\) ), \(y>1910\)

U2(x) :- Movie(x,z,1994), not Casts(u,x)

A datalog rule is safe if every variable appears in some positive relational atom

\section*{Datalog vs Relational Algebra}
- Every expression in standard relational algebra can be expressed as a Datalog query
- But operations in the extended relational algebra (grouping, aggregation, and sorting) have no corresponding features in the version of datalog that we discussed today
- Similarly, datalog can express recursion, which relational algebra cannot

Datalog vs Relational Algebra


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\section*{RA to Datalog by Examples}

Schema for our examples:
R(A,B,C)
S(D,E,F)
T(G,H)

\section*{RA to Datalog by Examples}

Union \(R(A, B, C) \cup S(D, E, F)\)
\(U(x, y, z):-R(x, y, z)\)
\(U(x, y, z):-S(x, y, z)\)

\section*{RA to Datalog by Examples}

Selection: \(\sigma_{x>100}\) and \(y=\) 'some string' \(^{\prime}(\mathrm{R})\)
\(L(x, y, z):-R(x, y, z), x>100, y=‘ s o m e ~ s t r i n g '\)

Selection \(x>100\) or \(y=\) 'some string'
\(L(x, y, z):-R(x, y, z), x>100\)
\(L(x, y, z):-R(x, y, z), y=‘\) some string'

\section*{RA to Datalog by Examples}

Projection \(\pi_{x}(R)\)
\(P(x):-R(x, y, z)\)

\section*{Examples}

R(A,B,C)
\(S(D, E, F)\)
T(G,H)

Translate: \(\Pi_{A}\left(\sigma_{B=3}(R)\right)\)
\(B(a, b, c):-R(a, b, c), b=3\)
\(A(a):-B(a, b, c)\)

\section*{Examples}
\(R(A, B, C)\)
\(S(D, E, F)\)
T(G,H)

Translate: \(\Pi_{A}\left(\sigma_{B=3}(R) \bowtie_{R . A=S . D} \sigma_{E=5}(S)\right)\)
\(A(a):-R\left(a, 3, \_\right), S\left(a, 5, \_\right)\)
```

Friend(name1, name2)
Enemy(name1, name2)

```

\section*{More Examples}

Find all of Joe's friends who do not have any friends except for Joe:
```

JoeFriends(x) :- Friend('Joe', x ) NonAns( x ) :- Friend( $\mathrm{y}, \mathrm{x}$ ), y ! $=$ 'Joe’ A(x):- JoeFriends $(x)$, not NonAns $(x)$

```

\section*{Examples}
\(R(A, B, C)\)
S(D,E,F)
T(G,H)

Translate: \(\Pi_{A}\left(\sigma_{B=3}(R)\right)\)
A(a) :- R(a,3,_)
Underscore used to denote an "anonymous variable",
a variable that appears only once.

Friend(name1, name2)
Enemy(name1, name2)

\section*{More Examples}

Find Joe's friends, and Joe's friends of friends.
```

A(x) :- Friend('Joe', x)
A(x) :- Friend('Joe', z), Friend(z, x)

```

Friend(name1, name2)
Enemy(name1, name2)

\section*{More Examples}

Find all people such that all their enemies' enemies are their friends
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { NonAns }(x):-\operatorname{Enemy}(x, y), \operatorname{Enemy}(y, z), \text { not Friend }(x, z) \\
& A(x):-\operatorname{Everyone}(x), \operatorname{not} \operatorname{NonAns}(x) \\
& \\
& \text { Everyone }(x):-\operatorname{Friend}(x, y) \\
& \text { Everyone }(x):-\operatorname{Friend}(y, x) \\
& \text { Everyone }(x):-\operatorname{Enemy}(x, y) \\
& \text { Everyone }(x):-\operatorname{Enemy}(y, x) \\
& \hline
\end{aligned}
\]

Friend(name1, name2)
Enemy(name1, name2)

\section*{More Examples}

Find all persons \(x\) that have only friends all of whose enemies are x's enemies.
what's wrong with this?
\(\operatorname{NonAns(x)~:-~Friend(x,y),~Enemy(y,z),~not~Enemy(x,z)~}\)
A(x) :- not NonAns(x)
\(\operatorname{NonAns(x):-} \operatorname{Friend}(x, y)\), Enemy( \(y, z\) ), not Enemy( \((x, z)\) A(x) :- Everyone(x), not NonAns(x)

\section*{Midterm Concept Review I}
- relational data model
- set semantics vs bag semantics
- primary \& secondary keys
- foreign keys
- schemas
- SQL
- CREATE TABLE
- SELECT-FROM-WHERE (SFW)
- joins: inner vs outer, natural
- group by \& aggregation
- ordering
- CREATE INDEX

\section*{Midterm Concept Review II}
- relational queries
- languages for writing them:
- standard relational algebra
- datalog (even without recursion)
- SQL (even without grouping / aggregation)
- monotone queries are a proper subset
- SFW queries (i.e., w/out subqueries) are monotone
- facts (extensional relations) and rules (intensional relations)
- rules can use relations, arithmetic, union, intersect, ..
- As with SQL, existential quantifiers are easier - use negation to handle universal
- Everything expressible in RA is expressible in non-recursive datalog and vice versa
- recursive datalog can express more than (extended) RA
- extended RA can express more than recursive datalog

\section*{Midterm Concept Review III}

\section*{- types of indexes}
- B+ tree vs hash
- hash indexes use at most 2 disk accesses
- B+ tree can be used for < predicates
- \(\mathrm{B}+\) tree index on \((\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y})\) also allows searching for \(\mathrm{X}=\) a matches
- clustered vs non-clustered
- selectivity above \(1-2 \%=>\) not helped by non-clustered indexes
- cost-based query optimization
- consider choices over logical and physical query plans
- most important choice in latter is choice of join algoirthm
- those include nested loop, sorted merge, hash, and indexed joins - primary goal of the optimizer is to avoid really bad plans```

