Updated 2/7/2024

Topic 1: Data models and query languages Unit 4: Datalog Lecture 8

Wolfgang Gatterbauer

CS7240 Principles of scalable data management (sp24)

https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/sp24/

2/6/2024

Where We Are

• Relational query languages we have seen so far:

– SQL

- Relational Calculus
- Relational Algebra
- They can express the same class of relational queries (ignoring extensions, such as grouping, aggregates, or sorting)
 - How powerful are they? What kind of useful queries are missing?



- Given Friend(X,Y): Find all people X whose number of friends is a prime number
- Find all people who are friends with everyone who is not a friend of Bob
- Partition all people into three sets P1(X),P2(X),P3(X) s.t. any two friends are in different partitions
- Find all people who are direct or indirect friends with Alice (connected in arbitrary length)



- Given Friend(X,Y): Find all people X whose number of friends is a prime number
 NO: needs higher math; not possible with RA (unless we have access to a relation Prime(x)...)
- Find all people who are friends with everyone who is not a friend of Bob ?
- Partition all people into three sets P1(X),P2(X),P3(X) s.t. any two friends are in different partitions
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- Find all people who are friends with everyone who is not a friend of Bob YES: $\{x \mid \forall y.(\neg Friend(y, 'Bob') \Rightarrow Friend(x,y)\}$ \mathcal{PI} ?
- Partition all people into three sets P1(X),P2(X),P3(X) s.t. any two friends are in different partitions
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Given Friend(X,Y): Find all people X whose number of friends is a prime number
 NO: needs higher math; not possible with RA (unless we have access to a relation Prime(x)...)

• Find all people who are friends with everyone who is not a friend of Bob

YES: $\{x \mid \forall y.(\neg Friend(y, 'Bob') \Rightarrow Friend(x,y)\}$ DI? $\{x \mid Person(x) \land \forall y.[Person(y) \land \neg Friend(y, 'Bob') \Rightarrow Friend(x,y)]\}$

- Partition all people into three sets P1(X),P2(X),P3(X) s.t. any two friends are in different partitions
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NO: equivalent to 3-coloring; NP-complete

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NO: equivalent to 3-coloring; NP-complete

• Find all people who are direct or indirect friends with Alice (connected in arbitrary length) NO: recursive query; PTIME yet not expressible in RA Next: Datalog: extends monotone RA with recursion

Transitive closure (not expressible with RA)

THEOREM: Datalog can express queries that RA (RC) cannot (e.g., transitive closure of a graph)

Transitive closure [edit]

Although relational algebra seems powerful enough for most practical purposes, there are some simple and natural operators on relations that cannot be expressed by relational algebra. One of them is the transitive closure of a binary relation. Given a domain D, let binary relation R be a subset of $D \times D$. The transitive closure R^+ of R is the smallest subset of $D \times D$ that contains R and satisfies the following condition:

 $orall x orall y orall z \left((x,y) \in R^+ \land (y,z) \in R^+ \Rightarrow (x,z) \in R^+
ight)$

It can be proved using the fact that there is no relational algebra expression E(R) taking R as a variable argument that produces R^{+} .^[7]

SQL however officially supports such fixpoint queries since 1999, and it had vendor-specific extensions in this direction well before that.

Appendix

In this appendix, we prove that the transitive closure of a relation cannot be couched as an expression of relational algebra.[†] It is interesting to note that both Bancilhon [B] and**Paredaens**[P] in essence characterize relational algebra as equivalent to the set of **mappings** obeying principle 2 with respect to an empty set of predicates. However, transitive closure obeys this principle. There is no contradiction. In [B,P] it is shown that for every relation rthere is a relational algebra expression E such that $E(R)=R^+$, the transitive closure of R. What we show is that for no relational algebra expression E is $E(R)=R^+$ for all r.

Theorem 6. For an arbitrary binary relation R, there is no expression E(R) in relational algebra equivalent to R^+ , the transitive closure of R.

Suppose we have an expression E(R) that is the transitive closure of R. Let $\Sigma_l = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_l\}$ be a set of larbitrary symbols. Let R_l be the finite relation $\{a_1a_2, a_2a_3, \ldots, a_{l-1}a_l\}$. R_l represents the graph



We shall show that, for any relational expression E, there is some value of l for which $E(R_l)$ is not R_l^+ . In particu-

Source: <u>https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Relational_algebra#Transitive_closure</u>

Appendix from: Aho, Ullman. "Universality of data retrieval languages". POPL 1979. <u>https://doi.org/10.1145%2F567752.567763</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/

Datalog & ASP

- Datalog
 - Database query language designed in the 80's
 - Simple, concise, elegant
 - "Clean" (syntactic) restriction of Prolog with DB access
 - Expressive & declarative: Set-of-rules semantics, Independence of execution order, Invariance under logical equivalence
 - Several open source implementations, mostly academic implementations
 - Recently a hot topic, beyond databases:
 - network protocols, static program analysis, DB+ML
- Answer Set Programming (ASP):
 - very powerful extension (with negation) that can model hard computational problems

Originally based on slides by Dan Suciu

We will later see and use in class: Souffle (<u>https://souffle-lang.github.io/simple</u>) and Postassco/Clingo: Download: <u>https://potassco.org/clingo/</u>, Running in the browser: <u>https://potassco.org/clingo/run/</u>, More resources on clingo: <u>https://teaching.potassco.org/</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>



Path(x,y) :- Arc(x,y).

InCycle(x) :- Path(x,x).

Path(x,z) :- Arc(x,y), Path(y,z).



Recursion with SQL server vs. Datalog SQL Datalog

Using Common Table Expressions for Recursive Operations LISTING 4.7 USE AdventureWorks; WITH DirectReports (ManagerID, EmployeeID, EmployeeName, Title) AS -- Anchor member definition SELECT e.ManagerID, e.EmployeeID, c.FirstName + ' ' + c.LastName, e.Title FROM HumanResources.Employee AS e INNER JOIN Person.Contact as c ON e.ContactID = c.ContactID WHERE ManagerID IS NULL UNION ALL -- Recursive member definition SELECT e.ManagerID, e.EmployeeID, c.FirstName + ' ' + c.LastName ,e.Title FROM HumanResources.Employee AS e INNER JOIN DirectReports AS d ON e.ManagerID = d.EmployeeID INNER JOIN Person.Contact as c ON e.ContactID = c.ContactID -- Statement that executes the CTE SELECT EmployeeID, EmployeeName, Title, ManagerID FROM DirectReports GO

Manager(eid) :- Manages(_, eid)

DirectReports(eid, 0) :-Employee(eid), not Manager(eid)

DirectReports(eid, level+1) :DirectReports(mid, level), Manages(mid, eid)

SQL Query vs. Datalog: which would you rather write?

Possible scribe: to fix that example ©

Smallest set of features that would make relational algebra Turing complete

Asked 8 years, 4 months ago Active 5 years, 5 months ago Viewed 296 times



5

You need just two things: new values and recursion/while.



Recursion/while means the ability to execute a loop or iterative computation that may not terminate. The CTE RECURSIVE feature of SQL is one such.

SQL with CTE RECURSIVE is Turing Complete (without stored procedures).

See the Alice book http://webdam.inria.fr/Alice/ for a detailed treatment.

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answered Sep 1 2016 at 5:47



https://cs.stackexchange.com/questions/14694/smallest-set-of-features-that-would-make-relational-algebra-turing-complete Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>



Jan Hidders, Database researcher

Answered 2 years ago · Author has 615 answers and 840K answer views

Why is SQL not Turing complete?

Some variants of SQL, including some of the ISO standards, are actually Turing complete.

The most obvious example is SQL:1999 with the SQL/PSM extension, which adds stored procedures and therefore recursive functions and programming constructs that were intended to turn SQL into a programming language.

A less obvious example is SQL:2003 without stored procedures. It can be shown to be Turing complete using a clever combination of recursive queries (using Common Table Expressions) and Windowing, the first introduced in SQL:1999 and the latter since SQL:2003. See: http://assets.en.oreilly.com/1/event /27/High%20Performance%20SQL%20with%20PostgreSQL%20Presentation.pd f 🖄).

Nevertheless, it is true that the core of SQL was deliberately designed to be not Turing complete. The main reasons for this are:

- By restricting the query language the programmer is encouraged to separate the computational task into a part that can be efficiently computed and optimised by the DBMS (namely the part that can be formulated in SQL) and a part that the programmer probably can better implement by themselves.
- 2. By restricting the query language to computations that always terminate and can be computed in polynomial time and logarithmic space, we can reduce the risk of burdening the database server with a workload that it cannot deal with.

1.4K views · View upvotes

Cyclic Tag System

This SQL query (requires PostgreSQL 8.4) forms a cyclic tag system (wikipedia 🔄), which is sufficient to demonstrate that SQL is Turing-complete. It is written entirely in SQL:2003-conformant SQL.	Fun Snippets Cyclic Tag System
Thanks to Andrew (RhodiumToad) Gierth, who came up with the concept and wrote the code.	Works with PostgreSQL
The productions are encoded in the table "p" as follows:	8.4
"iter" is the production number; "rnum" is the index of the bit; "tag" is the bit value.	Written in
	SQL
	Depends on
This example uses the productions:	Nothing

110 01 0000

The initial state is encoded in the non-recursive union arm, in this case just '1'

The mod(r.iter, n) subexpression encodes the number of productions, which can be greater than the size of table "p", because empty productions are not included in the table.

Parameters:

the content of "p"
the content of the non-recursive branch
the 3 in mod(r.iter, 3)

"p" encodes the production rules; the non-recursive branch is the initial state, and the 3 is the number of rules

The result at each level is a bitstring encoded as 1 bit per row, with rnum as the index of the bit number

At each iteration, bit 0 is removed, the remaining bits shifted up one, and if and only if bit 0 was a 1, the content of the current production rule is appended at the end of the string.

WITH RECURSIVE p(iter,rnum,tag) AS (VALUES (0,0,1),(0,1,1),(0,2,0), (1,0,0),(1,1,1), (2,0,0),(2,1,0),(2,2,0),(2,3,0)),
r(iter,rnum,tag) AS (
UNION ALL
SELECT r.iter+1,
WHEN r roum=0 THEN p roum + max(r roum) OVER ()
ELSE r.rnum-1
END,
WHEN r.rnum=0 THEN p.tag
ELSE r.tag
FROM
r
LEFT JOIN p
WHERE
r.rnum>0
OR p.iter IS NOT NULL
SELECT iter, rnum, tag
FROM r
UKDEK BY ITER, FNUM;

https://www.quora.com/Why-is-relational-algebra-not-Turing-complete, https://wiki.postgresql.org/wiki/Cyclic Tag System, https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tag system#Cyclic tag systems Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/

Cyclic tag systems [edit]

A cyclic tag system is a modification of the original tag system. The alphabet consists of only two symbols, **0** and **1**, and the production rules comprise a list of productions considered sequentially, cycling back to the beginning of the list after considering the "last" production on the list. For each production, the leftmost symbol of the word is examined—if the symbol is **1**, the current production is appended to the right end of the word; if the symbol is **0**, no characters are appended to the word; in either case, the leftmost symbol is then deleted. The system halts if and when the word becomes empty.

Example [edit]

Cyclic Tag System Productions: (010,	000, 1111)	
Computation		
Initial Word: 1100	1	
Production	Word	
010	 11001	
000	1001010	
1111	001010000	
010	01010000	
000	1010000	
1111	01000000	
010	1000000	

Cyclic tag systems were created by Matthew Cook and were used in Cook's demonstration that the Rule 110 cellular automaton is universal. A key part of the demonstration was that cyclic tag systems can emulate a Turing-complete class of tag systems.

Cyclic Tag System

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https://www.quora.com/Why-is-relational-algebra-not-Turing-complete, https://wiki.postgresql.org/wiki/Cyclic_Tag_System, https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tag_system#Cyclic_tag_systems Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/

Query Language Design

Query language design is still a popular topic, especially for graphs. See e.g. <u>https://www.tigergraph.com/gsql/</u>

And the slides <u>https://courses.cs.washington.edu/courses/csed516/20au/le</u> <u>ctures/lecture05-advanced-query-evaluation.pdf</u> from "DATA516/CSED516: Scalable Data Systems and Algorithms!" Dan Suciu <u>https://courses.cs.washington.edu/courses/csed516/20au/</u>

Outline: T1-4: Datalog & ASP

- Datalog
 - Datalog rules
 - Datalog vs. RA
 - Recursion
 - Recursion in SQL [moved here from T1-U1: SQL]
 - Semantics
 - Naive and Semi-naive evaluation (Incremental View Maintenance)
 - Chase Procedure (and Decompositions=Factorizations)
 - Datalog[¬]: Datalog with stratified negation
 - Datalog±
- Answer Set Programming (ASP)

Datalog: Facts and Rules Schema Actor(id, fname, Iname) Plays(aid, mid) Movie(id, name, year) Facts: tuples in the database **Rules**: queries (notice position matters: unnamed perspective) Actor(344759,"Douglas", "Fowley"). Q1(y) := Movie(x,y,z), z=1940.Plays(344759, 7909). Plays(344759, 29000). Movie(7909, "A Night in Armour", 1910). Q2(f,I) := Actor(u,f,I), Plays(u,x),Movie(29000, "Arizona", 1940). Movie(x,y,z), z<1940. Movie(29445, "Ave Maria", 1940). Q3(f,l) :- Actor(z,f,l), Plays(z,x1), Movie(x1,y1,1910), Plays(z,x2), Movie(x2,y2,1940).

Movie(7909, "A Night in Armour", 1910).

Facts: tuples in the database

Plays(344759, 7909).

Plays(344759, 29000).

Actor(344759,"Douglas", "Fowley").

Movie(29000, "Arizona", 1940).

Movie(29445, "Ave Maria", 1940).

Schema Actor(id, fname, Iname) Plays(aid, mid) Movie(id, name, year)



Rules: queries

(notice position matters: unnamed perspective)

Q1(y) :- Movie(x,y,z), z=1940.

```
Find movies from 1940
```

Q2(f,l) :- Actor(u,f,l), Plays(u,x), Movie(x,y,z), z<1940.

Q3(f,l) :- Actor(z,f,l), Plays(z,x1), Movie(x1,y1,1910), Plays(z,x2), Movie(x2,y2,1940).

?

Facts: tuples in the database

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Plays(344759, 29000).

Actor(344759,"Douglas", "Fowley").

Movie(29000, "Arizona", 1940).

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Schema Actor(id, fname, Iname) Plays(aid, mid) Movie(id, name, year)



Rules: queries

(notice position matters: unnamed perspective)

Q1(y) := Movie(x,y,z), z=1940.

Find movies from 1940

Q2(f,l) :- Actor(u,f,l), Plays(u,x), Movie(x,y,z), z<1940.

Find actors who played in a movie before 1940

Q3(f,l) :- Actor(z,f,l), Plays(z,x1), Movie(x1,y1,1910), Plays(z,x2), Movie(x2,y2,1940).

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Movie(29000, "Arizona", 1940).

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Movie(7909, "A Night in Armour", 1910).

Schema Actor(id, fname, Iname) Plays(aid, mid) Movie(id, name, year)



Rules: queries

(notice position matters: unnamed perspective)

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Find actors who played in a movie before 1940

Q3(f,l) :- Actor(z,f,l), Plays(z,x1), Movie(x1,y1,1910), Plays(z,x2), Movie(x2,y2,1940).

Find actors who played in a movie from 1910 and from 1940

Facts: tuples in the database

Plays(344759, 7909).

Plays(344759, 29000).

Actor(344759,"Douglas", "Fowley").

Movie(29000, "Arizona", 1940).

Movie(29445, "Ave Maria", 1940).

Movie(7909, "A Night in Armour", 1910).

Schema Actor(id, fname, Iname) Plays(aid, mid) Movie(id, name, year)



Rules: queries

(notice position matters: unnamed perspective)

Q1(y) :- Movie(x,y,z), z=1940.

Find movies from 1940

Q2(f,l) :- Actor(u,f,l), Plays(u,x), Movie(x,y,z), z<1940.

Find actors who played in a movie before 1940

Q3(f,l) :- Actor(z,f,l), Plays(z,x1), Movie(x1,y1,1910), Plays(z,x2), Movie(x2,y2,1940).

Find actors who played in a movie from 1910 and from 1940

Facts: tuples in the database

Plays(344759, 7909).

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Movie(29445, "Ave Maria", 1940).

Movie(7909, "A Night in Armour", 1910).

Schema Actor(id, fname, Iname) Plays(aid, mid) Movie(id, name, year)



Rules: queries

(notice position matters: unnamed perspective)

NO

Q1(y) := Movie(x,y,z), z=1940.

Find movies from 1940

Q2(f,l) :- Actor(u,f,l), Plays(u,x), Movie(x,y,z), z<1940.

Find actors who played in a movie before 1940

Q4(f,l) :- Actor(z,f,l), Plays(z,x1), Movie(x1,y1,1910). Q4(f,l) :- Actor(z,f,l), Plays(z,x2), Movie(x2,y2,1940).

Find actors who played in a movie from 1910 and from 1940

Extensional Database (EDB) predicates: Actor, Plays, Movie

Intensional Database (IDB) predicates: Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4

Examples by Dan Suciu

Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/

Example with Souffle 🥌 Soufflé Schema Actor(id, fname, Iname) Plays(aid, mid) command line if run from the same directory: Movie(id, name, year) movie souffle movie.dl also allows to specify specific movie_dl input and output directories .decl Actor(id:number, fname:symbol, lname:symbol) .decl Plays(aid:number, mid:number) souffle - F. - D. movie.dl .decl Movie(id:number, name:symbol, year:number) Actor(344759, "Douglas", "Fowley"). Plays(344759, 7909). Plays(344759, 29000). Movie(7909, "A Night in Armour", 1910). Movie(29000, "Arizona", 1940). tab-separated output, Movie(29445, "Ave Maria", 1940). filename: ".csv" .decl Q2(fname:symbol, lname:symbol) Q2.csv Q2(f,l) :- Actor(u,f,l), Plays(u,x), Movie(x,_,z), z<1940. output Douglas Fowley .output Q2 For more help on Souffle, see: https://souffle-lang.github.io/simple

Datalog example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/souffle</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

Updated 2/10/2024

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2/9/2024

Pre-class conversations

- Last class summary
- Project discussions (in 1 weeks: Fri 2/16: first project ideas)
- today:
 - Recursion (Datalog)
- next week:
 - what happens if we add negation? Answer: it depends on how we do it.
 - Datalog with stratified negation
 - Datalog with more genal negation (stable models), leads to ASP

Syntax of rules

- evaluates to true when relation \mathcal{R}_i contains the tuple described by $args_i$
- e.g. Actor (344759, "Douglas", "Fowley") is true

R_i(args_i): relational predicate with arguments (= atom / subgoal)



Alternative notation: Q(args) <- R1(args) AND R2(args) / or variables begin with a capital letter, predicates with lower-case letters (problem: can't have "Boston") Based upon an example by Dan Suciu from CSE 554, 2018.

Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

arithmetic predicate



Actor(id, fname, Iname) Plays(aid, mid) Movie(id, name, year)

Q(y) :- Movie(x,y,z), z<1940.

Meaning of a Datalog rule is a logical statement:

Based upon class material from Dan Suciu for CSE 554, 2018. Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>



Actor(id, fname, Iname) Plays(aid, mid) Movie(id, name, year)

Q(y) :- Movie(x,y,z), z<1940.

Meaning of a Datalog rule is a logical statement:

For all x,y,z: if (x,y,z) \in Movies and z<1940 then y is in Q (i.e. is part of the answer) $\forall x,y,z [(Movie(x,y,z) \land z < 1940) \Rightarrow Q(y)]$

Ignoring the case of an empty movie table, logically equivalent to



Actor(id, fname, Iname) Plays(aid, mid) Movie(id, name, year)

Q(y) :- Movie(x,y,z), z<1940.

Meaning of a Datalog rule is a logical statement:

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Ignoring the case of an empty movie table, logically equivalent to $\forall y [\exists x, z [Movie(x,y,z) \land z < 1940] \Rightarrow Q(y)]$ Thus, non-head variables are called "existential variables"

compare with DRC

Based upon class material from Dan Suciu for CSE 554, 2018. Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>



Actor(id, fname, Iname) Plays(aid, mid) Movie(id, name, year)

Q(y) :- Movie(x,y,z), z<1940.

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Ignoring the case of an empty movie table, logically equivalent to $\forall y [\exists x, z [Movie(x,y,z) \land z < 1940] = Q(y)$ $dy [\exists x, z [Movie(x,y,z) \land z < 1940] = Q(y)$

We want the smallest set Q ? with this property (why?)

compare with DRC {(y) $| \exists x, z [Movie(x, y, z) \land z < 1940] \}$

Based upon class material from Dan Suciu for CSE 554, 2018. Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>



Actor(id, fname, Iname) Plays(aid, mid) Movie(id, name, year)

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Meaning of a Datalog rule is a logical statement:

For all x,y,z: if (x,y,z) \in Movies and z<1940 then y is in Q (i.e. is part of the answer) $\forall x,y,z [(Movie(x,y,z) \land z < 1940) \Rightarrow Q(y)]$

Ignoring the case of an empty movie table, logically equivalent to $\forall y [\exists x, z [Movie(x,y,z) \land z < 1940] = Q(y)$ $\forall y [\exists x, z [Movie(x,y,z) \land z < 1940] = Q(y)$

compare with DRC {(y) $| \exists x, z [Movie(x, y, z) \land z < 1940]$ } We want the smallest set Qwith this property (why?) That takes care of the empty movie table \textcircledinfty : a rules only fires if

Based upon class material from Dan Suciu for CSE 554, 2018. Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u> the antecedent is fulfilled ...

Syntactic Constraints

$$\mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{x}) := \mathbf{R}_1(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1), \dots, \mathbf{R}_m(\mathbf{x}_m, \mathbf{y}_m).$$

The rule stands for the following logical formula:

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \left[\mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{x}) \Leftarrow \exists \mathbf{y} [\mathbf{R}_1(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1) \land \cdots \land \mathbf{R}_m(\mathbf{x}_m, \mathbf{y}_m)] \right]$$

Two restrictions:

head existential variables variables $\mathbf{x}_i \subseteq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_i \subseteq \mathbf{y}$ (bold = vector notation)

Recall we want the smallest set Q with this property

1. Safety: every head variable should occur in the body at least once

R(x,z) := S(x,y), R(y,x).

Syntactic Constraints

 $\mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{x}) := \mathsf{R}_1(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1), \dots, \mathsf{R}_m(\mathbf{x}_m, \mathbf{y}_m).$

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Two restrictions:

 $\mathbf{x}_i \subseteq \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_i \subseteq \mathbf{y}$ (bold = vector notation)

1. Safety: every head variable should occur in the body at least once

R(x,z) := S(x,y), R(y,x).

forbidden rule: z not in body

2. The head predicate must be an IDB (Intensional) predicate

(Body can include both EDBs and IDBs)

Arc(x,y) :- Arc(x,z), Arc(z,y).

This is mostly of theoretic interest. Souffle calls EDBs the "facts ... sourced from tab-separated input files" but allows them also to appear in the head of a rule (<u>https://souffle-lang.github.io/execute</u>)

Based on material by Benny Kimelfeld and Oded Shmueli for 236363 Database Management Systems, Technion, 2018. Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>



Soufflé

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Welcome

🗘 Edit me 🖸

Soufflé is a logic programming language inspired by Datalog. It overcomes some of the limitations in classical Datalog. For example, programmers are not restricted to finite domains, and the usage of functors (intrinsic, user-defined, records/constructors, etc.) is permitted. Soufflé has a component model so that large logic projects can be expressed. Soufflé was initially designed for crafting static analysis in logic at Oracle Labs. Since then, there have been many other applications written in the Soufflé language, including applications in reverse engineering, network analysis and data analytics.

Soufflé provides the ability to rapid prototype and make deep design space explorations possible. A wide range of applications have been implemented in the Soufflé language, e.g., static program analysis for Java DOOP , parallelizing compiler framework Insieme , binary disassembler DDISASM, security analysis for cloud computing , and security analysis for smart contracts Gigahorse , Securify , Securify , Securify , VANDAL . More applications are listed here.

Soufflé language project is led by Prof Bernhard Scholz , and commenced at Oracle Labs in Brisbane . Soufflé was opensourced in March 2016. It is actively supported by universities and industrial research labs. The main contributors to this project have been The University of Sydney , the University of Innsbruck , the University College London , the University of Athens , Oracle Labs, Brisbane , and many more.

One of the major challenges in logic programming is performance and scalability. Soufflé applies advanced compilation techniques for logic programs. We use a range of techniques to achieve high-performance: Futamura Projections, staged-compilation with a new abstract machine, partial evaluation, and parallelization with highly-parallel data-structures.

Introduction to Datalog

Overview

Datalog is a (declarative) logic-based query language, allowing the user to perform recursive queries. It adopts syntax in the style of Prolog. In its pure form, it is based on a decidable fragment of first-order logic (FOL). Here, the universe – the collection of elements by which computation can be performed within – is finite, and functors are not permitted. Applications of Datalog include program analysis, security, graph databases, and declarative networking.

Soufflé: The Language

Motivation

The syntax of Soufflé is inspired by implementations of Datalog, namely bddbddb C and muZ in Z3 C. There is no unified standard for the specification of Datalog syntax. Thus, each implementation of Datalog may differ. A principle goal of the Soufflé project is speed, tailoring program execution to multi-core servers with large amounts of memory. With this in mind, Soufflé provides software engineering features (components, for example) for large-scale logic-oriented programming. For practical usage, Soufflé extends Datalog to make it Turing-equivalent through arithmetic functors. This results in the ability of the programmer to write programs that may never terminate. An example of non-termination is a program where the fact A(0), and rule A(i + 1) := A(i). exist without additional constraints. This causes Soufflé to attempt to output an infinite number of relations A(n) where $n \ge 0$. This is in some way analogous to an infinite while loop in an imperative programming language like C. However, the increased expressiveness afforded by arithmetic functors is very convenient for programming.

Grounded variables



However, note that the following example has an *ungrounded* variable:

```
.decl fib(idx:number, value:number)
fib(1,1).
fib(2,1).
fib(idx, x + y) :- fib(idx-1, x), fib(idx-2, y), idx <= 10.
.output fib</pre>
```

The reason for this is that variable idx is not bound as an argument of a positive predicate in the body. In the example, variable idx occurrs in the predicates fib(idx-1, x) and fib(idx-2, y) but as arguments of a functor rather than as a direct argument.


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The reason for this is that variable idx is not bound as an argument of a positive predicate in the body. In the example, variable idx occurrs in the predicates fib(idx-1, x) and fib(idx-2, y) but as arguments of a functor rather than as a direct argument. To make variable idx bound, we can shift the index by one and obtain a program whose variables are *grounded*:

```
.decl fib(idx:number, value:number)
fib(1,1).
fib(2,1).
fib(idx+1, x + y) : fib(idx, x) fib(idx-1, y), idx <= 9.
.output fib</pre>
```

And the program can produce the following output,

fib	
idx	value
=======	
1	1
2	1
3	2
4	3
5	5
6	8
7	13
8	21
9	34
10	55
======	

Source: <u>https://souffle-lang.github.io/rules</u>

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Grounded variables

souffle fibonacci.dl

fibonacci.dl

.decl fib(key:number, value:number) .output fib

fib(1, 1). fib(2, 1). fib(id+2, x+y) :- fib(id, x), fib(id+1, y), id <= 13.





Datalog example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/souffle</u> Source: https://souffle-lang.github.io/rules

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Outline: T1-4: Datalog & ASP

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RA to Datalog by examples: Union



RA: $R(A,B,C) \cup S(D,E,F)$ Datalog: ?

Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/

RA to Datalog by examples: Union



RA: R(A,B,C) \cup S(D,E,F)

Datalog:

Q(x,y,z) := R(x,y,z)Q(x,y,z) := S(x,y,z)

IDB EDB

RA to Datalog by examples: Union



RA: R(A,B,C) \cup S(D,E,F)

Datalog:

Q(x,y,z) := R(x,y,z)Q(x,y,z) := S(x,y,z)

IDB EDB



RA: $R(A,B,C) \cap S(D,E,F)$ Datalog: ?



RA: R(A,B,C) \bigcap S(D,E,F)

Datalog:

$$Q(x,y,z) := R(x,y,z), S(x,y,z)$$



RA:



?

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RA:

 $\sigma_{\text{B='Alice'} \land \text{C>10}}(\text{R})$

Datalog:

Q(x,y,z) :- R(x,y,z), y='Alice', z > 10 (also: Q(x,y,z) :- R(x,'Alice',z), z > 10)



RA:

 $\sigma_{\text{B='Alice'} \land \text{C>10}}(\text{R})$

Datalog:

$$Q(x,y,z) := R(x,y,z), y = Alice', z > 10$$

RA:

 $\sigma_{\text{B='Alice'} \vee \text{C>10}}(R)$

?



RA:

 $\sigma_{\text{B='Alice'} \land \text{C>10}}(\text{R})$

Datalog:

RA:

 $\sigma_{\text{B='Alice' V C>10}}(R)$

Datalog: Q(x,y,z) :- R(x,y,z), y='Alice' Q(x,y,z) :- R(x,y,z), z > 10

Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>







RA: $\pi_{A}(R)$ $\pi_{-B,C}(R)$ Datalog: Q(x) := R(x,y,z)Q(x) := R(x, ,)Underscore denotes an "anonymous variable". Each occurrence of an underscore represents a different variable

RA to Datalog by examples: Equi-join



RA: $\pi_{-D,E}(R \Join_{A=D \land B=E} S)$ Datalog: ?

RA to Datalog by examples: Equi-join



RA:
$$\Pi_{A,W,C,F}$$

 $\pi_{-D,E}(R \bowtie_{A=D,AB=E} S)$
Datalog: $\Lambda_{V,C}(F)$
 $Q(x,y,z,w) := R(x,y,z), S(x,y,w)$
 $also: Q(x,y,z,w) := R(x,y,z), S(u,v,w), x=u, y=v$

RA to Datalog by examples: Difference



RA: R-S Datalog:

RA to Datalog by examples: Difference



RA:

R-S

Datalog⁻: (we need to add negation) Q(x,y,z) :- R(x,y,z), not S(x,y,z) $\subseteq AFETY$

We have a long discussion later on what can go wrong if you are not careful about how you define negation

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Recursion



Recursion occurs when a thing is defined in terms of itself (self-repetition).

Recursion and Iteration both repeatedly execute a set of instructions.

- Recursion (self-similarity) is when a statement in a function calls itself repeatedly.
- Iteration (repetition) is when a loop repeatedly executes until the controlling condition becomes false.

A Datalog program consists of several rules:

- Usually there is one distinguished predicate that's the output
- Rules can be recursive!



4

3

 $\left(5\right)$







7

what does this query compute?

?

Example









For all nodes x and y: If there is an Arc from x to y, then there is a Path from x to y.

For all nodes x, z, and y: If there is an Arc from x to z, and there is a Path from z to y then there is a Path from x to y.







Initially: P is empty 1^{s+} iteration

?



Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/





ralable data management: https://pertheastern datalab github io/cc7240/



New facts from 2nd rule

Example with Souffle 🥮 Soufflé



A(S,T graph1



souffle graph1.dl graph1.dl .decl A(S:number, T:number) A(1,2). A(2,1). A(2,3). A(1,4). A(3,4). A(4,5). .decl P(S:number, T:number) P(x, y) := A(x, y).P(x, y) := A(x, z), P(z, y).

.output P

For more help on Souffle, see: https://souffle-lang.github.io/simple Datalog example available at: https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/souffle Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/





Datalog example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/souffle</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/ What is a principled process to determine if a program is recursive?

Local(x) :- Person(x,y,'MA'). **Relative**(x,x) :- **Person**(x,y,z). **Relative**(x,y) :- **Relative**(x,z),**Parent**(z,y). **Relative**(x,y) :- **Relative**(x,z),**Parent**(y,z). **Relative**(x,y) :- **Relative**(x,z),**Spouse**(z,y). Invited(y) :- Relative('myself',y),Local(y).

Local(x) :- Person(x,y,'MA'). **Relative**(x,x) :- **Person**(x,y,z). Invited(y) :- Relative('myself',y),Local(y).

2

3

MayLike(x,y) :- Close(x,z), Likes(z,y).Visit(x,y) :- MayLike(x,y). Close(x,z) := Visit(x,y), Visit(z,y).





Dependency Graph

- The dependency graph of a Datalog program is the directed graph (V,E) where
 - V is the set of IDB predicates (relation names)
 - E contains an arc S \rightarrow T whenever there is a rule with T in the head and S in the body

A Datalog program is recursive if its dependency graph contains a cycle



Local(x) :- Person(x,y,'MA'). Relative(x,x) :- Person(x,y,z). Relative(x,y) :- Relative(x,z),Parent(z,y). Relative(x,y) :- Relative(x,z),Parent(y,z). Relative(x,y) :- Relative(x,z),Spouse(z,y). Invited(y) :- Relative('myself',y),Local(y).

Local(x) :- Person(x,y,'MA'). Relative(x,x) :- Person(x,y,z). Invited(y) :- Relative('myself',y),Local(y).

2

3

MayLike(x,y) :- Close(x,z),Likes(z,y). Visit(x,y) :- MayLike(x,y). Close(x,z) :- Visit(x,y),Visit(z,y).







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2

3

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Local(x) :- Person(x,y,'MA'). Relative(x,x) :- Person(x,y,z). Invited(y) :- Relative('myself',y),Local(y).

2

3

MayLike(x,y) :- Close(x,z),Likes(z,y). Visit(x,y) :- MayLike(x,y). Close(x,z) :- Visit(x,y),Visit(z,y).



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Expressiveness of Non-recursive Datalog

THEOREM: Non-recursive Datalog with built-in predicates (<,>, \leq , \geq ,!=) has the same expressive power as the positive algebra { σ , π , \times ,U}

If we restrict selection to $\sigma_{=}$ (i.e. selection with a single equality), this fragment is also called at times UCQs (Union of Conjunctive Queries) or USPJ (Union-Select-Project-Join) queries.
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- Answer Set Programming (ASP)



1. A simple recursive query non-recursive part (here same as "select 1") recursive part, contains reference to the query's output WITH RECURSIVE T(n) as (





1. A simple recursive query

non-recursive part (here same as "select 1") recursive part, contains reference to the query's output



Recursive Query Evaluation ("semi-naive evaluation strategy")

- 1. Evaluate the non-recursive term. For UNION (but not UNION ALL), discard duplicate rows. Include all remaining rows in the result of the recursive query, and also place them in a temporary working table.
- 2. So long as the working table is not empty, repeat these steps:
 - a. Evaluate the recursive term, substituting the current contents of the working table for the recursive self-reference. For UNION (but not UNION ALL), discard duplicate rows and rows that duplicate any previous result row. Include all remaining rows in the result of the recursive query, and also place them in a temporary *intermediate table*.

b. Replace the contents of the working table vith the contents of the intermediate table, then empty the intermediate table.

Example slightly adapted from: <u>https://www.postgresql.org/docs/current/queries-with.html#QUERIES-WITH-RECURSIVE</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>



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Fib

	n integer	fibn integer ♠	fib _{n+1} integer
1	0	0	1
2	1	1	1
3	2	1	2
4	3	2	3
5	4	3	5
6	5	5	8
7	6	8	13
8	7	13	21
9	8	21	34
10	9	34	55

Example slightly adapted from: <u>https://www.cybertec-postgresql.com/en/recursive-queries-postgresql/</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>





	n integer	fibn integer ♣	fib_{n+1} integer
1	0	0	1
2	1	1	1
3	2	1	2
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3	2	1	2
4	3	2	3
5	4	3	5
6	5	5	8
7	6	8	13
8	7	13	21
9	8	21	34
10	9	34	55





from Fib) SELECT * FROM Fib LIMIT 10;

	n integer	fibn integer ♠	fib_{n+1} $harpine$
1	0	0	1
2	1	1	1
3	2	1	2
4	3	2	3
5	4	3	5
6	5	5	8
7	6	8	13
8	7	13	21
9	8	21	34
10	9	34	55





	n integer	fibn integer ♣	fib _{n+1} ▲
1	0	0	1
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3	2	1	2
4	3	2	3
5	4	3	5
6	5	5	8
7	6	8	13
8	7	13	21
9	8	21	34
10	9	34	55





"This works because PostgreSQL's implementation evaluates only as many rows of a WITH query as are actually fetched by the parent query. Using this trick in production is not recommended, because other systems might work differently." Source: <u>https://www.postgresql.org/docs/current/queries-with.html#QUERIES-WITH-RECURSIVE</u>





Fib

	n integer	fibn integer ♠	fib _{n+1} ▲
1	0	0	1
2	1	1	1
3	2	1	2
4	3	2	3
5	4	3	5
6	5	5	8
7	6	8	13
8	7	13	21
9	8	21	34
10	9	34	55

condition in WHERE clause is a more general way to write this query

Example slightly adapted from: <u>https://www.cybertec-postgresql.com/en/recursive-queries-postgresql/</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

3. Recursion on graphs

A for arcs or adjacencies (directed edges), S for source, T for target; another relation E (edges) have both directions





"Find all paths (transitive closure)"





3. Recursion on graphs

A for arcs or adjacencies (directed edges), S for source, T for target; another relation E (edges) have both directions





"Find all paths (transitive closure)"





1. Create a path for every arc

2. An arc + a path can make another path

SQL database available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/sql</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

3. Recursion on graphs

"Find all paths (transitive closure)"







For all nodes x and y: If there is an arc from x to y, then there is a path from x to y.

 $\mathsf{P}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y}):=\mathsf{A}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y}).$ P(x,y) := A(x,z), P(z,y).

For all nodes x, z, and y: If there is an arc from x to z, and there is a path from z to y then there is a path from x to y.

1			4
A	S	Т	
	1	2	
	1	4	
	2	1	
	2	3	
	3	4	
	4	5	

3. Recursion on graphs

P(x,y) := A(x,y).P(x,y) := A(x,z), P(z,y).



















S Α



$$P(x,y) := A(x,y).$$

 $P(x,y) := A(x,z), P(z,y).$



SQL database available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/sql</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

3. Recursion on graphs

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P(x,y) := A(x,y).P(x,y) := A(x,z), P(z,y).



Strictly speaking, this process is iteration, not recursion:

WITH RECURSIVE P AS (SELECT S, T FROM A UNION SELECT A.S, P.T FROM A, P WHERE A.T = P.S) SELECT * FROM P Recursion and Iteration both repeatedly execute a set of instructions.

- Recursion (self-similarity) is when a statement in a function calls itself repeatedly.
- Iteration (repetition) is when a loop repeatedly executes until the controlling condition becomes false.

3. Recursion on graphs

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 $\mathsf{P}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y}) := \mathsf{A}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y}).$ $\mathsf{P}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y}) := \mathsf{A}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{z}), \, \mathsf{A}(\mathsf{z},\mathsf{y}).$



Probe for understanding: how does the output ? change with this little change in the query

```
WITH RECURSIVE P AS (
SELECT S, T
FROM A
UNION
SELECT A1.S, A2.T
FROM A A1, A A2
WHERE A1.T = A2.S)
SELECT *
FROM P
```



Р

SQL database available at: https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/sql Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/

3. Recursion on graphs

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 $\mathsf{P}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y}) := \mathsf{A}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y}).$ $\mathsf{P}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y}) := \mathsf{A}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{z}), \, \mathsf{A}(\mathsf{z},\mathsf{y}).$



Probe for understanding: how the output changes with this little change in the query:

```
WITH RECURSIVE P AS (
SELECT S, T
FROM A
UNION
SELECT A1.S, A2.T
FROM A A1, A A2
WHERE A1.T = A2.S)
SELECT *
FROM P
```



SQL database available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/sql</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

Challenge



- Write a query that finds the shortest path to each node from a starting node
- Create an interesting minimum database instance
- Show interesting variations
- <u>https://www.postgresql.org/docs/14/queries-with.html</u>

?

Updated 2/16/2024

Topic 1: Data models and query languages Unit 4: Datalog Lecture 10

Wolfgang Gatterbauer

CS7240 Principles of scalable data management (sp24)

https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/sp24/

2/16/2024

Pre-class conversations

- Last class summary
- Project discussions (today: first project ideas)
- today:
 - More on Datalog
 - What happens if we add negation? Answer: it depends on how we do it.
 - Datalog with stratified negation
 - Datalog with more genal negation (stable models), leads to ASP

Outline: T1-4: Datalog & ASP

- Datalog
 - Datalog rules
 - Datalog vs. RA
 - Recursion
 - Recursion in SQL [moved here from T1-U1: SQL]
 - Semantics
 - Naive and Semi-naive evaluation (Incremental View Maintenance)
 - Chase Procedure (and Decompositions=Factorizations)
 - Datalog[¬]: Datalog with stratified negation
 - Datalog±
- Answer Set Programming (ASP)

Semantics of Datalog Programs

- Let S be a schema, D a database over S, and P be a Datalog program over S (i.e., all EDBs predicates belong to S)
- The result of evaluating P over D is a database I over the IDB schema of P
- We give 2 definitions:
 - 1. Fixpoint semantics operative (think procedural)
 - 2. model-theoretic declarative

1. Fixpoint semantics via the chase (operative definition)

Pseudo-code of a chase procedure:

Chase(P,D)

I := empty ("DUI" is here just a set of tuples)
repeat {
 if(DUI satisfies all the rules of P), then return I
 Find a rule head(x) :- body(x,y) and constants a,b
 s.t. that DUI contains body(a,b) but not head(a)
 I := I U {head(a)}
}

Notice since rules are <u>monotone</u>, I is also monotonically increasing

Based on material by Benny Kimelfeld and Oded Shmueli for 236363 Database Management Systems, Technion, 2018. Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

Nondeterminism

- Note: the chase is underspecified (i.e., not fully defined)
 - There can be many ways of choosing the next violation to handle
 - And each choice can lead to new violations, and so on
- We can view the choice of a new violation as nondeterministic

Church-Rosser property (defined for term reduction): If term *a* can be reduced to both *b* and *c*, then there must be a further term *d* (possibly equal to either b or c) to which both *b* and *c* can be reduced.

In computer science, **confluence** is a property of rewriting systems, describing which terms in such a system can be rewritten in more than one way, to yield the same result.







Path(x,y) :- Arc(x,y). Path(x,y) :- Arc(x,z), Path(z,y). Reachable(y) :- Path('1',y).





Path

























2

3





[+1712]~3[1,2] x->1 2 ->2 7 ->1









1	2
2	1
2	3
1	4
3	4
4	5

Path

▶ 1 2
2 1
2 3



2. Minimal model semantics (model-theoretic definition)

We say that IDB I is a model of Datalog program P (w.r.t. EDB D) if
 DUI satisfies all the rules of P

 $\forall var[Head(IDB) \leftarrow Body(EDB, IDB)]$

 We say that I is a minimal model if I does not properly contain any other model

• Theorem: there exists one minimal model

Illustration with our example

Path(x,y) :- Arc(x,y). Path(x,y) :- Arc(x,z), Path(z,y).

1. Fixpoint semantics

2. Minimal model semantics: smallest Path s.t.

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Illustration with our example

Path(x,y) :- Arc(x,y).Path(x,y) := Arc(x,z), Path(z,y).

1. Fixpoint semantics

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Path}^{(0)} := \emptyset, t := 0 \\ \text{Repeat} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{immediate consequence operator } "T_{p}" \\ \text{inc}(t) \\ \text{Path}^{(t)}(x, y) := \text{Arc}(x, y) \cup \Pi_{xy}(\text{Arc}(x, z) \Join \text{Path}^{(t-1)}(z, y)) \\ \text{until Path}^{(t)} = \text{Path}^{(t-1)} \end{array}\right\}$$

2. Minimal model semantics: smallest relation Path s.t.

Illustration with our example

Path(x,y) :-
$$Arc(x,y)$$
.
Path(x,y) :- $Arc(x,z)$, Path(z,y).

1. Fixpoint semantics

Path⁽⁰⁾ := Ø, t:=0
Repeat {
immediate consequence operator "
$$T_P$$
":

$$P^{(+)} = T_P(P^{(+-1)})$$
inc(t)
Path^(t)(x, y):= Arc(x,y) $\cup \Pi_{xy}(Arc(x,z) \bowtie Path^{(t-1)}(z,y))$
until Path^(t) = Path^(t-1)}

2. Minimal model semantics: smallest relation Path s.t.

$$\forall x,y [Arc(x,y) \Rightarrow Path(x,y)] \land \\ \forall x,y,z [Arc(x,z) \land Path(z,y) \Rightarrow Path(x,y)]$$

Minimum (least) element vs minimal elements in partial orders



Consider a partial order (S, \leq) . The set of elements from S are represented by black circles, arrows show partial order between elements.

1 least element

An element a in S is called a <u>least (or minimum)</u> <u>element</u> of S if $a \leq x$ for all x in S.



2 minimal elements

An element a in S is called a <u>minimal</u> <u>element</u> of S if there is no element b in A such that $b \leq a$.

For more details see e.g. "Davey, Priestley. Introduction To Lattices And Order (book, 2nd ed). 2002", <u>https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511809088</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

Datalog Semantics & equivalence b/w the definitions

(nondeterministic)

- 1. The fixpoint semantics tells us how to compute a Datalog query
- 2. The minimal model semantics is more declarative: only says what we get

THEOREM: For all Datalog programs P and DBs D there is a unique minimal model, and every chase returns this model

Proof sketch:

- 1. If I_1 and I_2 are models, so are $I_1 \cap I_2$
- 2. Every chase returns a model (finite)
- 3. Pick a chase and prove by induction: If I' is a model, then every intermediate I is contained in I' (monotonicity)

The minimal model is the *result*, denoted P(D)

Based on material by Benny Kimelfeld and Oded Shmueli for 236363 Database Management Systems, Technion, 2018. Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

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Details

Lemma 8.8 Model intersection property. Let P be a positive program, and M_1 and M_2 be two models for P. Then, $M_1 \cap M_2$ is also a model for P. Proof: next page

Definition 8.9 Minimal model and least model. A model M for a program P is said to be a minimal model for P if there exists no other model M' of P where $M' \subset M$. A model M for a program P is said to be its least model if $M' \supseteq M$ for every model M' of P.

Then, as a result of the last lemma we have the following:

Theorem 8.10 Every positive program has a least model.

Herbrand base -

Proof. Since B_P is a model, P has models, and therefore minimal models. Thus, either P has several minimal models, or it has a unique minimal model, the least model of P. By contradiction, say that M_1 and M_2 are two distinct minimal models, then $M_1 \cap M_2 \subset M_1$ is also a model. This contradicts the assumption that M_1 is a minimal model. Therefore, there cannot be two distinct minimal models for P.

Definition 8.11 Let P be a positive program. The least model of P, denoted M_P , defines the meaning of P.

Details

Theorem 2.14 (Model intersection property) Let M be a non-empty family of Herbrand models of a definite program P. Then the intersection $\Im := \bigcap M$ is a Herbrand model of P.

Proof: Assume that \Im is not a model of P. Then there exists a ground instance of a clause of P:

$$A_0 \leftarrow A_1, \dots, A_m \quad (m \ge 0)$$

which is not true in \mathfrak{S} . This implies that \mathfrak{S} contains A_1, \ldots, A_m but not A_0 . Then A_1, \ldots, A_m are elements of every interpretation of the family M. Moreover there must be at least one model $\mathfrak{S}_i \in M$ such that $A_0 \notin \mathfrak{S}_i$. Thus $A_0 \leftarrow A_1, \ldots, A_m$ is not true in this \mathfrak{S}_i . Hence \mathfrak{S}_i is not a model of the program, which contradicts the assumption. This concludes the proof that the intersection of any set of Herbrand models of a program is also a Herbrand model.

Semantics Summary

- 1. Fixpoint-theoretic
 - Most "operational": Based on the immediate consequence operator for a Datalog program.

- 2. Model-theoretic
 - Most "declarative": Based on model-theoretic semantics of first order logic.
 View rules as logical constraints.

Semantics Summary

1. Fixpoint-theoretic

- Most "operational": Based on the immediate consequence operator for a Datalog program.
- Least fixpoint is reached after finitely many iterations of the immediate consequence operator.
- Basis for practical, **bottom-up** evaluation strategy.
- 2. Model-theoretic
 - Most "declarative": Based on model-theoretic semantics of first order logic.
 View rules as logical constraints.
 - Given input DB D and Datalog program P, find the smallest possible DB instance D' that extends D and satisfies all constraints in P.

Monotonicity

- Can Datalog express difference?
 - Answer: No!
- Proof: Datalog is monotone, difference is not
 - That is, if D and D' are such that every relation of D is contained in the corresponding relation of D' ($D \subseteq D'$), then $P(D) \subseteq P(D')$

 $D \subseteq D' \Rightarrow P(D) \subseteq P(D')$

Outline: T1-4: Datalog & ASP

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 - Semantics
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 - Datalog±
- Answer Set Programming (ASP)

Datalog Evaluation Algorithms

- Goal: preserve the efficiency of query optimizers, yet extend them to recursion
- Two general strategies we will discuss:
 - 1. Naive Datalog evaluation
 - 2. Semi-naive Datalog evaluation
- More powerful optimizations:
 - 3. Magic sets (which we will not cover, or may revisit later under "Topic 3: efficient query evaluation & factorized representations")

1. Naive Datalog evaluation

 $\frac{P^{(t)}(x,y) := A(x,y)}{P^{(t)}(x,y) := A(x,z), P^{(t-1)}(z,y)}.$

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathsf{P}^{(0)} := \emptyset, t := 0 \\ \text{Repeat} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{immediate consequence operator } \mathsf{T}_{\mathsf{P}}^{"} :\\ \text{inc}(t) \\ \mathsf{P}^{(t)}(x, y) := \mathsf{A}(x, y) \cup \Pi_{-z}(\mathsf{A}(x, z) \bowtie \mathsf{P}^{(t-1)}(z, y)) \\ \text{until } \mathsf{P}^{(t)} = \mathsf{P}^{(t-1)} \end{array} \right\}$$

- Problem: The same facts are discovered over and over again
- Goal: The semi-naive algorithm tries to reduce the number of facts discovered multiple times

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P(4)

 $\frac{P^{(t)}(x,y) :- A(x,y)}{P^{(t)}(x,y) :- A(x,z), P^{(t-1)}(z,y)}.$

Example

 $\frac{P^{(t)}(x,y) := A(x,y)}{P^{(t)}(x,y) := A(x,z), P^{(t-1)}(z,y)}.$





paths of LEN ≤ 1



Example

P^(t)(x,y) :- A(x,y). P^(t)(x,y) :- A(x,z), P^(t-1)(z,y).





paths of LEN ≤ 1

Ξ

paths of LEN ≤ 2

_=1

-=2

p(2)





paths of LEN ≤ 1 paths of LEN ≤ 2 **P**(1) **P**(2) \equiv

Example

Α





 $P^{(t)}(x,y) := A(x,y).$ $P^{(t)}(x,y) := A(x,z), P^{(t-1)}(z,y).$



$\left(5\right)$

paths of LEN ≤ 1



Example

Α



 $\frac{P^{(t)}(x,y) := A(x,y)}{P^{(t)}(x,y) := A(x,z), P^{(t-1)}(z,y)}.$





Side-topic: Incremental View Maintentance

Let Q be a "view" computed by a single Datalog rule without recursion, thus a simple conjunctive query

Q :- R₁, R₂, ...

Add tuples to some of the relations:

$$\mathsf{R}_1 \leftarrow \mathsf{R}_1 \cup \Delta \mathsf{R}_1, \mathsf{R}_2 \leftarrow \mathsf{R}_2 \cup \Delta \mathsf{R}_2, \dots$$

Then the view Q will also increase in size:

 $Q \leftarrow Q \cup \Delta Q$

Incremental view maintenance problem:

Compute ΔQ without having to recompute **Q** from scratch

SELECT ... FROM R1 NATURAL JOIN R2 NATURAL JOIN R3 ...



Example 1:



If $\mathbf{R} \leftarrow \mathbf{R} \cup \Delta \mathbf{R}$, then what is $\Delta \mathbf{Q}$?





Example 1:



If $R \leftarrow R \cup \Delta R$, then what is ΔQ ?





Example 1:

 $\mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) := \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{z}), \, \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{z},\mathbf{y})$

If $R \leftarrow R \cup \Delta R$, then what is ΔQ ?

 $\Delta Q(x,y):= \Delta R(x,z), S(z,y)$

(to be more precise: we still need to subtract Q: $\Delta Q = \Delta R \bowtie S - Q$, e.g. for $\Delta R = (1,1)$. More on that later)



Relational Algebra: $Q = R \bowtie S$ $Q \cup \Delta Q = (R \cup \Delta R) \bowtie S$

then what is ΔQ ? $\Delta Q(x,y) := \Delta R(x,z), S(z,y)$

(to be more precise: we still need to subtract Q: $\Delta Q = \Delta R \bowtie S - Q$, e.g. for $\Delta R = (1,1)$. More on that later)

Example 1:

Q(x,y) := R(x,z), S(z,y)

 $z = x \cdot y$

 $z + \Delta z = (x + \Delta x) \cdot y$

$\Delta 0$

If $\mathbf{R} \leftarrow \mathbf{R} \cup \Delta \mathbf{R}$,

Relational Algebra: $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{R} \bowtie \mathbf{S}$ $\mathbf{Q} \cup \Delta \mathbf{Q} = (\mathbf{R} \cup \Delta \mathbf{R}) \bowtie \mathbf{S}$

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Background: Incremental View Maintenace

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Background: Incremental View Maintenace

If $\mathbf{R} \leftarrow \mathbf{R} \cup \Delta \mathbf{R}$,

then what is ΔQ ?

Example 1:

Q(x,y) := R(x,z), S(z,y)

 $\Delta Q(x,y):= \Delta R(x,z), S(z,y)$

(to be more precise: we still need to subtract Q: $\Delta Q = \Delta R \bowtie S - Q$, e.g. for $\Delta R = (1,1)$. More on that later)

Multiplication \bigotimes distributes over Addition \bigoplus (a+b)c $z = x \cdot y$ = ac+bc $z+\Delta z = (x+\Delta x) \cdot y$ $z+\Delta z = (x \cdot y)+(\Delta x \cdot y)$ $z+\Delta z = z + (\Delta x \cdot y)$ $\Delta z = \Delta x \cdot y$

Relational Algebra: $Q = R \bowtie S$ $Q \cup \Delta Q = (R \cup \Delta R) \bowtie S$ $Q \cup \Delta Q = (R \bowtie S) \cup (\Delta R \bowtie S)$ $Q \cup \Delta Q = Q \cup (\Delta R \bowtie S)$ $\Delta Q = \Delta R \bowtie S$ Join 🛛 distributes over union U

 $(a \cup b) \bowtie c$ = $a \bowtie c \cup b \bowtie c$







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Example 2:

Q(x,y) := R(x,z), S(z,y)

If $R \leftarrow R \cup \Delta R$, and $S \leftarrow S \cup \Delta S$, then what is ΔQ ? (as before, we ignore the subtraction of Q here)





Example 2:

 $\mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) := \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{z}), \, \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{z},\mathbf{y})$

If $R \leftarrow R \cup \Delta R$, and $S \leftarrow S \cup \Delta S$, then what is ΔQ ? (as before, we ignore the subtraction of Q here)

 $z = x \cdot y$ $z + \Delta z = (x + \Delta x) \cdot (y + \Delta y)$ $z + \Delta z = (x \cdot y) + (\Delta x \cdot y) + (x \cdot \Delta y) + (\Delta x \cdot \Delta y)$ $z + \Delta z = z + (\Delta x \cdot y) + (x \cdot \Delta y) + (\Delta x \cdot \Delta y)$ $\Delta z = (\Delta x \cdot y) + (x \cdot \Delta y) + (\Delta x \cdot \Delta y)$

Relational Algebra: $Q = R \bowtie S$ $Q \cup \Delta Q = (R \cup \Delta R) \bowtie (S \cup \Delta S)$ $Q \cup \Delta Q = (R \bowtie S) \cup (\Delta R \bowtie S) \cup (R \bowtie \Delta S) \cup (\Delta R \bowtie \Delta S)$ $Q \cup \Delta Q = Q \cup (\Delta R \bowtie S) \cup (R \bowtie \Delta S) \cup (\Delta R \bowtie \Delta S)$ $\Delta Q = (\Delta R \bowtie S) \cup (R \bowtie \Delta S) \cup (\Delta R \bowtie \Delta S)$



Example 2:

 $\mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) := \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{z}), \, \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{z},\mathbf{y})$

 $\Delta Q(x,y) := \Delta R(x,z), S(z,y)$ $\Delta Q(x,y) := R(x,z), \Delta S(z,y)$ $\Delta Q(x,y) := \Delta R(x,z), \Delta S(z,y)$ If $R \leftarrow R \cup \Delta R$, and $S \leftarrow S \cup \Delta S$, then what is ΔQ ? (as before, we ignore the subtraction of Q here)

 $z = x \cdot y$ $z + \Delta z = (x + \Delta x) \cdot (y + \Delta y)$ $z + \Delta z = (x \cdot y) + (\Delta x \cdot y) + (x \cdot \Delta y) + (\Delta x \cdot \Delta y)$ $z + \Delta z = z + (\Delta x \cdot y) + (x \cdot \Delta y) + (\Delta x \cdot \Delta y)$ $\Delta z = (\Delta x \cdot y) + (x \cdot \Delta y) + (\Delta x \cdot \Delta y)$

Relational Algebra: $Q = R \bowtie S$ $Q \cup \Delta Q = (R \cup \Delta R) \bowtie (S \cup \Delta S)$ $Q \cup \Delta Q = (R \bowtie S) \cup (\Delta R \bowtie S) \cup (R \bowtie \Delta S) \cup (\Delta R \bowtie \Delta S))$ $Q \cup \Delta Q = Q \cup (\Delta R \bowtie S) \cup (R \bowtie \Delta S) \cup (\Delta R \bowtie \Delta S)$ $\Delta Q = (\Delta R \bowtie S) \cup (R \bowtie \Delta S) \cup (\Delta R \bowtie \Delta S)$



Example 3:

Q(x,y) := R(x,z), R(z,y)

If $R \leftarrow R \cup \Delta R$, then what is ΔQ ? (as before, we ignore the subtraction of Q here)





Example 3:

Q(x,y) := R(x,z), R(z,y)

If $R \leftarrow R \cup \Delta R$, then what is ΔQ ? (as before, we ignore the subtraction of Q here)





Example 3:

Q(x,y) := R(x,z), R(z,y)

If $R \leftarrow R \cup \Delta R$, then what is ΔQ ? (as before, we ignore the subtraction of Q here)

 $z = x^{2}$ $z + \Delta z = (x + \Delta x)^{2}$ $z + \Delta z = x^{2} + (\Delta x \cdot x) + (x \cdot \Delta x) + \Delta x^{2}$ $z + \Delta z = z + 2x \Delta x + \Delta x^{2}$ $\Delta z = 2x \Delta x + \Delta x^{2}$

Relational Algebra: $Q = R \bowtie_{c} R$ $Q \cup \Delta Q = (R \cup \Delta R) \bowtie_{c} (R \cup \Delta R)$ $Q \cup \Delta Q = (R \bowtie_{c} R) \cup (\Delta R \bowtie_{c} R) \cup (R \bowtie_{c} \Delta R) \cup (\Delta R \bowtie_{c} \Delta R)$ $Q \cup \Delta Q = Q \cup (\Delta R \bowtie_{c} R) \cup (R \bowtie_{c} \Delta R) \cup (\Delta R \bowtie_{c} \Delta R)$ $\Delta Q = (\Delta R \bowtie_{c} R) \cup (R \bowtie_{c} \Delta R) \cup (\Delta R \bowtie_{c} \Delta R)$

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Example 3:

Q(x,y) := R(x,z), R(z,y)

 $\Delta Q(x,y) := \Delta R(x,z), R(z,y)$ $\Delta Q(x,y) := R(x,z), \Delta R(z,y)$ $\Delta Q(x,y) := \Delta R(x,z), \Delta R(z,y)$ If $R \leftarrow R \cup \Delta R$, then what is ΔQ ? (as before, we ignore the subtraction of Q here)



Relational Algebra: $Q = R \bowtie_{c} R$ $Q \cup \Delta Q = (R \cup \Delta R) \bowtie_{c} (R \cup \Delta R)$ $Q \cup \Delta Q = (R \bowtie_{c} R) \cup (\Delta R \bowtie_{c} R) \cup (R \bowtie_{c} \Delta R) \cup (\Delta R \bowtie_{c} \Delta R)$ $Q \cup \Delta Q = Q \quad \cup (\Delta R \bowtie_{c} R) \cup (R \bowtie_{c} \Delta R) \cup (\Delta R \bowtie_{c} \Delta R)$ $\Delta Q = (\Delta R \bowtie_{c} R) \cup (R \bowtie_{c} \Delta R) \cup (\Delta R \bowtie_{c} \Delta R)$

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Back to Datalog evaluation

2. Semi-Naive Datalog evaluation

Recall the naive evaluation:

 $\begin{array}{l} P^{(0)} := \emptyset, t := 0 \\ \text{Repeat} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{immediate consequence operator } "T_{P}" : \\ P^{(t)} = T_{P}(P^{(t-1)}) \\ P^{(t)}(x,y) := A(x,y) \cup \pi_{xy}(A(x,z) \bowtie P^{(t-1)}(z,y)) \\ \text{until } P^{(t)} = P^{(t-1)} \end{array} \right\}$

Semi-naive evaluation:

$$\begin{split} P &:= A(x,z); \Delta P^{(0)} := A(x,z) \\ \text{Repeat} \{ & \text{``incrementalized''` immediate consequence operator:} \\ & \text{inc(t)} & / \Delta P^{(t)} = T_P(\Delta P^{(t-1)}) - P^{(t-1)} \\ & \Delta P^{(t)}(x,y) := \pi_{xy}(A(x,z) \bowtie \Delta P^{(t-1)}(z,y)) - P(x,y) \\ & P := P \cup \Delta P^{(t)} \\ & \text{until } \Delta P^{(t)} = \emptyset \} \end{split}$$

The idea of semi-naive evaluation predates following paper which is often cited as main reference:

Bancilhon, Ramakrishnan. An Amateur's Introduction to Recursive Query Processing Strategies. SIGMOD 1986. <u>https://doi.org/10.1145/16894.16859</u> (the 1988 revision is better) Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

P(x,y) := A(x,y).

P(x,y) := A(x,z), P(z,y).

Example







$$\frac{\Delta P^{(t)}(x,y) := A(x,z), \Delta P^{(t-1)}(z,y), \text{ not } P(x,y). }{P(x,y) := \Delta P^{(t)}(x,y). }$$



Example











P

paths of LEN ≤ 2







 $\Delta P^{(t)}(x,y) := A(x,z), \Delta P^{(t-1)}(z,y), \text{ not } P(x,y).$







\bigcirc		$P(x,y) := \Delta P^{(t)}(x,y).$
paths of LEN ≤ 2		2 paths of LEN \leq 3
	Ρ	Р
	1 2	
	2 3	
	3 4	
	4 5	
	1 3	
$\Delta P^{(2)}$	2 4	
	3 5	




Outline: T1-4: Datalog & ASP

- Datalog
 - Datalog rules
 - Datalog vs. RA
 - Recursion
 - Recursion in SQL [moved here from T1-U1: SQL]
 - Semantics
 - Naive and Semi-naive evaluation (Incremental View Maintenance)
 - Chase Procedure (and Decompositions=Factorizations)
 - Datalog[¬]: Datalog with stratified negation
 - Datalog±
- Answer Set Programming (ASP)

The Chase

- A simple fixed-point algorithm to test implication of data dependencies.
- In its simplest incarnation it tests whether the projection of a relation schema constrained by some functional dependencies onto a given decomposition can be recovered by rejoining the projections
 - i.e. whether a particular decomposition is "lossless"
 - Problem is motivated by from schema normalization (decomposition of relations)
- The interesting aspect is that this algorithms is confluent: we can apply rules in any order and will still arrive at a unique fixed-point

The term "chase" was coined in "Maier, Mendelzon, Sagiv: Testing implications of data dependencies, TODS 1979. <u>https://doi.org/10.1145/320107.320115</u>", where it was used to test the logical implication of dependencies. "Aho, Sagiv, Ullman: Equivalences among relational expressions, SICOMP 1979. <u>https://doi.org/10.1137/0208017</u>" introduced tableaux queries with an algorithm that coincides with the chase with functional dependencies. "Aho, Beeri, Ullman: The theory of joins in relational databases, TODS 1979. <u>https://doi.org/10.1145/320083.320091</u>" extends this algorithm to include also multivalued dependencies, for the purpose of checking whether the join of several relations is lossless. See also "Deutsch, Nash: Chase. Encyclopedia of Database Systems. 2009. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-39940-9_1250</u>" for more details Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/

Notation

- We usually denote relations by a name and an <u>ordered</u> set of attributes
 R₁(A, B, C, D), R₂(D, E, F)
- We can can also ignore relation names and the order among attributes. A relation is then just a set of attributes (unordered or <u>named perspective</u>)
 S₁ = {A, B, C, D}, S₂ = {D, E, F}
- We can then view a relational schema R as a pair (S, Σ) where:
 - *S* is a finite set of attributes
 - $S = \{A, B, C, D, E, F\},\$
 - Σ is a set of functional dependencies (FDs) over S
 - $\Sigma = \{D \to E, D \to F\}$
- We want to know if we can always decompose S into S₁ and S₂, s.t.:

-
$$R_1 = \pi_{S_1}(R), R_2 = \pi_{S_2}(R), R = R_1 \bowtie R_2$$

A possibly familiar example

Assume we decompose R(A, B, C, D, E, F) with $\Sigma = \{D \rightarrow E, D \rightarrow F\}$ into $R_1(A, B, C, D)$ and $R_2(D, E, F)$. Is $R = R_1 \bowtie R_2$ for every database over this schema?



A possibly familiar example: now even more familiar \bigcirc Assume we decompose Item(N,P,C,M,S,C) with $\Sigma = \{M \rightarrow S, M \rightarrow C\}$ into Product(N,P,C,M) and Company(M,S,C). Is Item = Product \bowtie Company for every database?

Item	-						
Name	Price	Category	Manufacturer	StockPric	e Country		
Gizmo	\$19.99	Gadgets	GizmoWorks	25	USA	Σ	
Powergizmo	\$29.99	Gadgets	GizmoWorks	25	USA	N	$1 \rightarrow S$
SingleTouch	\$149.99	Photography	Canon	65	Japan		$1 \rightarrow C$
MultiTouch	\$203.99	Household	Hitachi	15	Japan	IV.	
π							
νN	,P,C,M			M,S,	С		
Product					Company		
Name	Price	Category	Manufacturer		<u>Manufacturer</u>	StockPrice	Country
Gizmo	\$19.99	Gadgets	GizmoWorks		GizmoWorks	25	USA
Powergizmo	\$29.99	Gadgets	GizmoWorks		Canon	65	Japan
SingleTouch	\$149.99	Photography	Canon		Hitachi	15	Japan
MultiTouch	\$203.99	Household	Hitachi				

Decompositions in General



Notice that $R \subseteq R_1 \bowtie R_2$ for every database over any schema (we never loose tuples).

But we want that $R = R_1 \bowtie R_2$ for every database over this schema. We then say that the decomposition of R into (R_1, R_2) is lossless if $R = R_1 \bowtie R_2$.

When is this the case?

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Decompositions in General



The decomposition is <u>lossless</u> iff:

- $A \rightarrow B$, even if we don't have $A \rightarrow C$ at the same time, or
- $A \rightarrow B$, even if we don't have

 $A \rightarrow C$ at the same time, or

Notice that $R \subseteq R_1 \bowtie R_2$ for every database over any schema (we never loose tuples). But we want that $R = R_1 \bowtie R_2$ for every database over this schema. We then say that the decomposition of R into (R_1, R_2) is lossless if $R = R_1 \bowtie R_2$.

When is this the case?

		A	В	С
		Name	Price	Category
		Gizmo	19	Gadget
	C	neClick	24	Camera
		Gizmo	19	Camera
A		B		A
Nam	е	Price		Name
Gizmo 19			Gizmo	
OneClick 24			OneClick	
Gizm	0	19		Gizmo

Is this decomposition lossless = correct?

C

Category

Gadget

Camera

Camera

Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

		A		B	С	
Α	12-12		Name	Price	Category	
l			Gizmo	19	Gadget	
		C	neClick	24	Camera	
			Gizmo	19	Camera	
	A		B		A	С
	Nam	е	Price		Name	Category
	Gizm	0	19		Gizmo	Gadget
	OneCl	ick	24		OneClick	Camera
_	Gizm	0	19		Gizmo	Camera

Is this decomposition lossless = correct?

Yes, we don't loose information

		С	В	A
		Name	Price	Category
		Gizmo	19	Gadget
	С	neClick	24	Camera
		Gizmo	19	Camera
С		A		B
Nam	е	Category	,	Price
Gizmo Gadget			19	
OneClick Camera			24	
Gizm	0	Camera		19

A

Category

Gadget

Camera

Camera

Is this decomposition lossless = correct?

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More general question: is a given decomposition lossless?

- Given a relation R with attributes S, a set of FDs Σ over S, and a set of subsets of S: S₁, S₂, ..., S_k.
- Is the decomposition of R into $R_1 = \pi_{S_1}(R), ..., R_k = \pi_{S_k}(R)$ lossless? I.e. Is it true that $R_1 \bowtie R_2 \bowtie \cdots \bowtie R_k = R$?
- All we need to prove is that

. . .



More general question: is a given decomposition lossless?

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- All we need to prove is that
 - $R \supseteq R_1 \bowtie R_2 \bowtie \cdots \bowtie R_k$
- because we already know that we never loose tuples:

 $- \ R \subseteq R_1 \bowtie R_2 \bowtie \cdots \bowtie R_k$

- Given R(A, B, C, D), is the decomposition into $R_1 = \pi_{A,D}(R), R_2 = \pi_{A,C}(R), R_3 = \pi_{B,C,D}(R)$ lossless, if R satisifies $\Sigma = \{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, CD \rightarrow A\}$?
- We need to check that $R \supseteq R_1 \bowtie R_2 \bowtie R_3$:
 - Suppose $(a, b, c, d) \in R_1 \bowtie R_2 \bowtie R_3$. Question: Is it also in R?
 - Since $(a, b, c, d) \in R_1 \bowtie R_2 \bowtie R_3$, therefore also $(a, d) \in R_1$, $(a, c) \in R_2$, $(b, c, d) \in R_3$
 - We therefor know that R must contain the following tuples (Irrespective of the FDs Σ):



- Given R(A, B, C, D), is the decomposition into $R_1 = \pi_{A,D}(R), R_2 = \pi_{A,C}(R), R_3 = \pi_{B,C,D}(R)$ lossless, if R satisifies $\Sigma = \{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, CD \rightarrow A\}$?
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Α	В	С	D
а	b_1	С ₁	d
а	b ₂	С	d_2
a_3	b	С	d

Why? because $(a, d) \in R_1$ which was derived from R as $\pi_{A,D}(R) \leftarrow R_1(A,D)$ because $(a, c) \in R_2$ which was derived from from R as $\pi_{A,C}(R)$ because $(b, c, d) \in R_3$ which was derived from from R as $\pi_{B,C,D}(R)$

• Idea: "Chase" them (apply given FDs Σ by equating constants) until we can either prove that $(a, b, c, d) \in R$ or until we cannot apply any more FDs.

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- Our FDs Σ :
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 - $B \rightarrow C$
 - $CD \to A$

А	В	С	D	apply:	0
а	b ₁	C ₁	d	$A \rightarrow B$	<u> </u>
а	b ₂	С	d_2		
a_3	b	С	d		

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Example taken from Example 3.22, Section 3.4.2, "Garcia-Molina, Ullman, Widom. Database Systems: The Complete Book. 2nd ed. 2009 Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

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b

 a_3

C

 $-CD \rightarrow A$

d



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C→E	D→E	E→B
		E→D

Α	В	С	D	Е
а	b_1	С	d_1	e ₁
a ₂	b	С	d	e ₂
a ₃	b_3	C ₃	d	е



D

 d_1

d

С

С

 $b_3 c_3 d$

В

b

b₁ C

Α

а

 a_2

 a_3

nple 2		C→	Е		D→E	E E	→B →D						
$E \qquad \longrightarrow \\ e_1 \qquad C \rightarrow E \\ e_2 \\ e \qquad e$	A B a b a₂ b a₃ b	 C 1 C C 3 C₃ 	D d ₁ d	E e ₁ e									
	D.	→E		6	2=0,								
	AB	C C	D	Е									
	a b	1 C	d_1	е									
	a ₂ b	С	d	е	< _								
	a ₃ b	3 C 3	d	е	E-	→BD							
							\searrow						
							2-1	Α	В	C	D	E	
								а	b	С	d	е	
								a ₂	b	С	d	е	
								a_3	b	C ₃	d	е	









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Outline: T1-4: Datalog & ASP

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NP-hardness (assuming P≠NP)





Friend(x,y) :- Likes(x,y),¬Parent(y,x).

Likes (1,2). Parent (2,1). Likes (1,3).





 $Box(x) := Item(x), \neg Box(x).$





Friend(x,y) :- Likes(x,y),¬Parent(y,x).

 $Box(x) := Item(x), \neg Box(x).$

LeftBox(x) :- Item(x), ¬RightBox(x). RightBox(x) :- ¬LeftBox(x). Likes (1,2). Parent (2,1). Likes (1,3). → Friend(1,3)

Item('ball') → Box('ball') ???

Item('ball')
$$\longrightarrow$$
 ?



Friend(x,y) :- Likes(x,y),¬Parent(y,x).

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Item('ball') → LeftBox('ball') ??? unsafe!

ltem('ball')



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Item('ball') → Box('ball') ???

Item('ball') → LeftBox('ball') ??? unsafe!

LeftBox(x) :- Item(x), \neg RightBox(x). RightBox(x) :- Item(x), \neg LeftBox(x).



 \Rightarrow Adding negation to Datalog is not straightforward!

Alternative notations to "¬ Parent(y,x)" are "! Parent(y,x)" or "~Parent(y,x)" or "NOT Parent(y,x)" Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>



Friend(1,3)



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Negation in Datalog

- Various semantics have been proposed for supporting negation in Datalog that still allow tractability
- We will first look at two:
 - 1. Semipositive Datalog[¬] (restricted): PTIME
 - 2. Stratified Datalog[¬] (standard): PTIME

- We will later look at a more powerful (but intractable) semantics
 - Stable Models semantics (or answer set programming ASP): NP-complete and beyond!
1. Semipositive Programs and Safety



Friend(x,y) :- Likes(x,y), ¬Parent(y,x).

Likes – $\pi_{y,x}$ Parent

A semipositive program is a program where only EDBs may be negated

- Semantics: same as ordinary Datalog programs
- Safety: rule is safe if <u>every variable occurs in a positive</u> (= unnegated) relational atom (ensures domain independence: the results of programs are finite and depend only on the actual contents of the database)

Exercise: Are following rules safe?

Alternative notations to "¬ Parent(y,x)" are "! Parent(y,x)" or "~Parent(y,x)" or "NOT Parent(y,x)" Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

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Exercise: Are following rules safe?

 $S(x) := T(y), Arc(z,y), \neg Arc(x,y).$

unsafe (what is the domain for "x"?)

$$S(x) := T(y), \neg T(x).$$

unsafe

Alternative notations to "¬ Parent(y,x)" are "! Parent(y,x)" or "~Parent(y,x)" or "NOT Parent(y,x)" Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

1. Semipositive: Negated Atoms

- We may put ¬, !, ~, or not in front of an EDB atom to negate its meaning.
- EXAMPLE: Return all pairs of nodes (x,y) where y is two hops away from x, but not an immediate neighbor of x.





Arc(Source,Target

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TwoHopsAway(x,y) :- Arc(x,z), Arc(z,y), ¬Arc(x,y).



Arc(Source, Target)



1. Semipositive: Negated Atoms

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Arc(Source,Target)

Node is basically ADom:
Node(x) :- Arc(x,y)Arc(Source, Target)Node(y) :- Arc(x,y)Node(id)

Compute all pairs of disconnected nodes in a graph.





Node is basically ADom:
Node(x) :- Arc(x,y)Arc(Source, Target)Node(y) :- Arc(x,y)Node(id)



Compute all pairs of disconnected nodes in a graph.

Reachable(x,y) :- Arc(x,y).

Reachable(x,y) :- Arc(x,z), Reachable(z,y).



Reachable(x.v) :- Arc(x.z). Reachable(z.v).

Reachable(x,y) :- Arc(x,y).

Compute all pairs of disconnected nodes in a graph.

reachable(x,y) :- Node(x), Node(y), ¬Reachable(x,y	y). Stratum 2 Unreachable
Straightforward austactic restriction	Dracadanca graph
Straightion ward syntactic restriction.	Precedence graph
When the Datalog program is stratified, we can	 Nodes = IDB predicates
evaluate IDB predicates stratum-by-stratum	• Arc $p \rightarrow q$ if predicate q depends on p

Once evaluated, treat it as EDB for higher strata.

• Label this arc "¬" if predicate p is think: "topological sort" negated

Non-stratified example: LeftBox(x) :- -LeftBox(x), Item(x).



Stratum 1 Reachable ← able

Node(id)

Node is basically ADom:

Node(x) := Arc(x,y)

Node(y) := Arc(x,y)

Compu	te all	pairs c	ot di	sconne	cted	nodes	in a	graph	า.

Reachable(x,y) :- Arc(x,y).	Stratum 1	Reachable ←
Reachable(x,y) :- Arc(x,z), Reachable(z,y).		
Unreachable(x,y) :- Node(x), Node(y), ¬Reachable(x,y).	Stratum 2	• Unreachable

- Straightforward syntactic restriction.
- When the Datalog program is stratified, we can evaluate IDB predicates stratum-by-stratum
- Once evaluated, treat it as EDB for higher strata.

Precedence graph

Node is basically ADom:

Node(x) := Arc(x,y)

Node(y) := Arc(x,y)

- Nodes = IDB predicates
- Arc $p \rightarrow q$ if predicate q depends on p

Node(id)

• Label this arc "-" if predicate p is think: "topological sort" negated



2. Stratified Programs: Definition and Semantics

- DEFINITION: Let P be a Datalog program, E be the set of EDB predicates, and I be the set of IDB predicates. A stratification of P is a partitioning of the IDB predicates into disjoint sets I₁,...,I_k such that:
 - For i=1,...,k, every rule with head in I_i has possible body predicates only from E, $I_1, ..., I_i$
 - For i=1,...,k, every rule with head in I_i has negated body predicates only from E, I_1, \dots, I_{i-1}
- SEMANTICS:
 - For i=1,...,k:
 - Compute the IDBs of the stratum I_i, possibly via recursion
 - Add computed IDBs to the EDBs
 - Due to the definition of stratification, each E_i can be viewed as semipositive

2. Theorems on Stratification

Contrast with our earlier definition of recursive programs!

- THEOREM 1: A program has a stratification if and only if its dependency graph does not contain a cycle with a "negated edge"
 - Dependency graph is defined as previously, except that edges can be labeled with negation
 - Hence, we can test for stratifiability efficiently, via graph reachability

$$A(x) := B(x).$$

 $B(x) := C(x).$
 $C(x) := \neg A(x).$



2. Theorems on Stratification

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$$A(x) := B(x).$$
 $B(x) := C(x).$
 $C(x) := \neg A(x).$

- THEOREM 2: Non-recursive Datalog with negation can always be stratified via the topological order
- Theorem 3: Non-recursive Datalog with negation has the same expressive power as the algebra $\{\sigma_{=}, \pi, \times, U, -\}$
 - Extendable to RA if we add the comparison predicates <, >, !=, <=, >=

Hierarchy of expressiveness



For equality, we assume here an ordered domain and allow built-in predicates $(>,<,\geq,\geq,!=)$. Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/

Hierarchy of expressiveness



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Hierarchy of expressiveness

ASP can express NP-complete problems (and even problems higher in the Polynomial hierarchy) (For Turing-completeness, we would only have to add functions, i.e. the ability to create new values not previously found in the EDB)



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Q: Find all descendants of Alice, who are not descendants of Bob



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Q: Find all descendants of Alice, who are not descendants of Bob



?

first compute for each person their descendants

then use negation



Q: Find all descendants of Alice, who are not descendants of Bob

D(x,y) := Parent(x,y).D(x,z) := Parent(y,z), D(x,y).

first compute for each D <

then use negation

?



Q: Find all descendants of Alice, who are not descendants of Bob

D(x,y) := Parent(x,y).first compute for each
person their descendantsD(x,z) := Parent(y,z), D(x,y).first compute for each
person their descendants $Q(x) := D('Alice',x), \neg D('Bob',x).$ then use negation



Q: Find all descendants of Alice, who are not descendants of Bob

D(x,y) :- Parent(x,y). D(x,z) :- Parent(y,z), D(x,y). Q(x) :- D('Alice',x), ¬D('Bob',x). DA(y) :- Parent('Alice',y). DA(y) :- Parent(x,y), DA(x). DB(y) :- Parent('Bob',y). DB(y) :- Parent(x,y), DB(x). $Q(x) :- DA(x), \neg DB(x).$





Datalog Summary

- EDB (extensional/base relations), IDB (intentional/derived relations)
- Datalog program = set of rules; base relations are also rules
- Datalog can be recursive
 - Stratified Datalog with negation still PTIME
 - Non-stratified Datalog: stable model semantics, ASP, can model NPC problems
- SQL has also been extended to express limited form of recursion
 - Using a recursive "with" clause, also called CTE (Common Table Expression)
 - Can only have a single IDB

Updated 2/20/2024

Topic 1: Data models and query languages Unit 4: Datalog Lecture 11

Wolfgang Gatterbauer

CS7240 Principles of scalable data management (sp24)

https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/sp24/

2/20/2024

Pre-class conversations

- Last class summary
- Project discussions (in class and after)
- Faculty candidates (today, Feb 29, March 20)
- today:
 - More on Datalog
 - What happens if we add negation? Answer: it depends on how we do it.
 - Datalog with stratified negation
 - Datalog with more genal negation (stable models), leads to ASP
 - Later: Beyond NP with ASP (including 3-colorability in 2 lines)

Outline: T1-4: Datalog & ASP

- Datalog
 - Datalog rules
 - Datalog vs. RA
 - Recursion
 - Recursion in SQL [moved here from T1-U1: SQL]
 - Semantics
 - Naive and Semi-naive evaluation (Incremental View Maintenance)
 - Chase Procedure (and Decompositions=Factorizations)
 - Datalog[¬]: Datalog with stratified negation
 - Datalog±
- Answer Set Programming (ASP)

Datalog[±]: background



• Much is possible with Datalog

Datalog[±]: background



- Much is possible with Datalog
- Much is not (observed e.g. by [Patel-Schneider, Horrocks 2006])

Patel-Schneider, Horrocks. Position paper: A comparison of two modelling paradigms in the Semantic Web. WWW (Semantic Web track). 2006. https://dl.acm.org/doi/10.1145/1135777.1135784

Datalog[±]: goal



- Much is possible with Datalog
- Much is not (observed e.g. by [Patel-Schneider, Horrocks 2006])
- Datalog[±] is a framework that extends Datalog with:
 - value invention (\exists -variables in the head): TGDs (Tuple-Generating Dependencies)
 - equality predicate in the head: EGDs (Equality Generating Dependencies)
 - constant 1 in the head: negative constraints (disjointness)

Patel-Schneider, Horrocks. Position paper: A comparison of two modelling paradigms in the Semantic Web. WWW (Semantic Web track). 2006. <u>https://dl.acm.org/doi/10.1145/1135777.1135784</u> Cali, Gottlob, Lukasiewicz, Marnette, Pieris. Datalog+/-: A Family of Logical Knowledge Representation and Query Languages for New Applications. LICS 2010. <u>https://doi.org/10.1109/LICS.2010.27</u> Based on a presentation by Andrea Cali

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Datalog and expressiveness for ontological reasoning

Assertion type	Datalog rule
Inclusion	$emp(X) \rightarrow person(X)$
(Inverse) role inclusion	reportsTo(X, Y) \rightarrow manages(Y, X)
Reflexive expansion	$boss(X) \rightarrow manages(X, X)$
Transitivity	manages(X, Y), manages(Y, Z) \rightarrow manages(X, Z)
Concept product	seniorEmp(X), emp(Y) \rightarrow higher(X, Y)
Participation	?
Disjointness	?
Functionality	?

Ontology assertion	Datalog [±] rule
Participation	$boss(X) \rightarrow \exists Y reports(Y, X)$
Disjointness	customer(X), boss(X) $\rightarrow \bot$
Functionality	reports(X, Y1), reports (X, Y2) \rightarrow Y1 = Y2

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Datalog[±] vs. DL

The above example corresponds to the following set of DL axioms, expressed in an extension of \mathcal{ELHI} by nonmonotonic negation:

 $\begin{aligned} &FiveStar(X) \rightarrow Hotel(X), \\ &FiveStar(X), \text{not}Pool(X,Y) \rightarrow \exists Z \ Beach(X,Z), \\ &FiveStar(X), \text{not}Beach(X,Y) \rightarrow \exists Z \ Pool(X,Z), \\ &Beach(X,Y) \rightarrow \exists Z \ SwimOpp(X,Z), \\ &Pool(X,Y) \rightarrow \exists Z \ SwimOpp(X,Z), \end{aligned}$

 $\begin{array}{ccccc} FiveStar & \sqsubseteq & \text{Hotel}, \\ FiveStar \sqcap \text{not} \exists Pool & \sqsubseteq & \exists Beach, \\ FiveStar \sqcap \text{not} \exists Beach & \sqsubseteq & \exists Pool, \\ & \exists Beach & \sqsubseteq & \exists SwimOpp, \\ & \exists Pool & \sqsubseteq & \exists SwimOpp, \end{array}$

Interesting Observations

- Exploiting schema knowledge in query answering is not trivial
- Languages and algorithms exist that allow for tractable query answering
- Applications in real-world scenarios are possible
 - Industrial applications in data integration, Semantic Web, ontological reasoning
 - Companies and Products: RelationalAI, Deepreason.ai, Oracle Semantic Technologies, IBM IODT, OntoDLV (Vienna)

Outline: T1-4: Datalog & ASP

- Datalog
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 - Intro to Rules with Negation
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 - The power of Disjunctions
 - [A surprising application: automating hardness proofs: moved to T2-U4: Reverse Data Management]

Negation in Souffle vs. Negation in ASP

Negation in Rules

A rules of the form

CanRenovate(person, building) := Owner(person, building), !Heritage(building).

expresses the rule that an owner can renovate a building with the condition that the building is not classified as heritage. Thus the literal "Heritage(building)" is negated (via "!") in the body of the rule. Not all negations are semantically permissible. For example,

A(x) :- ! B(x). B(x) :- ! A(x). ◀

is a circular definition. One cannot determine if anything belongs to the relation "A" without determining if it belongs to relation "B". But to determine if it is a "B" one needs to determine if the item belongs to "A". Such circular definitions are forbidden. Technically, rules involving negation must be stratifiable.

Negated literals do not bind variables. For example,

A(x,y) := R(x), !S(y).

is not valid as the set of values that "y" can take is not clear. This can be rewritten as,

A(x,y) := R(x), Scope(y), !S(y).

where the relation "Scope" defines the set of values that "y" can take.

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YES: stable model semantics as used by ASP can deal with this circular definition

NO: safety conditions are still the same as for souffle

Answer Set Programming (ASP)

- Programming paradigm that can model AI problems (e.g, planning, combinatorics)
- Basic idea
 - Allow non-stratified negation and encode problem (specification & "instance") as logic program rules
 - Solutions are so-caled "stable models" of the program
- Semantics based on Possible Worlds and Stable Models
 - Given an answer set program P, there can be multiple solutions (stable models, answer sets)
 - Each model **M**: assignment of true/false value to propositions to make all formulas true (combinatorial)
 - Captures default reasoning, non-monotonic reasoning, constrained optimization, exceptions, weak exceptions, preferences, etc., in a natural way
- Finding stable models of answer set programs is not easy
 - Current systems CLASP, DLV, clingo, Smodels, etc., extremely sophisticated
 - Work by first grounding the program (= replacing variables with constants), suitably transforming it to a
 propositional theory whose models are stable models of the original program (contrast with "lifted
 inference" later)
 - These models are found using a SAT solver or solvers using similar ideas to SAT solvers

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Rules with Negation



- Closed world assumption (CWA) as used in standard Datalog:
 - If a fact does not logically follow from a set of Datalog clauses, then we conclude that the negation of this fact is true.
- Problem: CWA can lead to inconsistencies when negation is allowed in rule bodies. Intuition: we can have multiple minimal models ("Herbrand models")

Example 1:

boring(chess) :- boring(chess).

what are all the possible *minimal* models:

- Herbrand universe U_P (set of all constants) = {chess}
- Herbrand base B_P (set of grounded atoms) = {boring(chess)}
- Interpretations (all subsets of B_P) = { {}, {boring(chess)} }
- Model: interpretation that makes each ground instance of each rule true

The "boring chess" example is taken from "Ceri, Gottlob, Tanca. What you always wanted to know about Datalog (and never dared to ask). TKDE 1989. https://doi.org/10.1109/69.43410 Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://doi.org/10.1109/69.43410 **307**

Rules with Negation



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Example 1:

boring(chess) :- boring(chess).

 $\square > [M_1 = \{\}$

what are all the possible *minimal* models:

 $M_2 = \{boring(chess)\}$ is a model, but not minimal

The "boring chess" example is taken from "Ceri, Gottlob, Tanca. What you always wanted to know about Datalog (and never dared to ask). TKDE 1989. https://doi.org/10.1109/69.43410 308 Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://doi.org/10.1109/69.43410

Rules with Negation



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 - If a fact does not logically follow from a set of Datalog clauses, then we conclude that the negation of this fact is true.
- Problem: CWA can lead to inconsistencies when negation is allowed in rule bodies. Intuition: we can have multiple minimal models ("Herbrand models")

Example 1:

Example 2:

boring(chess) :- boring(chess).

> $M_1 = \{\}$

 $M_2 = \{boring(chess)\}$ is a model, but not minimal

 $\{b(c), i(c)\}$

Possible interpretations:

 $\{ \{ \}, \{ b(c) \}, \{ i(c) \}, \}$

boring(chess) :- ¬interesting(chess).

what are all the possible *minimal* models:

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The "boring chess" example is taken from "Ceri, Gottlob, Tanca. What you always wanted to know about Datalog (and never dared to ask). TKDE 1989. https://doi.org/10.1109/69.43410 309
Rules with Negation



- Closed world assumption (CWA) as used in standard Datalog:
 - If a fact does not logically follow from a set of Datalog clauses, then we conclude that the negation of this fact is true.
- Problem: CWA can lead to inconsistencies when negation is allowed in rule bodies. Intuition: we can have multiple minimal models ("Herbrand models")

Example 1:

Example 2:

boring(chess) :- boring(chess).

boring(chess) :- ---interesting(chess).

$$\rightarrow$$
 $M_1 =$

M₂ = {boring(chess)} is a model, but not minimal

```
M<sub>1</sub> = {boring(chess)}
M<sub>2</sub> = {interesting(chess)}
```

what are all the possible *minimal* models:

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The "boring chess" example is taken from "Ceri, Gottlob, Tanca. What you always wanted to know about Datalog (and never dared to ask). TKDE 1989. https://doi.org/10.1109/69.43410 Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://doi.org/10.1109/69.43410 **310**

Outline: T1-4: Datalog & ASP

- Datalog
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A clause is a disjunction of literals.

 $\overline{a} \lor \overline{b} \lor c \lor d \qquad a \land b \Rightarrow c \lor d \\ 1 \land a \land b \Rightarrow c \lor d \lor 0$

A Horn clause has at most one positive (i.e. unnegated) literal.



Alfred Horn, ~1973 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alfred_Horr

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A Horn clause has at most one positive (i.e. unnegated) literal.

ā v b v c	4
C	
ā v b	4

definite clause (exactly one positive)

unit clause (facts, unconditional knowledge, empty body)

goal clause



Alfred Horn, ~1973 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alfred_Horr

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 $\overline{a} \lor \overline{b} \lor c$ $a \land b \Rightarrow c$ definite clause (exactly one positive)Alfred Horn, ~1973c $1 \Rightarrow c$ unit clause (facts, unconditional knowledge, empty body) $\overline{a} \lor \overline{b}$ $a \land b \Rightarrow 0$ goal clause

Universal quantification (everything above was propositional)

 \neg human(X) \lor mortal(X)





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Universal quantification (everything above was propositional) \neg human(X) ∨ mortal(X) $\forall X[\neg$ human(X) ∨ mortal(X)] $\forall X[$ human(X) \Rightarrow mortal(X)]



Datalog grammar

$$P \in program = r_1. r_2. ... r_n.$$

$$r \in rule = a_0 :- a_1, ..., a_m.$$

$$a \in atom = p(t_1, ..., t_k)$$

$$t \in term = x | "c"$$

p = set of predicate symbols
x = set of variable symbols
c = set of constants

a ground atom has only constants as terms (no variables)

- P: Program
- U_P: Herbrand universe (or Herbrand domain or vocabulary)
 ?
- B_P: Herbrand base (or alphabet)
 ?
- I: Interpretation (or database instance or dataset)
 ?



Jacques Herbrand, 1931 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jacques_Herbrand

• M: Model of P

?

• A model is minimal if



- P: Program
 - set of facts (assertions) and rules (sentences that allow to infer new facts from existing ones)
- U_P: Herbrand universe (or Herbrand domain or vocabulary)
 ?
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• A model is minimal if

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Jacques Herbrand, 1931 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jacques_Herbrand







- P: Program
 - set of facts (assertions) and rules (sentences that allow to infer new facts from existing ones)
- U_P: Herbrand universe (or Herbrand domain or vocabulary)
 - set of all constants (variable-free terms) appearing in P (cp. with active domain interpretation)
- B_P: Herbrand base (or alphabet)
 - set of all ground atoms (variable-free) constructible with predicates from P and terms from U_P
- I: Interpretation (or database instance or dataset)
- M: Model of P

?

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 - set of facts (assertions) and rules (sentences that allow to infer new facts from existing ones)
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 - set of all ground atoms (variable-free) constructible with predicates from P and terms from U_P
- I: Interpretation (or database instance or dataset)
 - any subset of B_P
- M: Model of P
 - an interpretation that makes each ground instance of each rule in P true (a ground instance of a rule is obtained by replacing all variables in the rule by elements from U_P)
- A model is minimal if



- P: Program
 - set of facts (assertions) and rules (sentences that allow to infer new facts from existing ones)
- U_P: Herbrand universe (or Herbrand domain or vocabulary)
 - set of all constants (variable-free terms) appearing in P (cp. with active domain interpretation)
- B_P: Herbrand base (or alphabet)
 - set of all ground atoms (variable-free) constructible with predicates from P and terms from U_P
- I: Interpretation (or database instance or dataset)
 - any subset of B_P
- M: Model of P
 - an interpretation that makes each ground instance of each rule in P true (a ground instance of a rule is obtained by replacing all variables in the rule by elements from U_P)
- A model is minimal if it does not properly contain any other model

Program P





Interpretation

path(x,y) :- arc(x,y).
path(x,y) :- arc(x,z), path(z,y).

arc("a","b"). arc("b","c").

Herbrand universe U_P **?**Herbrand base B_P **?**

Program P

arc("a","b"). arc("b","c").
path(x,y) :- arc(x,y).
path(x,y) :- arc(x,z), path(z,y).





Interpretation

Herbrand universe U_P

{"a", "b", "c"}

Herbrand base B_P

?

Program P

arc("a","b"). arc("b","c").
path(x,y) :- arc(x,y).
path(x,y) :- arc(x,z), path(z,y).

Interpretation

Herbrand universe U_P

{"a", "b", "c"}

Herbrand base B_P |B_P = 18 { arc("a","a"). path("a","a"). arc("a","b"). path("a","b"). arc("a","c"). path("a","c"). : : arc("c","b"). path("c","b"). arc("c","c"). path("c","c"). }

Contains a wild mix of

- explicit facts that we know (IDB) like arc("a","b"),
- facts that can be inferred (EDB) like path("a","b"), and
- facts that cannot be inferred like path("c","a") or arc("a","a")



Program P



arc("a","b"). arc("b","c").
path(x,y) :- arc(x,y).
path(x,y) :- arc(x,z), path(z,y).

Herbrand universe U_P {"a", "b", "c"} Herbrand base B_P $|B_P| = |S$

Interpretation one of many interpretations

arc("a","b"). arc("b","c"). arc("b","a").
path("a","b"). path("b","c"). path("b","a").
path("a","c"). path("a","a").

Is this interpretation a model?

```
Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/
```

Program P



arc("a","b"). arc("b","c").
path(x,y) :- arc(x,y).
path(x,y) :- arc(x,z), path(z,y).

Herbrand universe U_P

{"a", "b", "c"}

Herbrand base B_P $|B_P| = |8$

{ arc("a","a"). path("a","a"). arc("a","b"). path("a","b"). arc("a","c"). path("a","c"). . arc("c","b"). path("c","b"). arc("c","c"). path("c","c"). }

Interpretation one of many interpretations

arc("a","b"). arc("b","c"). arc("b","a").
path("a","b"). path("b","c"). path("b","a").
path("a","c"). path("a","a").

Is this interpretation a model?

No! There is a rule for which there is a ground instance that is not true in this interpretation

`x→"b", y→"b", z→"a":
 path("b","b") :- arc("b","a"), path("a","b").

This is an example grounding of a rule.

Program P



Interpretation

arc("a","b"). arc("b","c"). arc("b","a").
path("a","b"). path("b","c"). path("b","a").
path("a","c"). path("a","a"). path("b","b").

Is this new interpretation a model? ?

arc("a","b"). arc("b","c").
path(x,y) :- arc(x,y).
path(x,y) :- arc(x,z), path(z,y).

Herbrand universe U_P {"a", "b", "c"} Herbrand base B_P $|B_P| = |S$ { arc("a", "a"). path("a", "a"). arc("a", "b"). path("a", "b").

arc("a","c"). path("a","c").
 :
 arc("c","b"). path("c","b").
arc("c","c"). path("c","c"). }

Program P



arc("a","b"). arc("b","c"). path(x,y) :- arc(x,y). path(x,y) :- arc(x,z), path(z,y).

Herbrand universe U_P

{"a", "b", "c"}

Herbrand base B_P $|B_P| = |8|$

```
{ arc("a","a"). path("a","a").
arc("a","b"). path("a","b").
arc("a","c"). path("a","c").
.
.
arc("c","b"). path("c","b").
arc("c","c"). path("c","c"). }
```

Interpretation

arc("a","b"). arc("b","c"). arc("b","a").
path("a","b"). path("b","c"). path("b","a").
path("a","c"). path("a","a"). path("b","b").

Is this new interpretation a model? Yes!

Is this model minimal?

?

Program P

arc("a","b"). arc("b","c").
path(x,y) :- arc(x,y).
path(x,y) :- arc(x,z), path(z,y).

Herbrand universe U_P {"a", "b", "c"}

Herbrand base B_{P} $|B_{P}| = |8|$

```
{ arc("a","a"). path("a","a").
arc("a","b"). path("a","b").
arc("a","c"). path("a","c").
:
arc("c","b"). path("c","b").
arc("c","c"). path("c","c"). }
```

"a" "b" "c"

Interpretation

arc("a","b"). arc("b","c"). arc("b","a"). path("a","b"). path("b","c"). path("b","a"). path("a","c"). path("a","a"). path("b","b").

Is this new interpretation a model? Yes!

Is this model minimal?

No! There is a properly contained model

Program P

arc(a,b). arc(b,c).
path(X,Y) :- arc(X,Y).
path(X,Y) :- arc(X,Z), path(Z,Y).

Herbrand universe U_P {a, b, c}

Herbrand base B_P $|B_P| = |8|$

{	path(a,a).
arc(a,b).	path(a,b).
arc(a,c).	path(a,c).
• • •	:
arc(c,b).	path(c,b).

Interpretation

arc(a,b). arc(b,c). arc(b,a).
path(a,b). path(b,c). path(b,a).
path(a,c). path(a,a). path(b,b).

- Convention in ASP:
 - Variables begin with upper-case
 - constants begin with lower-case

Is this new interpretation a model? Yes!

а

Is this model minimal?

No! There is a properly contained model

Evaluating ASP's with Clingo

paths1.txt

arc(a,b). arc(b,c).
path(X,Y) :- arc(X,Y).
path(X,Y) :- arc(X,Z), path(Z,Y).

clingo paths1.txt

Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u> Postassco/Clingo available for download at: <u>https://teaching.potassco.org/</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>





paths1.txt

arc(a,b). arc(b,c).
path(X,Y) :- arc(X,Y).
path(X,Y) :- arc(X,Z), path(Z,Y).





Shows all predicates, including EDBs

Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u> Postassco/Clingo available for download at: <u>https://teaching.potassco.org/</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

paths2.txt

arc(a,b). arc(b,c).
path(X,Y) :- arc(X,Y).
path(X,Y) :- arc(X,Z), path(Z,Y).
#show path/2.

Show only the facts in the predicate named "path" with arity "2"







Solving... Answer: 1 path(a,b) path(b,c) path(a,c) SATISFIABLE

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Semantics: Informally

- Informally, a stable model M of a ground program P is a set of ground atoms such that
 - 1. Every rule is satisfied:

i.e., for any rule in P

h :- a₁, ..., a_m, ¬b₁, ..., ¬b_n.

if each atom a_i is satisfied (a_i 's are in M) and no atom b_i is satisfied (i.e. no b_i is in M), then h is in M.

 Every h ∈ M can be derived from a rule by a "non-circular reasoning" (informal for: we are looking for minimal models, or there is some "derivation provenance")

Semantics: "non-circular" more formally

Idea: Guess a model M (= a set of atoms). Then verify M is the <u>exact set</u> of atoms that "can be derived" under standard minimal model semantics on P^{M} on a modified positive program P^{M} (called "the <u>reduct</u>") derived from P as follows:

- 1. Create all possible groundings of the rules of program P
- 2. Delete all grounded rules that contradict M

h :- a₁, ..., a_m, ¬b₁, ..., ¬b_n.

if some $b_i \in M$

3. In remaining grounded rules, delete all negative literals

h :- a₁, ..., a_m, ¬b₁, ..., ¬b_n.

if no $b_i \in M$

M is a stable model of P iff M is the least model of P^{M}

Recall that alternatives to "¬" are "not" and "!"and "~". Writing out "not" explicitly is more common in ASP. Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

Semantics: "non-circular" more concisely

Idea: Guess a model M (= a set of atoms). Then verify M is the <u>exact set</u> of atoms that "can be derived" under standard minimal model semantics on P^{M} on a modified positive program P^{M} (called "the <u>reduct</u>") derived from P as follows:

The reduct of P w.r.t M is:

$$P^{M} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} h := a_{1}, ..., a_{m}. \end{array} \right|$$

$$h := a_{1}, ..., a_{m}, \neg b_{1}, ..., \neg b_{n}. \in \text{grounding of P } \land \text{ no } b_{i} \in M \right\}$$

M is a stable model of P iff M is the least model of P^{M}

Recall that alternatives to "¬" are "not" and "!"and "~". Writing out "not" explicitly is more common in ASP. Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

"a" is a proposition that is either true or false

P1: a :- a.

M={a} Is M a stable model of P1? ?





"a" is a proposition that is either true or false

P1: a :- a.

- M={a} not a stable model (<u>not minimal</u>, derivation of "a" is based on circular reasoning: {a} is not least model of a :- a)
 - what is a stable model?

Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/

not a stable model (not minimal, derivation of "a" is based $M=\{a\}$ ot least model of a := a)

a" is a proposition that is either true or false. Intuitively a predicate with zero arguments (arity D'

P1: а:-а.

P2:

Examples

 $M = \{\}$





"a" is a proposition that is either true or false

P1: a :- a.

M={a} not a stable model (<u>not minimal</u>, derivation of "a" is based on circular reasoning: {a} is not least model of a :- a)

M={} stable model

P2: a :- not b.

Interpretations: $\{ \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\} \xrightarrow{a:=not b} \longrightarrow \{ \}$



"a" is a proposition that is either true or false

P1: a :- a.

M={a} not a stable model (<u>not minimal</u>, derivation of "a" is based on circular reasoning: {a} is not least model of a :- a)

M={} stable model

P2: a :- not b.





> {a}

a :- not b.

"a" is a proposition that is either true or false

P1: a :- a.

M={a} not a stable model (<u>not minimal</u>, derivation of "a" is based on circular reasoning: {a} is not least model of a :- a)

Interpretations:

M={} stable model

P2: a :- not b.

P3:



"a" is a proposition that is either true or false

P1: a :- a.

M={a} not a stable model (<u>not minimal</u>, derivation of "a" is based on circular reasoning: {a} is not least model of a :- a)

M={} stable model

P2: a :- not b.

M={a} only stable model

P3: a :- not a.



has no stable model (cp. to earlier "Box(x): - Item(x), $\neg Box(x)$.")



P4: a :- not b. b :- not a.

?

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P5: a :- not b. b :- not a. a :- not a.

? $\{ \{3, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\} \}$

Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>









M={a} only stable model



Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u>

Postassco/Clingo: Download: <u>https://potassco.org/clingo/</u>, Running in the browser: <u>https://potassco.org/clingo/run/</u>, More resources on clingo: <u>https://teaching.potassco.org/</u>Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

Updated 2/24/2024

Topic 1: Data models and query languages Unit 4: Datalog Lecture 12

Wolfgang Gatterbauer

CS7240 Principles of scalable data management (sp24)

https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/sp24/

2/23/2024

Pre-class conversations

- Last class summary
- Scribe correction: I make a pass on Monday (before next class)
- Project discussions (in class and after)
- Faculty candidates (THU Feb 29, WED March 20)
- Today:
 - Stable models, ASP
 - Later: Beyond NP with ASP (including 3-colorability in 2 lines)

Outline: T1-4: Datalog & ASP

- Datalog
- Answer Set Programming
 - Intro to Rules with Negation
 - Horn clauses and Logic Programming
 - Stable model semantics
 - An application and surprising complexity result
 - The power of Disjunctions
 - [A surprising application: automating hardness proofs: moved to T2-U4: Reverse Data Management]

Discussion from last time

P2: a :- not b.

M={a} is the only stable model

Interpretations: $\{ \{a\}, \{b\}, a:=notb. \longrightarrow \{a\}$ $\{ \{a, b\}, a:=notb. \longrightarrow \{a\}$ $\{ \{a, b\}, a:=notb. \longrightarrow \{a\}$

not $b \Rightarrow a$ $b \lor a$ $a \lor b$ not $a \Rightarrow b$ Logically equivalent

P6: b :- not a.

M={b} is the only stable model

"Why should syntax determine the semantics?"

Discussion from last time

P2: a :- not b.

M={a} is the only stable model



not $b \Rightarrow a$ $b \lor a$ $a \lor b$ not $a \Rightarrow b$ Logically equivalent

P6: **b** :- not a.

M={b} is the only stable model

a ⇒ a ā∨a

recall that we want to have the least model in standard Datalog (non-circular)

What do empty bodies or heads mean in ASP?

a :- b, not c.

Think of the head as a disjunction, body as conjunction $0 \lor a \leftarrow 1 \land b \land \neg c$ "Disjunctive Logic Programming": disjunctions in the head

Empty body:

a.

Empty head:

:- b, not c.

What do empty bodies or heads mean in ASP?

a **⇐**1

a :- b, not c.

Empty body:

a.

Empty head:

:- b, not c.

Think of the head as a disjunction, body as conjunction $0 \lor a \leftarrow 1 \land b \land \neg c$ "Disjunctive Logic Programming": disjunctions in the head

> Empty body describes a fact: "a" needs to be true. Also in Datalog

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What do empty bodies or heads mean in ASP?

a :- b, not c.

Empty body:

a.

Think of the head as a disjunction, body as conjunction $0 \lor a \leftarrow 1 \land b \land \neg c$ "Disjunctive Logic Programming": disjunctions in the head

a ←1 Empty body describes a fact: "a" needs to be true. Also in Datalog

Empty head:

:- b, not c.

$$\mathbf{0} \quad \Leftarrow \mathbf{b} \land \neg \mathbf{c}$$

Empty heads describes a constraint: "b and not c" must not be true in any model. Emtpy head describes a condition in the body which leads to contradiction (false)



Q: For a graph (V, E) assign each vertex a color in $\{1, 2, 3\}$ such that no adjacent vertices have the same color.

Jales



Convention in ASP: Capital letters are variables, lower case letters constants

Cp. edge(X,a)vs. edge(x,"a")

3-colorability beles b а Q: For a graph (V, E) assign each vertex a color in $\{1, 2, 3\}$ such that no adjacent vertices have the same color. EDB (facts) vertex(a). vertex(b). vertex(c). edge(a,b). edge(a,c). Convention in ASP: Capital letters are variables, lower case letters constants Cp. edge(X,a)vs. edge(X,"a")Every vertex needs to have a color ?? Vertices from an edge can't have same color ??

Q: For a graph (V, E) assign each vertex a color in {1, 2, 3} such that no adjacent vertices have the same color.

EDB (facts)

vertex(a). vertex(b). vertex(c). edge(a,b). edge(a,c).

IDB color(V,1) :- not color(V,2), not color(V,3), vertex(V).
color(V,2) :- not color(V,3), not color(V,1), vertex(V).
color(V,3) :- not color(V,1), not color(V,2), vertex(V).

Every vertex needs to have a color Vertices from an edge can't have same color ?



Convention in ASP: Capital letters are variables, lower case letters constants

 C_{P} . edge(X,a) vs. edge(X,"a")

Q: For a graph (V, E) assign each vertex a color in {1, 2, 3} such that no adjacent vertices have the same color.

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color(V,2) :- not color(V,3), not color(V,1), vertex(V).
color(V,3) :- not color(V,1), not color(V,2), vertex(V).



Convention in ASP: Capital letters are variables, lower case letters constants

Cp. edge(X,a)vs. $edge(X,a^{*})$

Vertices from an edge can't have same color ?

":- edge(a,X), edge(b,X)" means that "a" and "b" don't share a neighbor

Q: For a graph (V, E) assign each vertex a color in {1, 2, 3} such that no adjacent vertices have the same color.

EDB (facts)

vertex(a). vertex(b). vertex(c). edge(a,b). edge(a,c).

TDB color(V,1) :- not color(V,2), not color(V,3), vertex(V).

color(V,2) :- not color(V,3), not color(V,1), vertex(V).

color(V,3) :- not color(V,1), not color(V,2), vertex(V).

:- edge(V,U), color(V,C), color(U,C).

constraint



Convention in ASP: Capital letters are variables, lower case letters constants

Cp. edge(X,a)vs. edge(x,"a")

Vertices from an edge can't have same color

":- edge(a,X), edge(b,X)" means that "a" and "b" don't share a neighbor

3-colorability with Clingo

clingo 3colorability1.txt

3colorability1.txt

vertex(a). vertex(b). vertex(c). edge(a,b). edge(a,c). color(V,1) :- not color(V,2), not color(V,3), vertex(V). color(V,2) :- not color(V,3), not color(V,1), vertex(V). color(V,3) :- not color(V,1), not color(V,2), vertex(V). :- edge(V,U), color(V,C), color(U,C).



Returns a stable model if it exists. Since there is a stable model, the problem is "satisfiable".

A ve co S

Answer: 1 vertex(a) vertex(b) vertex(c) edge(a,b) edge(a,c) color(a,1) color(b,3) color(c,3) SATISFIABLE

3-colorability with Clingo

clingo 3colorability1.txt –n 0

print all stable models (not just one)

3colorability1.txt

vertex(a). vertex(b). vertex(c). edge(a,b). edge(a,c). color(V,1) :- not color(V,2), not color(V,3), vertex(V). color(V,2) :- not color(V,3), not color(V,1), vertex(V). color(V,3) :- not color(V,1), not color(V,2), vertex(V). :- edge(V,U), color(V,C), color(U,C).



a b % 3colorability1

Answer: 1 vertex(a) vertex(b) vertex(c) edge(a,b) edge(a,c) color(a,1) color(b,3) color(c,3) Answer: 2 vertex(a) vertex(b) vertex(c) edge(a,b) edge(a,c) color(a,1) color(b,3) color(c,2) Answer: 3 vertex(a) vertex(b) vertex(c) edge(a,b) edge(a,c) color(a,1) color(b,2) color(c,3)

Answer: 11 vertex(a) vertex(b) vertex(c) edge(a,b) edge(a,c) color(a,3) color(b,2) color(c,2) Answer: 12 vertex(a) vertex(b) vertex(c) edge(a,b) edge(a,c) color(a,3) color(b,1) color(c,2) SATISFIABLE

Outline: T1-4: Datalog & ASP

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 - An application and surprising complexity result
 - The power of Disjunctions
 - [A surprising application: automating hardness proofs: moved to T2-U4: Reverse Data Management]



Wolfgang Gatterbauer & Dan Suciu June 8, Sigmod 2010

Paper: <u>https://doi.org/10.1145/1807167.1807193</u> Full version with proofs: <u>http://arxiv.org/pdf/1012.3320</u> Old Project web page: <u>https://db.cs.washington.edu/projects/beliefdb/</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

Problem in social data: often no single ground truth

The Indus Script*



What is the origin of this glyph?







^{*} Current state of knowledge on the Indus Script: Rao et al., Science 324(5931):1165, May 2009 Gatterbauer, Suciu. Data Conflict Resolution Using Trust Mappings, SIGMOD 2010, <u>https://doi.org/10.1145/1807167.1807193</u>

Background: Conflicts & Trust in Community DBs



Gatterbauer, Suciu. Data Conflict Resolution Using Trust Mappings, SIGMOD 2010, https://doi.org/10.1145/1807167.1807193

Limitations of previous work: transient effects



Limitations of previous work: transient effects



Agenda

1. Stable solutions

– how to define a unique and consistent solution?

2. Resolution algorithm

– how to calculate the solution efficiently?

3. Extensions

– how to deal with "negative beliefs"?

Binary Trust Networks (BTNs)

To simplify presentation: focus on binary TNs





Focus on one <u>single key</u> (we ignore the glyph)

The definition of a globally consistent solution



B:w

Ď:?

The definition of a globally consistent solution





The definition of a globally consistent solution

- Stable solution
 - assignment of values to each node, s.t. each belief has a "non-dominated lineage" to an explicit belief





SS₁=(A:v, B:w, C:v, D:v) SS₂=(A:v, B:w, C:w, D:w)

Possible and certain values from all stable solutions

- Stable solution
 - assignment of values to each node, s.t. each belief has a "non-dominated lineage" to an explicit belief



- Possible / Certain semantics
 - a stable solution determines, for each node, a possible value ("poss")
 - certain value ("cert") = intersection of all stable solutions, per user



SS₁=(A:v, B:w, C:v, D:v) SS₂=(A:v, B:w, C:w, D:w)

X	poss(X)	cert(X)
A	{v}	{ <i>v</i> }
В	{w}	{w}
С	{ <i>v,w</i> }	Ø
D	{ <i>v,w</i> }	Ø

Logic programs (LP) with stable model semantics

Convention from LP solver DLV: constants and predicates start with lowercase letters, variables with uppercase letters.

• LPs can capture this semantics.

But solving LPs is hard 😕



poss(c,X) :- poss(a,X). block(c,b,Y) :- poss(b,Y), poss(c,X), X!=Y. poss(c,Y) :- poss(b,Y), not block(c,b,Y).

- There exist powerful and free LP solver available.
- Previous work on peer data exchange suggest using LPs.





Yet surprisingly, our problem allows a PTIME solution ⓒ

DLV example



input.txt	
% Insert explici	t beliefs
possH(h8_0,1).	
possH(h11_0,0).	
possH(h12_0,1).	
possH(h13_0,0).	
possH(h14_0,1).	
% Node: 0	
possH(h0_1,X)	:- possH(h0_0,X).
block(h0_1,11,X)	:- poss(11,X), possH(h0_1,Y), Y!=X.
possH(h0_1,X)	:- poss(11,X), not block(h0_1,11,X).
possH(h0_2,X)	:- possH(h0_1,X).
block(h0_2,3,X)	:- poss(3,X), possH(h0_2,Y), Y!=X.
possH(h0_2,X)	:- poss(3,X), not block(h0_2,3,X).
possH(h0_3,X)	:- possH(h0_2,X).
block(h0_3,12,X)	:- poss(12,X), possH(h0_3,Y), Y!=X.
possH(h0_3,X)	:- poss(12,X), not block(h0_3,12,X).
poss(0,X)	:- possH(h0_3,X).
% Node: 1	
possH(h1_1,X)	:- possH(h1_0,X).
block(h1_1,2,X)	:- poss(2,X), possH(h1_1,Y), Y!=X.
possH(h1_1,X)	:- poss(2,X), not block(h1_1,2,X).
possH(h1_2,X)	:- possH(h1_1,X).
block(h1_2,0,X)	:- poss(0,X), possH(h1_2,Y), Y!=X.
possH(h1_2,X)	:- poss(0,X), not block(h1_2,0,X).
possH(h1_3,X)	:- possH(h1_2,X).
block(h1_3,5,X)	:- poss(5,X), possH(h1_3,Y), Y!=X.
possH(h1_3,X)	:- $poss(5,X)$, not block(h1_3,5,X).
possH(h1_4,X)	:- possH(h1_3,X).
block(h1_4,13,X)	:- poss(13,X), possH(h1_4,Y), Y!=X.
possH(h1_4,X)	:- $poss(13,X)$, not block(h1_4,13,X).
poss(1,X)	:- possH(h1_4,X).
% Node: 2	
% Node: 13	
poss(13,X)	:- possH(h13_0,X).
% Node: 14	,
poss(14,X)	:- possH(h14_0,X).
% Node: 15	
poss(15,X)	:- possH(h15_0,X).

query.txt

poss(X,U) ?

Executing program

./dlv.bin – brave input.txt. query-.txt

Result

Macintosh-2:DLV gatt
8,1
11,0
12, 1
13,0
14, 1
0,0
1, 1
2,1
3,0
3,1
4,0
4,1
5,1
6,1
7,0
7,1

Gatterbauer, Suciu. Data Conflict Resolution Using Trust Mappings, SIGMOD 2010, https://doi.org/10.1145/1807167.1807193

Agenda

1. Stable solutions

– how to define a unique and consistent solution?

2. Resolution algorithm

– how to calculate the solution efficiently?

3. Extensions

– how to deal with "negative beliefs"?
Focus on binary trust network

 Keep 2 sets: closed / open Initialize closed with explicit beliefs





- Keep 2 sets: closed / open Initialize closed with explicit beliefs
- MAIN

Step 1: if ∃ preferred edges from
open to closed
→ follow

X	poss(X)	cert(X)
Α	{v}	{v}
В	{w}	{w}
С	{ <i>u</i> }	{ <i>u</i> }
D	?	?
Ε	?	?
F	?	?
G	?	?
Н	?	?
J	?	?
К	?	?
1	?	?



- Keep 2 sets: closed / open Initialize closed with explicit beliefs
- MAIN

Step 1: if ∃ preferred edges from
open to closed
→ follow

X	poss(X)	cert(X)
A	{v}	{v}
В	{w}	{w}
С	{ <i>u</i> }	{ <i>u</i> }
D	{ v }	{ <mark>v</mark> }
Ε	?	?
F	?	?
G	?	?
Н	?	?
J	?	?
Κ	?	?
L	?	?





- Keep 2 sets: closed / open Initialize closed with explicit beliefs
- MAIN

Step 1: if ∃ preferred edges from
open to closed
→ follow

X	poss(X)	cert(X
A	{v}	{ <i>v</i> }
В	{w}	{w}
С	{ <i>u</i> }	{ <i>u</i> }
D	{v}	{ <i>v</i> }
Ε	{w}	{w}
F	{ <mark>U</mark> }	{ <mark>u</mark> }
G	?	?
Н	?	?
J	?	?
К	?	?
1	?	?



- Keep 2 sets: closed / open Initialize closed with explicit beliefs
- MAIN

<u>Step 1</u>: if ∃ preferred edges from open to closed \rightarrow follow

X	poss(X)	cert(X)
A	{v}	{v}
В	{w}	{w}
С	{ <i>u</i> }	{ <i>u</i> }
D	{v}	{v}
Ε	{w}	{w}
F	{ <i>u</i> }	{ <i>u</i> }
G	?	?
Н	{ w }	{ <mark>W</mark> }
J	?	?
Κ	?	?
L	?	?

Detail: Strongly Connected Components (SCCs)

For every cyclic or acyclic directed graph:

- The Strongly Connected Components graph is a DAG
- can be calculated in **O(n)** Tarjan [1972]





- Keep 2 sets: closed / open Initialize closed with explicit beliefs
- MAIN

Step 1: if ∃ preferred edges from open to closed

 \rightarrow follow

Step 2: else

 \rightarrow construct SCC graph of **open**

X	poss(X)	cert(X)
A	{ <i>v</i> }	{ v }
В	{w}	{w}
С	{ <i>u</i> }	{ <i>u</i> }
D	{ <i>v</i> }	{ <i>v</i> }
Ε	{w}	{w}
F	{ <i>u</i> }	{ <i>u</i> }
G	?	?
Н	{w}	{w}
J	?	?
Κ	?	?
L	?	?



- Keep 2 sets: closed / open Initialize closed with explicit beliefs
- MAIN

Step 1: if ∃ preferred edges from open to closed

 \rightarrow follow

Step 2: else

 \rightarrow construct SCC graph of **open**

X	poss(X)	cert(X)
A	{v}	{ v }
В	{w}	{w}
С	{ <i>u</i> }	{ <i>u</i> }
D	{v}	{ <i>v</i> }
Ε	{w}	{w}
F	{ <i>u</i> }	{ <i>u</i> }
G	?	?
Н	{w}	{w}
J	?	?
Κ	?	?
L	?	?



- Keep 2 sets: closed / open
 Initialize closed with explicit beliefs
- MAIN

<u>Step 1</u>: if ∃ preferred edges from **open** to **closed**

 \rightarrow follow

Step 2: else

 \rightarrow construct SCC graph of **open**

 \rightarrow resolve minimum SCCs

X	poss(X)	cert(X)
Α	{ <i>v</i> }	{ <i>v</i> }
В	{w}	{w}
С	{ <i>u</i> }	{ <i>u</i> }
D	{ <i>v</i> }	{ v }
Ε	{w}	{w}
F	{ <i>u</i> }	{ <i>u</i> }
G	{ <mark>v,w</mark> }	Ø
Н	{w}	{w}
J	{ <mark>v,w</mark> }	Ø
Κ	{ <mark>v,w</mark> }	Ø
1	2	2



- Keep 2 sets: closed / open Initialize closed with explicit beliefs
- MAIN

<u>Step 1</u>: if ∃ preferred edges from **open** to **closed**

 \rightarrow follow

Step 2: else

 \rightarrow construct SCC graph of **open**

 \rightarrow resolve minimum SCCs

X	poss(X)	cert(X)
Α	{v}	{ <i>v</i> }
В	{w}	{w}
С	{ <i>u</i> }	{ <i>u</i> }
D	{v}	{ v }
Ε	{w}	{w}
F	{ <i>u</i> }	{ <i>u</i> }
G	{ <i>v</i> , <i>w</i> }	Ø
Н	{w}	{w}
J	{ <i>v</i> , <i>w</i> }	Ø
Κ	{ <i>v</i> , <i>w</i> }	Ø
L	?	?



• Keep 2 sets: closed / open

MAIN

Initialize **closed** with explicit beliefs

Step 1: if \exists preferred edges from

Gatterbauer, Suciu. Data Conflict Resolution Using Trust Mappings, SIGMOD 2010, https://doi.org/10.1145/1807167.1807193



Experiments on large network data

Calculating **poss / cert** for fixed key

- DLV: State-of-the art logic programming solver
- **RA**: Resolution algorithm



Gatterbauer, Suciu. Data Conflict Resolution Using Trust Mappings, SIGMOD 2010



Agenda

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 - how to calculate the solution efficiently?
- 3. Extensions
 - how to deal with "negative beliefs"?

3 semantics for negative beliefs



3 semantics for negative beliefs



Our recommendation

Gatterbauer, Suciu. Data **ខនុស្សាល់ខ្លាន១៩៨៤៨៩៩៩៤១៣ខ្លានាទាំងច្រុងទទ្**រាទ្ធាចំងាល់ 2010, <u>https://doi.org/10.1145/1807167.1807193</u>

Take-aways automatic conflict resolution

Problem

 Given explicit beliefs & trust mappings, how to assign consistent value assignment to users?

Our solution

- Stable solutions with possible/certain value semantics
- PTIME algorithm [O(n²) worst case, O(n) experiments]
- Several extensions
 - negative beliefs: 3 semantics, two hard, one O(n²)
 - bulk inserts
 - agreement checking

— in the paper & TR

- consensus value
- lineage computation

Please visit us at the poster session Th, 3:30pm

or at: https://db.cs.washington.edu/projects/beliefdb/

some details

Fig_ComplexityExampleLong



Fig_ComplexityOscillator

8-16-2010



Fig_ComplexityPassLong

8-17-2010



(0/1) = (a+/b+)





Fig_ComplexityNotLong



Fig_ComplexityOrLong



Fig_ComplexityAndLong



DEFINITION 3.1 (CONSISTENCY). Two beliefs b_1, b_2 are conflicting $(b_1 \nleftrightarrow b_2)$ if they are either distinct positive beliefs v+, w+, or one is v+ and the other is v-. Otherwise, b_1, b_2 are consistent $(b_1 \leftrightarrow b_2)$. A set of beliefs B is called consistent if any two beliefs $b_1, b_2 \in B$ are consistent.

DEFINITION 3.2 (PREFERRED UNION). Given two consistent sets of beliefs B_1, B_2 , their preferred union is:

$$B_1 \vec{\cup} B_2 = B_1 \cup \{b_2 \mid b_2 \in B_2. (\forall b_1 \in B_1. b_1 \leftrightarrow b_2)\}$$

be a consistent set of positive and/or negative beliefs. For each paradigm $\sigma \in \{\text{Agnostic}, \text{Eclectic}, \text{Skeptic}\}\)$ (abbreviated by $\{A, E, S\}$), the normal form $Norm_{\sigma}(B)$ is:

$$Norm_{A}(B) = \begin{cases} \{v+\} & \text{if } \exists v+ \in B \\ B & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
$$Norm_{E}(B) = B$$
$$Norm_{S}(B) = \begin{cases} \{v+\} \cup (\bot - \{v-\}) & \text{if } \exists v+ \in B \\ B & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The preferred union specialized to the paradigm σ is:

$$B_1 \vec{\cup}_{\sigma} B_2 = Norm_{\sigma} \left(Norm_{\sigma}(B_1) \vec{\cup} Norm_{\sigma}(B_2) \right)$$
(1)

For example:

$$\{a-\}\vec{\cup}_{A}\{b+\} = \{b+\}$$

$$\{a-\}\vec{\cup}_{E}\{b+\} = \{b+, a-\}$$

$$\{a-\}\vec{\cup}_{S}\{b+\} = \{b+, a-, c-, d-, \ldots\}$$

$$\{b-\}\vec{\cup}_{S}\{b+\} = \bot$$

Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/

A puzzling question is why is the Skeptic paradigm in PTIME, while the other two are hard. It is easy to see (3, 3, 4)that the Boolean gates in Fig. 7 no longer work under Skeptic, but we do not consider this a satisfactory explanation. While we cannot give an ultimate cause, we point out one interesting difference. The preferred union for Skeptic is associative, while it is not associative for either Agnostic nor Eclectic. For example, consider the two expressions $B_1 =$ $\{a-\} \vec{\cup}_{\sigma} (\{a+\} \vec{\cup}_{\sigma} \{b+\}), B_2 = (\{a-\} \vec{\cup}_{\sigma} \{a+\}) \vec{\cup}_{\sigma} \{b+\}.$ For Agnostic, we have $B_2 \stackrel{\checkmark}{=} \{b+\}$, for Eclectic $B_2 = \{a-, b+\}$, while for both $B_1 = \{a = \{a = \}\}$. By contrast, one can show that $\vec{\cup}_s$ is associative. Associativity as a desirable property during data merging was pointed out in [14].

 $\mathcal{A}^{-}\left(\sigma^{+}\mathcal{B}^{+}\right)$

The issue of associativity

null appears in a join column. No matter what choice is taken, \bowtie is not associative. Consider the relations

$q(\underline{A}$	<u>B</u>)	$r(\underline{B})$	<u>C</u>)	$s(\underline{A})$	<u>C</u>)
1	2	2	3	1	4

Computing $(q \bowtie r) \bowtie s$ we get

 $\begin{array}{cccc} q'(\underline{A} \quad \underline{B} \quad \underline{C}) \\ 1 \quad \underline{2} \quad 3 \\ 1 \quad \underline{1} \quad \underline{4} \end{array}$

while $q \bowtie (r \bowtie s)$ gives

q"(A	B	<u>C</u>)
1	2	4
\bot	2	3

 $\{a^{-}\} \overrightarrow{U}_{a} (\{a\} \overrightarrow{U}_{a} \{b\}) = \{a^{-}\} \\ (\{a^{-}\} \overrightarrow{U}_{a} \{a\}) \overrightarrow{U}_{a} \{b\} = \{b\}$

Source: left outer join example from p392 in "Maier. The theory of relational databases, 1983." <u>https://web.cecs.pdx.edu/~maier/TheoryBook/TRD.html</u> Source: right preferred union example from "Gatterbauer, Suciu. Conflict resolution using trust mapping. SIGMOD 2010. <u>https://doi.org/10.1145/1807167.1807193</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

Binarization example



 $p_1 = p_2 < p_3 = p_4 = p_5 < p_6 < p_7$

Gatterbauer, Suciu. Data Conflict Resolution Using Trust Mappings, SIGMOD 2010, https://doi.org/10.1145/1807167.1807193

Logic programs with stable model semantics



2: accept **poss** from non-preferred parent, that are not conflicting with an existing value

Binarization for Resolution Algorithm*



Corresponding Binary TN (BTN) 8 nodes, 12 arcs (size 20)



* Note that binarization is not necessary, but greatly simplifies the presentation Gatterbauer, Suciu. Data Conflict Resolution Using Trust Mappings, SIGMOD 2010, <u>https://doi.org/10.1145/1807167.1807193</u>

- Priority trust network (TN)
 - assume a fixed key
 - users (nodes): A, B, C
 - values (beliefs): v, w, u
 - trust mappings (arcs) from "parents"
- Stable solution
 - assignment of values to each node^{*},
 s.t. each belief has a "<u>non-dominated</u> lineage" to an explicit belief
- Certain values
 - all stable solution determine, for each node, a possible value ("poss")
 - certain value ("cert") = intersection of all stable solutions





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poss(*G*) = {*v*,...}

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 $poss(G) = \{v, w\}$ $cert(G) = \emptyset$

Gatterbauer, Suciu. Data Conflict Resolution Using Trust Mappings, SIGMOD 2010, https://doi.org/10.1145/1807167.1807193
exercise

Logic programs with stable model semantics





poss(c,X) :- poss(a,X). block(c,b,Y) :- poss(b,Y), poss(c,X), X!=Y. poss(c,Y) :- poss(b,Y), not block(c,b,Y).



Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>



Logic programs with stable model semantics

poss(c,1) :- poss(a,1)
poss(c,2) :- poss(a,2)
poss(c,3) :- poss(a,3)
block(c,b,3) :- poss(b,3), poss(c,1), X!=Y
block(c,b,3) :- poss(b,3), poss(c,2), X!=Y
block(c,b,3) :- poss(b,1), poss(c,3), X!=Y

poss(c,3) :- poss(b,3), not block(c,b,3)
poss(c,2) :- poss(b,2), not block(c,b,2)



poss(c,X) :- poss(a,X). block(c,b,Y) :- poss(b,Y), poss(c,X), X!=Y. poss(c,Y) :- poss(b,Y), not block(c,b,Y).

> M={ poss(a,1), poss(a,2), poss(b,3), poss(c,1), poss(c,2) }

...





Logic programs with stable model semantics





block(c,a,Y) :- poss(a,Y), poss(c,X), X!=Y.
poss(c,Y) :- poss(a,Y), not block(c,a,Y).
block(c,b,Y) :- poss(b,Y), poss(c,X), X!=Y.
poss(c,Y) :- poss(b,Y), not block(c,b,Y).



Updated 2/27/2024

Topic 1: Data models and query languages Unit 4: Datalog Lecture 13

Wolfgang Gatterbauer

CS7240 Principles of scalable data management (sp24)

https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/sp24/

2/27/2024

Pre-class conversations

- Last class summary
- Feedback on Feedback on scribes?
- Project discussions (in class and after or via email and office hours)
- Faculty candidates (THU Feb 29, WED March 20)
- Today:
 - The power of disjunctions: Disjunctive Logic Programs (NP and Co-NP in the same program...)

About research (getting a PhD or finding a project topic)



The last comment: Keep pushing!

Source: https://matt.might.net/articles/phd-school-in-pictures/

Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

Outline: T1-4: Datalog & ASP

- Datalog
- Answer Set Programming
 - Intro to Rules with Negation
 - Horn clauses and Logic Programming
 - Stable model semantics
 - An application and surprising complexity result
 - The power of Disjunctions
 - [A surprising application: automating hardness proofs: moved to T2-U4: Reverse Data Management]



Disjunctive Logic Programming with Clingo/Potassco (Examples prepared together with Neha Makhija https://nehamakhija.github.io/)

Clingo, Potassco

The Potassco, the Potsdam Answer Set Solving Collection

Home About Getting Started Documentation Teaching Support

Potassco

Getting Started

Answer Set Programming (ASP) offers a simple and powerful modeling language to solve combinatorial problems. With our tools you can concentrate on an actual problem, rather than a smart way of implementing it. Get started!

To get a quick first impression, you may want to experiment with running clingo in your browser.

Documentation

A comprehensive documentation of our software can be found in the Potassco guide. For additional resources, see the documentation page.

Systems

To find out more about a specific system and a download link, follow one of the links below.

- clingo is an ASP system to ground and solve logic programs.
- \circ gringo is a grounder (powering the grounding in clingo).
- clasp is a solver (powering the search in clingo).
- clingcon extends clingo with constraint solving capabilities.
- aspcud is a solver for package dependencies.
- asprin is a general framework for qualitative and quantitative optimization in ASP.

 Potassco start page: https://potassco.org/clingo/
 • clingcon extends

 Clingo start page: https://potassco.org/clingo/
 • aspcud is a solve

 Running clingo in the browser: https://potassco.org/clingo/run/
 • aspcud is a solve

 Teaching material: https://teaching.potassco.org/
 • asprin is a generic

 Download: https://github.com/potassco/clingo/releases/
 • asprin is a generic

 Clingo user guide: https://github.com/potassco/guide/releases/download/v2.2.0/guide.pdf

 Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://potastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/

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Clingo Implementation

clingo is a monolithic system that combines two steps and offers more control than using the two tools individually:

- gringo: a grounder that, given an input program with first-order variables, computes an equivalent ground (variable-free) program
- clasp: a solver that works on ground program (like other answer set solvers)
 - relies on conflict-driven nogood learning, a technique that proved very successful for SAT
 - does not rely on legacy software, such as a SAT solver or any other existing ASP solver



Sources: <u>https://potassco.org/clingo/</u>, "ASP-Core-2 Input Language Format. Calimeri, Faber, Gebser, et al. TPLP, 2020, <u>https://doi.org/10.1017/S1471068419000450</u>", "How to Build Your Own ASP-based System?!, Kaminski, Romero, Schaub, Wanko, TPLP, 2023. <u>https://doi.org/10.1017/S1471068421000508</u>" Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

Complexity and Expressive Power of Logic Programming

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Vienna University of Technology, Austria

AND

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Note that every stratified P has a unique stable model, and its stratified and stable semantics coincide. Unstratified rules increase complexity.

Informally, *disjunctive logic programming* (*DLP*) extends logic programming by adding disjunction in the rule heads, in order to allow more natural and flexible knowledge representation. For example,

 $male(X) \lor female(X) \leftarrow person(X)$

naturally represents that any person is either male or female. THEOREM 5.7. ([Marek and Truszczyński 1991; Bidoit and Froidevaux 1991]). Given a propositional normal logic program P, deciding whether $SM(P) \neq \emptyset$ is NP-complete.

THEOREM 5.8. (Marek and Truszczyński 1991; Schlipf 1995b; Kolaitis and Papadimitriou 1991]). Propositional logic programming with negation under SMS is co-NP-complete. Datalog with negation under SMS is data complete for co-NP and program complete for co-NEXPTIME.

"normal" means no disjunctions in head

Example for NP-complete problem: Boolean satisfiability problem: "given a Boolean formula, is it satisfiable" (i.e. is there an input for which the formula outputs true)?

Example for co-NP problem: the complementary problem asks: "given a Boolean formula, is it unsatisfiable" (i.e. do all possible inputs to the formula output false)?

Modeling problems beyond the class NP with ASP is possible to some extent. Namely, when disjunctions are allowed in the heads of rules, every decision problem in the class Σ_2^P can be modeled in a uniform way by a finite program (Dantsin et al. 2001). However, modeling problems beyond NP with ASP is complicated and the generate-define-test approach is no longer sufficient in general. Additional techniques such as *saturation* (Eiter and Gottlob 1995) are needed but they are difficult to use, and may introduce constraints that have no direct relation to constraints of the problem being modeled. As stated explicitly in (Gebser et al. 2011) "unlike the ease of common ASP modeling, [...] these techniques are rather involved and hardly usable by ASP laymen."

Dantsin, Eiter, Gottlob, Voronkov. "Complexity and expressive power of logic programming", ACM computing survesy, 2001. <u>https://doi.org/10.1145/502807.502810</u> Amendola, Ricca, Truszczynski. "Beyond NP: Quantifying over Answer Sets", TPLP, 2019. <u>https://doi.org/10.1017/S1471068419000140</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

NP-hardness (assuming P≠NP)



NP vs. Co-NP

- NP: decision problems for which a solution can be verified in PTIME
 - SAT: Given a Boolean formula, is it satisfiable (i.e. there is an input for which the formula outputs true)? $\varphi = (x \lor y \lor z) \land (\overline{x} \lor z \lor w) \land (\overline{y} \lor \overline{z} \lor \overline{w})$ 3SAT (3CNF)
 - 3-colorability: Given a graph, is there an assignment of colors to nodes s.t. no edge connects same colors?
 - VC (Vertex Cover): Given a graph and a number k (as part of input), is there a VC of size k or smaller?
- Co-NP-complete: A decision problem is in co-NP if its complement is in NP.
 - Co-NP = $\{L \mid \overline{L} \in NP\}$
 - UNSAT: Given a Boolean formula, is it unsatisfiable (i.e. is it false for all choices of inputs)?
 - Tautology: Given a Boolean formula, is it a tautology (i.e. is it true for all choices of inputs)?
 - Uncolorable: Given a graph, is there <u>no assignment</u> of colors to nodes s.t. edges connect different colors?
 - "UNCOVERABLE": Given a graph and a number k, is there <u>no VC</u> of size k or smaller?



Computational Complexity of Logic Programs (LP) / ASP

a disjunctive LP with optimization statements

a disjunctive LP

a normal LP with optimization statements

a normal LP (no disjunction in head)

a positive normal LP (no negation in body)



Created based on: Gebser, Kaminski, Kaufmann, Schaub. Answer Set Solving in Practice. Synthesis Lectures on AI and ML, 2013. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-01561-8 Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-01561-8

Details on Disjunctive Logic Programming

- 3-colorability
 - 3-colorability with normal or disjunctive logic programs
 - 3-uncolorability with cautious semantics
- Optimization
 - Minimal Vertex Cover with weak constraints, optimization, aggregates
 - Shortest paths with aggregation (contrast Clingo vs Souffle)
- Saturation for Disjunctive Logic Programs
 - Minimal example for the power of saturation
 - Uncolorability (program is satisfiable iff a graph is not 3-colorable)
 - Minimal Vertex Cover of a particular size without minimization

clingo 3colorability1.txt

3colorability1.txt

Capital letters are variables, lowercase letters and numbers are constants (notice the difference to Souffle)



vertex(a). vertex(b). vertex(c). edge(a,b). edge(a,c). color(X,1) :- not color(X,2), not color(X,3), vertex(X). color(X,2) :- not color(X,3), not color(X,1), vertex(X). color(X,3) :- not color(X,1), not color(X,2), vertex(X). :- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C).

Returns a stable model if it exists. Since there is a stable model, the problem is "satisfiable".

Recall that an empty head encodes a constraint that the body can't be true. Thus no two neighbors in a valuation can share colors.



Answer: 1 vertex(a) vertex(b) vertex(c) edge(a,b) edge(a,c) color(a,1) color(b,3) color(c,3) SATISFIABLE

3-colorability (2/6)

clingo 3colorability2.txt

3colorability2.txt

vertex(a). vertex(b). vertex(c). edge(a,b). edge(a,c). color(X,1) :- not color(X,2), not color(X,3), vertex(X). color(X,2) :- not color(X,3), not color(X,1), vertex(X). color(X,3) :- not color(X,1), not color(X,2), vertex(X). notcolored :- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C).

a b ??

Now, if any two neighbors in a / valuation share colors, then "notcolored" needs to be true.

But "notcolored" cannot be true



Answer: 1 vertex(a) vertex(b) vertex(c) edge(a,b) edge(a,c) color(a,1) color(b,3) color(c,3) SATISFIABLE

3-colorability (3/6)

clingo 3colorability3.txt

3colorability3.txt

vertex(a). vertex(b). vertex(c). edge(a,b). edge(a,c). color(X,1) :- not color(X,2), not color(X,3), vertex(X). color(X,2) :- not color(X,3), not color(X,1), vertex(X). color(X,3) :- not color(X,1), not color(X,2), vertex(X). notcolored :- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C). a :- notcolored, not a.

Another way to think about the empty header from the previous pages: if "notcolored" is true, then the body of a rule is "a :- not a", which has no stable model.



Answer: 1 vertex(a) vertex(b) vertex(c) edge(a,b) edge(a,c) color(a,1) color(b,3) color(c,3) SATISFIABLE

3-colorability (4/6)

clingo 3colorability4.txt

3colorability4.txt

vertex(a). vertex(b). vertex(c). edge(a,b). edge(a,c). color(X,1) :- not color(X,2), not color(X,3), vertex(X). color(X,2) :- not color(X,3), not color(X,1), vertex(X). color(X,3) :- not color(X,1), not color(X,2), vertex(X). :- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C). #show color/2.



Only show the predicate "color" with arity=2 (i.e. 2 arguments). clingo allows different predicates with same name but different arities; thus we need to include the "/2"



Answer: 1 color(a,1) color(b,3) color(c,3) SATISFIABLE

3-colorability (5/6)

clingo 3colorability4.txt _n 0

3colorability4.txt

vertex(a). vertex(b). vertex(c). edge(a,b). edge(a,c). color(X,1) :- not color(X,2), not color(X,3), vertex(X). color(X,2) :- not color(X,3), not color(X,1), vertex(X). color(X,3) :- not color(X,1), not color(X,2), vertex(X). :- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C). #show color/2.

Show all models





3-colorability (6/6)

clingo 3colorability5.txt -n 0

3colorability5.txt

vertex(a). vertex(b). vertex(c). edge(a,b). edge(a,c). color(X,1) :- not color(X,2), not color(X,3), vertex(X). color(X,2) :- not color(X,3), not color(X,1), vertex(X). color(X,3) :- not color(X,1), not color(X,2), vertex(X). :- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C). #show. #show.

Turns off printing of all predicates by default Conditional statement: shows (X,C) terms if color(X, C) is true

Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>



Answer: 1 (a,1) (b,3) (c,3) Answer: 2 (a,1) (b,3) (c,2) Answer: 3 (a,1) (b,2) (c,3) Answer: 4 (a,1) (b,2) (c,2) ... Answer: 11 (a,3) (b,2) (c,2) Answer: 12 (a,3) (b,1) (c,2) SATISFIABLE

3-colorability: now with disjunction

clingo 3colorability-disjunction.txt -n 0

3colorability-disjunction.txt

```
vertex(a). vertex(b). vertex(c). edge(a,b). edge(a,c).
```

```
color(X,1) | color(X,2) | color(X,3) :- vertex(X). ✓
```

```
:- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C).
```

#show.

```
#show (X,C) : color(X,C).
```

clingo also allows ";" instead of "|" for disjunctions

Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>



- Guess a possible color assignment of vertices. This rule does not prevent a
- vertex from getting assigned >1 color.
- However, a vertex having multiple colors is not part of a minimal model since it is a superset of a valid coloring.

Answer: 1 (a,1) (b,3) (c,3) Answer: 2 (a,1) (b,3) (c,2) Answer: 3 (a,1) (b,2) (c,3) Answer: 4 (a,1) (b,2) (c,2) ... Answer: 11 (a,3) (b,2) (c,2) Answer: 12 (a,3) (b,1) (c,2) SATISFIABLE

3-colorability: Brave semantics (1/2)

clingo 3colorability-brave1.txt -n 0
3colorability-brave1.txt defines a range 1, 2, 3
vertex(1..3). edge(1,2). edge(1,3). edge(2,3).
color(X,1) | color(X,2) | color(X,3) :- vertex(X).
notcolored :- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C).
colored :- not notcolored.
#show.

#show yes : colored.

#show no : notcolored.

In a minimal model, notcolored and colored are not true at the same time. Thus "colored" is only true in a stable model where "notcolored" is not true and thus the color assignment is valid.

Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

We use here disjunction although not needed



If any two neighbors in a valuation share colors, then "notcolored" needs to be true. Since it is the only rule with "notcolored" in the head, "notcolored" is true iff any two neighbors share the color.

-"colored" is true if "notcolored" is not.

Show "yes" if colored is true. Show "no" if notcolored is true.

> Answer: 1 no Answer: 2 yes Answer: 3 no ... Answer: 27 no SATISFIABLE

Notice 27 possible colorings. Each is either a valid coloring ("yes") or not ("no").

3-colorability: Brave semantics (2/2)

clingo 3colorability-brave2.txt -e brave

3colorability-brave2.txt

vertex(1..3). edge(1,2). edge(1,3). edge(2,3). color(X,1) | color(X,2) | color(X,3) :- vertex(X). notcolored :- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C). colored :- not notcolored.

#show.

#show yes : colored.

(Details: There are d definite consequences and p probable consequences. For brave semantics, the value of d increases with processing of more models while in cautious semantics the value of p decreases.)

Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

"brave" execution mode gives possible answers (union): Is there an answer set in which the query (here "yes=true") holds?

Clingo uses multiple answer sets to converge on the final union/intersection. "Consequences [d;p]" are essentially lower and upper bounds which converge towards d=p.



Consequences: [0;1] Answer: 2 yes Consequences: [1;1] SATISFIABLE The 2nd (last) answer (after convergence) is the union of all models: it contains "colored", thus we see "yes": there is some answer that is correct.

"yes", thus there exists some model in which "colored" is true



3-uncolorability: Cautious semantics (1/3)

clingo 3colorability-cautious1.txt -e brave

3colorability-cautious1.txt

vertex(1..3). edge(1,2). edge(1,3). edge(2,3). color(X,1) | color(X,2) | color(X,3) :- vertex(X). notcolored :- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C). colored :- not notcolored.

#show.

#show yes : notcolored.

Here we are asking if there is at least one stable model (one answer set) in which "notcolored" is true. Here, clingo happens to find that the first stable model it looks at has "notcolored" as true. Thus it does not need to look further: it knows that the union of the answers contains "notcolored"



3-uncolorability: Cautious semantics (2/3)



clingo 3colorability-cautious1.txt -e cautious

3colorability-cautious1.txt

vertex(1..3). edge(1,2). edge(1,3). edge(2,3). color(X,1) | color(X,2) | color(X,3) :- vertex(X). notcolored :- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C). colored :- not notcolored.

#show.

#show yes : notcolored.

"cautious" execution model gives certain answers (intersection): Is is true that the query holds in *all* stable models?

Even by looking at the 2^{nd} answer, we are done: it does not contain "notcolored" and thus the answer is no: the intersection does not contain "notcolored".



3-uncolorability: Cautious semantics (3/3)

clingo 3colorability-cautious2.txt -e cautious

3colorability-cautious2.txt

```
vertex(1..4). edge(1,2..4). edge(2,3..4). edge(3,4).
color(X,1) | color(X,2) | color(X,3) :- vertex(X).
notcolored :- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C).
colored :- not notcolored.
#show.
```

#show yes : notcolored.

This new graph (a 4-clique) is not 3colorable. Thus "notcolored" is true in all stable models, thus in all attempts to assign colors to vertices. The intersection thus contains "notcolored"

Answer: 1 yes Consequences: [0;1] SATISFIABLE



Details on Disjunctive Logic Programming

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 - Shortest paths with aggregation (contrast Clingo vs Souffle)
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Weak constraints for optimization

3.1.13 Optimization

Optimization statements extend the basic question of whether a set of atoms is an answer set to whether it is an optimal answer set. To support this reasoning mode, *gringo* and *clingo* adopt *dlv*'s weak constraints [14]. The form of weak constraints is similar to integrity constraints (cf. Section 3.1.2) being associated with a term tuple:

```
:~ L_1, ..., L_n. [w@p, t_1, ..., t_n]
```

The priority '@p' is optional. For simplicity, we first consider the non-prioritized case omitting '@p'. Whenever the body of a weak constraint is satisfied, it contributes its term tuple (as with aggregates, each tuple is included at most once) to a cost function. This cost function accumulates the integer weights w of all contributed tuples just like a # sum aggregate does (cf. Section 3.1.12). The semantics of a program with weak constraints is intuitive: an answer set is *optimal* if the obtained cost is minimal among all answer sets of the given program. Whenever there are different priorities attached to tuples, we obtain a (possibly zero) cost for each priority. To determine whether an answer set is optimal, we do not just compare two single costs but lexicographically compare cost tuples whose elements are ordered by priority (greater is more important). Note that a tuple is always associated with a priority; if it is omitted, then the priority defaults to zero. A weak constraint is safe if the variables in its term tuples are bound by the atoms in the body and the safety requirements for the body itself are the same as for integrity constraints.

Source: Gebser, Kaminski, Kaufmann, Lindauer, Ostrowski, Romero, Schaub, Thiele, Wanko. Potassco user guide. version 2.2.0, 2019. <u>https://github.com/potassco/guide/releases/</u> Neha Makhija. Principles of Scalable Database Management. <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

Minimum Vertex Cover: Optimization

clingo minVC-optimization.txt

minVC-optimization.txt

vertex(1..3). edge(1,2). edge(1,3). edge(2,3). cover(N,1) | cover(N,0) :- vertex (N). :- edge(X,Y), cover(X,0), cover(Y,0).

:~ cover(X,1). [1@1, X] Body Tail terms (t₁, ...t_n) priority (optional) weight (w) #show. #show (X,C): cover(X,C).

Intuitively: enforce weak constraints if possible. Minimize the number of violations.

Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>



At least one endpoint of each edge needs to be in the cover, i.e. both can't be outside the cover (D)

Minimize the number of valuations for X that make "cover(X,1)" true

- Show the nodes and whether they are in the cover (1) or not (0)

Answer: 1 (1,1) (2,1) (3,1) Optimization: 3 Answer: 2 (1,1) (2,1) (3,0) Optimization: 2 OPTIMUM FOUND

we use here disjunction although

not needed: every vertex "N" is

in the cover (1) or not (D)

an intermediate nonoptimal answer

last answer is an optimal answer

Minimum Vertex Cover: Optimization

clingo minVC-optimization.txt

minVC-optimization.txt

```
vertex(1..3). edge(1,2). edge(1,3). edge(2,3).
cover(N,1) | cover(N,0) :- vertex (N).
:- edge(X,Y), cover(X,0), cover(Y,0).
:~ cover(X,1). [1@1, X]
Body Tail
```

Body Tail terms (t₁, ...t_n) priority (optional) weight (w) #show. #show (X,C): cover(X,C). SEMANTICS OF WEAK CONSTRAINTS: For any program P and answer set A, weak(P,A) is the set of all unique tails of weak constraints in ground(P) whose body is satisfied by A

Goal is to minimize $\sum_{(t_1,...,t_n)\in \text{weak}(\mathbf{P},\mathbf{A})} W$

Higher priority levels are more important





Minimum Vertex Cover: Optimization

clingo minVC-aggregation.txt

minVC-aggregation.txt

```
vertex(1..3). edge(1,2). edge(1,3). edge(2,3).
cover(N,1) \mid cover(N,0) :- vertex(N).
:- edge(X,Y), cover(X,0), cover(Y,0).
#minimize {1@1, X : cover(X,1)}. •
                           Body
       / terms (t_1, ..., t_n)
priority (optional)
 weight (w)
#show. #show (X,C): cover(X,C).
```



Minimize the number of valuations for X that make "cover(X,1)" true

same answer

Answer: 1 (1,1) (2,1) (3,1) Optimization: 3 Answer: 2 (1,1) (2,1) (3,0) Optimization: 2 OPTIMUM FOUND

Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

Minimum Vertex Cover: Aggregate / Decision



Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

Minimum Vertex Cover: Aggregate / Decision

clingo minVC-decision1.txt -n 0

minVC-decision1.txt

vertex(1..3). edge(1,2). edge(1,3). edge(2,3).

cover(N,1) | cover(N,0) :- vertex (N).

- :- edge(X,Y), cover(X,0), cover(Y,0).
- :- $\#count{X : cover(X, 1)} > 2.$

Aggregate Atom

Counts values X that make "cover(X,1)" true

#show. #show (X,C): cover(X,C).

SEMANTICS OF AGGREGATES:

An aggregate atom occurring in a rule body takes the form $l \alpha\{t_1: L_1; ...; t_n: L_n\} u$ where

- α is an aggregate function,
- $t_1: L_i$ aggregate t_1 when L_i holds
- *l*, *u* are optional lower and upper bounds

Answer: 1 (1,1) (2,1) (3,0) Answer: 2 (1,1) (2,0) (3,1) Answer: 3 (1,0) (2,1) (3,1) SATISFIABLE

Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

Minimum Vertex Cover: Aggregate / Decision

clingo minVC-decision2.txt -n 0

minVC-decision2.txt

vertex(1..3). edge(1,2). edge(1,3). edge(2,3). $cover(N,1) \mid cover(N,0) :- vertex(N).$:- edge(X,Y), cover(X,0), cover(Y,0).solution :- $\#count\{X: cover(X, 1)\} \le 2$. :- not solution. 🟎 #show. #show (X,C): cover(X,C).

Check if there is some valid cover with 2 or fewer nodes covered

If the size of the cover is ≤ 2 , then it is a solution.

- And "solution" cannot be false (otherwise it true would imply false)

> Answer: 1 (1,1) (2,1) (3,0) Answer: 2 (1,1) (2,0) (3,1) Answer: 3 (1,0) (2,1) (3,1) SATISFIABLE
Details on Disjunctive Logic Programming

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Shortest Path via Aggregation

clingo shortestpath1.txt

shortestpath1.txt

```
edge(s,v1,2). edge(v1,v2,1). edge(v2,t,1).
edge(v2,t,10). edge(s,v3,1). edge(v3,t,4).
```

```
path(X,Y,W) :- edge(X,Y,W).
path(X,Z,W1+W2) :- path(X,Y,W1), path(Y,Z,W2).
```

```
minpath(X,Y,C) :- path(X,Y,_), C=#min{W: path(X,Y,W)}.
#show. #show W: minpath(s,t,W). Aggregate Atom
```



For all possible values X,Y grounded by "path(X,Y,_)", find the minimum weight w, call it C and store it in minpath(X,Y,C)



Clingo example available at: https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/



Shortest Path via Aggregation

clingo shortestpath2.txt

shortestpath2.txt

```
edge(s,v1,2). edge(v1,v2,1). edge(v2,t,1).
edge(v2,t,10). edge(s,v3,1). edge(v3,t,4).
```

```
path(X,Y,W) :- edge(X,Y,W).
path(X,Z,W1+W2) := path(X,Y,W1), path(Y,Z,W2).
```

```
#show. #show W: minpath (W).
```



For all possible values w grounded by "path(s,t,w)", find the minimum weight w, call it C and store it in

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Shortest Path via Aggregation (Souffle)

souffle shortestpath.dl

shortestpath.dl



Souffle example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/souffle</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u> weights of edges

S

Details on Disjunctive Logic Programming

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Use Disjunction only if needed

clasp and claspD have been united into clasp

3.1.3 Disjunction

Disjunctive logic programs permit connective "|" between atoms in rule heads. A disjunction is true if at least one of its atoms is true. Additionally, logic programs have to satisfy a minimality criterion, which we do not detail in this guide. The simple program $a \mid b$. has the two answer sets $\{a\}$ and $\{b\}$ but does not admit the answer set a, b because it is no minimal model.

In general, the use of disjunction however increases computational complexity [12]. This is why clingo² and solvers like assat [37], clasp [20], nomore++ [1], smodels [51], and smodels_{cc} [56] do not work on disjunctive programs. Rather, claspD [8], cmodels [28, 35], or gnt [33] need to be used for solving a disjunctive program.³ We thus suggest to use "choice constructs" (cf. Section 3.1.10) instead of disjunction, unless the latter is required for complexity reasons (see [13] for an implementation methodology in disjunctive ASP).

It is possible that modern solvers can detect head-cycle free disjunctions and internally "shift" the heads to normal logic programs.

Source: Gebser, Kaminski, Kaufmann, Ostrowski, Schaub, Thiele. A user's guide to gringo, clasp, clingo, and iclingo. version 3.x. 2010. Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

Horn clauses and logic programming

A clause is a disjunction of literals.

 $\overline{a} \vee \overline{b} \vee c \vee d \qquad a \wedge b \Rightarrow c \vee d \\ 1 \wedge a \wedge b \Rightarrow c \vee d \vee 0$

A Horn clause has at most one positive (i.e. unnegated) literal.

ā∨b∨c	$a \wedge \overline{b} \Rightarrow c$
ā∨b∨c	$a \wedge \overline{c} \Rightarrow b$
ā∨b∨c	$a \Rightarrow b \lor c$

Those express the same models and minimal models. However, for a model in which both a and b are true, the non-disjunctive version does not include the rules in the reduct because the body is not true!

Disjunctive logic programming

Datalog



If a is true, then both b and c need to be true too $b \land c \Leftarrow a$

Datalog with negation and stable model semantics, or disjunction in head

b :- a, not c. c :- a, not b. If a is true, then either b or c need to be true (both can be true <u>only if</u> there are other rules) $b \lor c \Leftarrow a$

b c :- a.

If a is true, then at least b or c need to be true: b V c \leftarrow a

When disjunctions add expressiveness (1/2)



clingo saturation1.txt -n 0

saturation1.txt

a :- not b.

b :- not a.



saturation2.txt



When disjunctions add expressiveness (1/2)



clingo saturation1.txt -n 0



{{a}, {b}}

both have the same two SMs $\{a\}$ and $\{b\}$. $\{a,b\}$ would also be a model, but is not minimal, thus not a SM

Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

When disjunctions add expressiveness (1/2)



clingo saturation1.txt -n 0



both have the same two SMs $\{a\}$ and $\{b\}$. $\{a,b\}$ would also be a model, but is not minimal, thus not a SM

Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

When disjunctions add expressiveness (2/2)



clingo saturation1.txt -n 0

saturation3.txt



either a or b is true (if the other one is false) thus c is true thus both a and b need to be true ("saturation") but then neither a or b is justified in the first place



When disjunctions add expressiveness (2/2)



clingo saturation1.txt -n 0



has no SM (stable model)

has 1 SM that includes both a and b

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clingo 3uncolorability2.txt -n 0

3uncolorability2.txt

% Facts

vertex(1..3). edge(1,2). edge(1,3). edge(2,3).

% Guess

color(X,1) | color(X,2) | color(X,3) :- vertex(X).

% Check desired property (of being "uncolored")

uncolored :- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C).

% Saturate if desired property holds

color(X,1..3) :- uncolored, vertex(X).

There are 6 possible colorings in which notcolored is not made true. Thus "notcolored" is never included.

Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>



If "notcolored" is true then "saturate" all vertices with all colors. This will never be a minimal SM if there is at least one valid coloring

Answer: 1

- vertex(1) vertex(2) vertex(3) edge(1,2) edge(1,3) edge(2,3) color(1,3) color(2,2) color(3,1) Answer: 2
- vertex(1) vertex(2) vertex(3) edge(1,2) edge(1,3) edge(2,3) color(1,2) color(2,3) color(3,1) Answer: 3
- vertex(1) vertex(2) vertex(3) edge(1,2) edge(1,3) edge(2,3) color(1,3) color(2,1) color(3,2) Answer: 4
- vertex(1) vertex(2) vertex(3) edge(1,2) edge(1,3) edge(2,3) color(1,2) color(2,1) color(3,3) Answer: 5
- vertex(1) vertex(2) vertex(3) edge(1,2) edge(1,3) edge(2,3) color(1,1) color(2,3) color(3,2) Answer: 6
- vertex(1) vertex(2) vertex(3) edge(1,2) edge(1,3) edge(2,3) color(1,1) color(2,2) color(3,3) SATISFIABLE

Models : 6



clingo 3uncolorability3.txt –n 0

3uncolorability3.txt

% Facts

vertex(1..3). edge(1,2). edge(1,3). edge(2,3).

% Guess

color(X,1) | color(X,2) | color(X,3) :- vertex(X).

% Check desired property (of being "uncolored")

uncolored :- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C).

% Saturate if desired property holds

color(X,1..3) :- uncolored, vertex(X).

#show. #show yes : uncolored.

There are 6 possible colorings in which notcolored is not made true. Thus "notcolored" is never included.

Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>



"notcolored" is true iff any two neighbors share the color.

If "notcolored" is true then "saturate" all vertices with all colors. This will never be a minimal SM if there is at least one valid coloring



clingo 3uncolorability3.txt

3uncolorability3.txt

% Facts vertex(1..3). edge(1,2). edge(1,3). edge(2,3). % Guess $color(X,1) \mid color(X,2) \mid color(X,3) :- vertex(X).$ % Check desired property (of being "uncolored") uncolored :- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C). % Saturate if desired property holds color(X,1..3) :- uncolored, vertex(X). #show. #show yes : uncolored.

"notcolored" is true iff any two neighbors share the color.

If "notcolored" is true then "saturate" all vertices with all colors. This will never be a minimal SM if there is at least one valid coloring

There are 6 possible colorings in which notcolored is not made true. Thus "notcolored" is never included.

Solving Answer: 1	
SATISFIAB	LE
Models	· 1

:1+

Clingo example available at: https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/

clingo 3uncolorability6.txt

3uncolorability6.txt

% Facts
vertex(1..3). edge(1,2). edge(1,3). edge(2,3).
% Guess
color(X,1) | color(X,2) | color(X,3) :- vertex(X).
% Check desired property (of being "uncolored")
uncolored :- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C).
% Saturate if desired property holds
color(X,1..3) :- uncolored, vertex(X).
% Additionally require desired property
:- not uncolored.

Additionally require the desired property "uncolored" to be true as additional constraint (recall this rule does not make it true, it needs to be derivable in the reduct)

Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>



"notcolored" is true iff any two neighbors share the color.

If "notcolored" is true then "saturate" all vertices with all colors. This will never be a minimal SM if there is at least one valid coloring

Solving... UNSATISFIABLE Models : 0

3-uncolorability: (non-existence of coloring)

clingo 3uncolorability1.txt

3uncolorability1.txt

% Facts

vertex(1..4). edge(1,2..4). edge(2,3..4). edge(3,4).

% Guess

color(X,1) | color(X,2) | color(X,3) :- vertex(X).

% Check desired property (of being "uncolored")

uncolored :- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C).

% Saturate if desired property holds

color(X,1..3) :- uncolored, vertex(X).

% Additionally require desired property

:- not uncolored.

There is no possible coloring and "notcoloring" is always true. Thus there is only one "saturated" SM that also contains "notcolored" (which is also required)

Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

"notcolored" is true iff any two neighbors share the color.

If "notcolored" is true then "saturate" all vertices with all colors. This will never be a minimal SM if there is at least one valid coloring

Answer: 1

vertex(1) vertex(2) vertex(3) vertex(4) edge(3,4) edge(1,2) edge(1,3) edge(1,4) edge(2,3) edge(2,4) color(1,1) color(1,2) color(1,3) color(2,1) color(2,2) color(2,3) color(3,1) color(3,2) color(3,3) color(4,1) color(4,2) color(4,3) notcolored SATISFIABLE

Models : 1



3-colorability: (existence of coloring)

clingo 3colorability6.txt

3colorability6.txt

% Facts

vertex(1..4). edge(1,2..4). edge(2,3..4). edge(3,4).

% Guess

color(X,1) | color(X,2) | color(X,3) :- vertex(X).

% Check undesired property (of being "uncolored")

uncolored :- edge(X,Y), color(X,C), color(Y,C).

% Additionally disallow undesired property

:- uncolored.

Solving... UNSATISFIABLE

Models : 0

"notcolored" is true iff any two neighbors share the color.



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existence of VC = 3

minVC-existence2.txt

clingo minVC-existence2.txt





Guess a solution (expressiveness of disjunctive rule is not required here)

The valid solution needs to be a cover and have 3

Solving...

Answer: 1

vertex(1) vertex(2) vertex(3) vertex(4) edge(3,4) edge(1,2) edge(1,3) edge(1,4) edge(2,3) edge(2,4) cover(1,0) cover(2,1) cover(3,1) cover(4,1) valid SATISFIABLE

Models : 1+

non-existence of VC < 3



Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

minVC = 3 (exists 3 and not exists <3)

minVC-existsandnot1.txt

clingo minVC-existsandnot1.txt





Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

Models : 1+

SATISFIABLE

minVC = K (exists K and not exists <K)

minVC-existsandnot2.txt

clingo minVC-existsandnot2.txt





Clingo example available at: <u>https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo</u> Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: <u>https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/</u>

Models : 1+

SATISFIABLE

cover(3,1) cover(4,1) minvc(3) invalid

 $cover_all(3,0) cover_all(4,1) cover_all(4,0) cover(1,0) cover(2,1)$

minVC = K (exists K and not exists <K)

minVC-existsandnot3.txt

clingo minVC-existsandnot3.txt





Clingo example available at: https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/

minVC = K (exists K and not exists <K)

minVC-existsandnot4.txt

clingo minVC-existsandnot4.txt





Clingo example available at: https://github.com/northeastern-datalab/cs3200-activities/tree/master/clingo Wolfgang Gatterbauer. Principles of scalable data management: https://northeastern-datalab.github.io/cs7240/

Outline: T1-4: Datalog & ASP

- Datalog
- Answer Set Programming
 - Intro to Rules with Negation
 - Horn clauses and Logic Programming
 - Stable model semantics
 - An application and surprising complexity result
 - The power of Disjunctions
 - [A surprising application: automating hardness proofs: moved to T2-U4: Reverse Data Management]