

Ontology and Database Systems: Foundations of Database Systems

Part 5: Datalog

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Motivation

- Relational Calculus and Relational Algebra were considered to be “*the*” database languages for a long time
- Codd: A query language is “complete,” if it yields Relational Calculus
- However, Relational Calculus misses an important feature: *recursion*
- Example: A metro database with relation `links:line`, `station`, `nextstation`
 - What stations are reachable from station “Odeon”?
 - Can we go from Odeon to Tuileries?
 - etc.
- It can be proved: such queries cannot be expressed in Relational Calculus
- This motivated a logic-programming extension to conjunctive queries: *datalog*



Example: Metro Database Instance

link	line	station	nextstation
	4	St. Germain	Odeon
	4	Odeon	St. Michel
	4	St. Michel	Chatelet
	1	Chatelet	Louvres
	1	Louvres	Palais Royal
	1	Palais-Royal	Tuileries
	1	Tuileries	Concorde

Datalog program for the first query:

```

reach(X, X) ← link(L, X, Y)
reach(X, X) ← link(L, Y, X)
reach(X, Y) ← link(L, X, Z), reach(Z, Y)
answer(X) ← reach('Odeon', X)

```

- Note: this is a recursive definition
- Intuitively, if the part right of “←” is true, the rule “fires” and the atom left of “←” is concluded.

The Datalog Language

- Datalog is akin to Logic Programming
- The basic language (considered next) has many extensions
- There exist several approaches to defining the semantics:
 - Model-theoretic approach:** View rules as logical sentences, which state the query result
 - Operational (fixpoint) approach:** Obtain query result by applying an inference procedure, until a fixpoint is reached
 - Proof-theoretic approach:** Obtain proofs of facts in the query result, following a proof calculus (based on resolution)

Datalog vs. Logic Programming

Although datalog is akin to Logic Programming, there are important differences:

- There are **no functions symbols** in datalog
 \leadsto no unbounded data structures, such as lists, are supported
- Datalog has a **purely declarative semantics**
 \leadsto In a datalog program,
 - the *order of clauses* is irrelevant
 - the *order of atoms* in a rule body is irrelevant
- Datalog distinguishes between
 - database relations (“*extensional database*”, *edb*) and
 - derived relations (“*intensional database*”, *idb*)



Syntax of “plain datalog”, or “datalog”

Definition

A *datalog rule* r is an expression of the form

$$R_0(\bar{x}_0) \leftarrow R_1(\bar{x}_1), \dots, R_n(\bar{x}_n) \quad (1)$$

where

- $n \geq 0$,
- R_0, \dots, R_n are relations names,
- $\bar{x}_0, \dots, \bar{x}_n$ are tuples of variables and constants (from **dom**), and
- every variable in \bar{x}_0 occurs in $\bar{x}_1, \dots, \bar{x}_n$ (“safety”)

Remark

- The *head* of r , denoted $H(r)$, is $R_0(\bar{x}_0)$
- The *body* of r , denoted $B(r)$, is $\{ R_1(\bar{x}_1), \dots, R_n(\bar{x}_n) \}$
- The rule symbol “ \leftarrow ” is often also written as “ $:-$ ”

Datalog Programs

Definition

A *datalog program* is a finite set of datalog rules.

Let P be a datalog program.

- An *extensional relation* of P is a relation occurring only in rule bodies of P
- An *intensional relation* of P is a relation occurring in the head of some rule in P
- The *extensional schema* of P , $edb(P)$, consists of all extensional relations of P
- The *intensional schema* of P , $idb(P)$, consists of all intensional relations of P
- The *schema* of P , $sch(P)$, is the union of $edb(P)$ and $idb(P)$.



The Metro Example /1

Datalog program P on the metro database schema (w/o integrity constraints)

$$\mathcal{M} = \{\text{link}(\text{line}, \text{station}, \text{nextstation})\} :$$

```

reach(X, X) ← link(L, X, Y)
reach(X, X) ← link(L, Y, X)
reach(X, Y) ← link(L, X, Z), reach(Z, Y)
answer(X) ← reach('Odeon', X)

```

Here,

$$\begin{aligned}
 edb(P) &= \{\text{link}\} \quad (= \mathcal{M}), \\
 idb(P) &= \{\text{reach}, \text{answer}\}, \\
 sch(P) &= \{\text{link}, \text{reach}, \text{answer}\}
 \end{aligned}$$

Datalog Syntax (cntd)

- The set of constants occurring in program P is denoted as $adom(P)$
- The *active domain* of P with respect to an instance \mathbf{I} is defined as

$$adom(P, \mathbf{I}) := adom(P) \cup adom(\mathbf{I}),$$

that is, as the set of constants occurring in P and \mathbf{I}

Definition (Rule Instantiation)

Let $\alpha: var(r) \cup \mathbf{dom} \rightarrow \mathbf{dom}$ be an assignment for the variables in a rule r of form (1). Then the *instantiation* of r with α , denoted $\alpha(r)$, is the rule

$$R_0(\alpha(\bar{x}_0)) \leftarrow R_1(\alpha(\bar{x}_1)), \dots, R_n(\alpha(\bar{x}_n)),$$

which results from replacing each variable x with $\alpha(x)$.

The Metro Example/2

- For the datalog program P above, we have that $adom(P) = \{ \text{Odeon} \}$
- We consider the database instance \mathbf{I} :

link	line	station	nextstation
	4	St. Germain	Odeon
	4	Odeon	St. Michel
	4	St. Michel	Chatelet
	1	Chatelet	Louvre
	1	Louvre	Palais-Royal
	1	Palais-Royal	Tuileries
	1	Tuileries	Concorde

Then $adom(\mathbf{I}) = \{4, 1, \text{St.Germain}, \text{Odeon}, \text{St.Michel}, \text{Chatelet}, \text{Louvre}, \text{Palais-Royal}, \text{Tuileries}, \text{Concorde}\}$

- Also $adom(P, \mathbf{I}) = adom(\mathbf{I})$

The Metro Example/3

- The rule

$$\text{reach}(\text{St.Germain}, \text{Odeon}) \leftarrow \text{link}(\text{Louvre}, \text{St.Germain}, \text{Concorde}), \\ \text{reach}(\text{Concorde}, \text{Odeon})$$

is an instantiation of the rule

$$\text{reach}(X, Y) \leftarrow \text{link}(L, X, Z), \text{reach}(Z, Y)$$

(take $\alpha(X) = \text{St.Germain}$, $\alpha(L) = \text{Louvre}$, $\alpha(Y) = \text{Odeon}$,
 $\alpha(Z) = \text{Concorde}$)

Datalog: Model-Theoretic Semantics

General Idea:

- We view a program as a set of first-order sentences
- Given an instance \mathbf{I} of $edb(P)$,
the result of P is a database instance of $sch(P)$
that extends \mathbf{I} and satisfies the sentences
(or, is a *model* of the sentences)
- There can be many models
- The *intended answer* is specified by particular models
- These particular models are selected by “external” conditions



Logical Theory Σ_P

- To every datalog rule r of the form $R_0(\bar{x}_0) \leftarrow R_1(\bar{x}_1), \dots, R_n(\bar{x}_n)$, with variables x_1, \dots, x_m , we associate the logical sentence $\sigma(r)$:

$$\forall x_1, \dots, \forall x_m (R_1(\bar{x}_1) \wedge \dots \wedge R_n(\bar{x}_n) \rightarrow R_0(\bar{x}_0))$$

- To a program P , we associate the set of sentences $\Sigma_P = \{\sigma(r) \mid r \in P\}$

Definition

Let P be a datalog program and \mathbf{I} an instance of $edb(P)$. Then,

- A *model* of P is an instance of $sch(P)$ that satisfies Σ_P
- We compare models wrt set inclusion " \subseteq "
(in the Logic Programming perspective)
- The *semantics* of P on input \mathbf{I} , denoted $P(\mathbf{I})$, is the *least model* of P containing \mathbf{I} , if it exists

Example

For program P and instance I of the Metro Example, the least model is:

link	line	station	nextstation	reach	
	4	St. Germain	Odeon	St. Germain	St. Germain
	4	Odeon	St. Michel	Odeon	Odeon
	4	St. Michel	Chatelet		...
	1	Chatelet	Louvres	Concorde	Concorde
	1	Louvres	Palais-Royal	St. Germain	Odeon
	1	Palais-Royal	Tuileries	St. Germain	St. Michel
	1	Tuileries	Concorde	St. Germain	Chatelet
				St. Germain	Louvre
					...
answer		Odeon			
		St. Michel			
		Chatelet			
		Louvre			
		Palais-Royal			
		Tuileries			
		Concorde			

Questions

- ① Is the semantics $P(\mathbf{I})$ well-defined for every input instance \mathbf{I} ?
- ② How can one compute $P(\mathbf{I})$?

Observation: For any \mathbf{I} , there is a model of P containing \mathbf{I}

- Let $\mathbf{B}(P, \mathbf{I})$ be the instance of $sch(P)$ such that

$$\mathbf{B}(P, \mathbf{I})(R) = \begin{cases} \mathbf{I}(R) & \text{for each } R \in edb(P) \\ adom(P, \mathbf{I})^{ary(R)} & \text{for each } R \in idb(P) \end{cases}$$

- Then: $\mathbf{B}(P, \mathbf{I})$ is a model of P containing \mathbf{I}
 $\Rightarrow P(\mathbf{I})$ is a subset of $\mathbf{B}(P, \mathbf{I})$ (if it exists)
- Naive algorithm: explore all subsets of $\mathbf{B}(P, \mathbf{I})$

Elementary Properties of $P(\mathbf{I})$

Let P be a datalog program, \mathbf{I} an instance of $edb(P)$, and $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{I})$ the set of all models of P containing \mathbf{I} .

Theorem

The intersection $\bigcap_{M \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{I})} M$ is a model of P .

Corollary

- 1 $P(\mathbf{I}) = \bigcap_{M \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{I})} M$
- 2 $adom(P(\mathbf{I})) \subseteq adom(P, \mathbf{I})$, that is, no new values appear
- 3 $P(\mathbf{I})(R) = \mathbf{I}(R)$, for each $R \in edb(P)$

Consequences:

- $P(\mathbf{I})$ is well-defined for every \mathbf{I}
- If P and \mathbf{I} are finite, the $P(\mathbf{I})$ is finite

Why Choose the Least Model?

There are two reasons to choose the least model containing **I**:

1 The *Closed World Assumption*:

- If a fact $R(\bar{c})$ is not true in all models of a database **I**, then infer that $R(\bar{c})$ is false
- This amounts to considering **I** as complete
- ... which is customary in database practice

2 The relationship to Logic Programming:

- Datalog should desirably match Logic Programming (seamless integration)
- Logic Programming builds on the minimal model semantics



Relating Datalog to Logic Programming

- A logic program makes no distinction between *edb* and *idb*
- A datalog program P and an instance \mathbf{I} of $edb(P)$ can be mapped to the logic program

$$\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I}) = P \cup \mathbf{I}$$

(where \mathbf{I} is viewed as a set of atoms in the Logic Programming perspective)

- Correspondingly, we define the logical theory

$$\Sigma_{P, \mathbf{I}} = \Sigma_P \cup \mathbf{I}$$

- The semantics of the logic program $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I})$ is defined in terms of *Herbrand interpretations* of the language induced by \mathcal{P} :
 - The domain of discourse is formed by the constants occurring in \mathcal{P}
 - Each constant occurring in \mathcal{P} is interpreted by itself

Herbrand Interpretations of Logic Programs

Given a rule r , we denote by $Const(r)$ the set of all constants in r

Definition

For a (function-free) logic program \mathcal{P} , we define

- the *Herbrand universe* of \mathcal{P} , by

$$\mathbf{HU}(\mathcal{P}) = \bigcup_{r \in \mathcal{P}} Const(r)$$

- the *Herbrand base* of \mathcal{P} , by

$$\mathbf{HB}(\mathcal{P}) = \{R(c_1, \dots, c_n) \mid R \text{ is a relation in } \mathcal{P}, \\ c_1, \dots, c_n \in \mathbf{HU}(\mathcal{P}), \text{ and } \text{ary}(R) = n\}$$

Example

$$\mathcal{P} = \{ \text{arc}(a, b). \\ \text{arc}(b, c). \\ \text{reachable}(a). \\ \text{reachable}(Y) \leftarrow \text{arc}(X, Y), \text{reachable}(X). \}$$

$$\mathbf{HU}(\mathcal{P}) = \{a, b, c\}$$

$$\mathbf{HB}(\mathcal{P}) = \{ \text{arc}(a, a), \text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(a, c), \\ \text{arc}(b, a), \text{arc}(b, b), \text{arc}(b, c), \\ \text{arc}(c, a), \text{arc}(c, b), \text{arc}(c, c), \\ \text{reachable}(a), \text{reachable}(b), \text{reachable}(c) \}$$

Grounding

- A rule r' is a *ground instance* of a rule r with respect to $\mathbf{HU}(\mathcal{P})$, if $r' = \alpha(r)$ for an assignment α such that $\alpha(x) \in \mathbf{HU}(\mathcal{P})$ for each $x \in \text{var}(r)$
- The *grounding* of a rule r with respect to $\mathbf{HU}(\mathcal{P})$, denoted $\text{Ground}_{\mathcal{P}}(r)$, is the set of all ground instances of r wrt $\mathbf{HU}(\mathcal{P})$
- The *grounding* of a logic program \mathcal{P} is

$$\text{Ground}(\mathcal{P}) = \bigcup_{r \in \mathcal{P}} \text{Ground}_{\mathcal{P}}(r)$$

Example

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ground}(\mathcal{P}) = & \{ \text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(b, c), \text{reachable}(a), \\ & \text{reachable}(a) \leftarrow \text{arc}(a, a), \text{reachable}(a), \\ & \text{reachable}(b) \leftarrow \text{arc}(a, b), \text{reachable}(a), \\ & \text{reachable}(c) \leftarrow \text{arc}(a, c), \text{reachable}(a), \\ & \text{reachable}(a) \leftarrow \text{arc}(b, a), \text{reachable}(b), \\ & \text{reachable}(b) \leftarrow \text{arc}(b, b), \text{reachable}(b), \\ & \text{reachable}(c) \leftarrow \text{arc}(b, c), \text{reachable}(b), \\ & \text{reachable}(a) \leftarrow \text{arc}(c, a), \text{reachable}(c), \\ & \text{reachable}(b) \leftarrow \text{arc}(c, b), \text{reachable}(c), \\ & \text{reachable}(c) \leftarrow \text{arc}(c, c), \text{reachable}(c). \} \end{aligned}$$

Herbrand Models

- A *Herbrand-interpretation* I of \mathcal{P} is any subset $I \subseteq \mathbf{HB}(\mathcal{P})$
- A *Herbrand-model* of \mathcal{P} is a Herbrand-interpretation that satisfies all sentences in $\Sigma_{\mathcal{P}, \mathbf{I}}$
- Equivalently, $M \subseteq \mathbf{HB}(\mathcal{P})$ is a Herbrand model if for all $r \in \mathit{Ground}(\mathcal{P})$ such that $B(r) \subseteq M$ we have that $H(r) \subseteq M$

Example

The Herbrand models of program \mathcal{P} above are exactly the following:

- $M_1 = \{ \text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(b, c), \text{reachable}(a), \text{reachable}(b), \text{reachable}(c) \}$
- $M_2 = \mathbf{HB}(\mathcal{P})$
- every interpretation M such that $M_1 \subseteq M \subseteq M_2$

and no others.

Logic Programming Semantics

Proposition

$\mathbf{HB}(\mathcal{P})$ is always a model of \mathcal{P}

Theorem

For every logic program there exists a least Herbrand model (wrt “ \subseteq ”).

For a program \mathcal{P} , this model is denoted $MM(\mathcal{P})$ (for “minimal model”).
The model $MM(\mathcal{P})$ is the semantics of \mathcal{P} .

Theorem (Datalog \leftrightarrow Logic Programming)

Let P be a datalog program and \mathbf{I} be an instance of $edb(P)$. Then,

$$P(\mathbf{I}) = MM(\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I}))$$

Consequences

Results and techniques for Logic Programming can be exploited for datalog.

For example,

- proof procedures for Logic Programming (e.g., SLD resolution) can be applied to datalog (with some caveats, regarding for instance termination)
- datalog can be reduced by “grounding” to propositional logic programs

Fixpoint Semantics

Another view:

“If all facts in \mathbf{I} hold, which other facts must hold after firing the rules in P ?”

Approach:

- Define an *immediate consequence operator* $\mathbf{T}_P(\mathbf{K})$ on db instances \mathbf{K}
- Start with $\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{I}$
- Apply \mathbf{T}_P to obtain a new instance: $\mathbf{K}_{\text{new}} := \mathbf{T}_P(\mathbf{K}) = \mathbf{I} \cup \text{new facts}$
- Iterate until nothing new can be produced
- The result yields the semantics



Immediate Consequence Operator

Let P be a datalog program and \mathbf{K} be a database instance of $\text{sch}(P)$.
A fact $R(\bar{t})$ is an *immediate* consequence for \mathbf{K} and P , if either

- $R \in \text{edb}(P)$ and $R(\bar{t}) \in \mathbf{K}$, or
- there exists a ground instance r of a rule in P such that $H(r) = R(\bar{t})$ and $B(r) \subseteq \mathbf{K}$.

Definition (Immediate Consequence Operator)

The *immediate consequence operator* of a datalog program P is the mapping

$$\mathbf{T}_P: \text{inst}(\text{sch}(P)) \rightarrow \text{inst}(\text{sch}(P))$$

where

$$\mathbf{T}_P(\mathbf{K}) = \{A \mid A \text{ is an immediate consequence for } \mathbf{K} \text{ and } P\}.$$

Example

Consider

$$P = \{ \text{reachable}(a), \\ \text{reachable}(Y) \leftarrow \text{arc}(X, Y), \text{reachable}(X) \}$$

where $edb(P) = \{\text{arc}\}$ and $idb(P) = \{\text{reachable}\}$.

Let

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{K}_1 &= \{ \text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(b, c) \} \\ \mathbf{K}_2 &= \{ \text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(b, c), \text{reachable}(a) \} \\ \mathbf{K}_3 &= \{ \text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(b, c), \text{reachable}(a), \text{reachable}(b) \} \\ \mathbf{K}_4 &= \{ \text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(b, c), \text{reachable}(a), \text{reachable}(b), \text{reachable}(c) \} \end{aligned}$$

Example (cntd)

Then,

$$\mathbf{T}_P(\mathbf{K}_1) = \{\text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(b, c), \text{reachable}(a)\} = \mathbf{K}_2$$

$$\mathbf{T}_P(\mathbf{K}_2) = \{\text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(b, c), \text{reachable}(a), \text{reachable}(b)\} = \mathbf{K}_3$$

$$\mathbf{T}_P(\mathbf{K}_3) = \{\text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(b, c), \text{reachable}(a), \text{reachable}(b), \text{reachable}(c)\} = \mathbf{K}_4$$

$$\mathbf{T}_P(\mathbf{K}_4) = \{\text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(b, c), \text{reachable}(a), \text{reachable}(b), \text{reachable}(c)\} = \mathbf{K}_4$$

Thus, \mathbf{K}_4 is a *fixpoint* of \mathbf{T}_P .

Definition

\mathbf{K} is a *fixpoint* of operator \mathbf{T}_P if $\mathbf{T}_P(\mathbf{K}) = \mathbf{K}$

Properties

Proposition

Let P be a datalog program.

- 1 The operator \mathbf{T}_P is monotonic, that is,

$$\mathbf{K} \subseteq \mathbf{K}' \text{ implies } \mathbf{T}_P(\mathbf{K}) \subseteq \mathbf{T}_P(\mathbf{K}');$$

- 2 For all $\mathbf{K} \in \text{inst}(\text{sch}(P))$, we have:

$$\mathbf{K} \text{ is a model of } \Sigma_P \text{ if and only if } \mathbf{T}_P(\mathbf{K}) \subseteq \mathbf{K};$$

- 3 If $\mathbf{T}_P(\mathbf{K}) = \mathbf{K}$ (i.e., \mathbf{K} is a fixpoint), then \mathbf{K} is a model of Σ_P .

Note: The converse of 3. does not hold in general.

Datalog Semantics via Least Fixpoint

The semantics of P on a database instance \mathbf{I} of $edb(P)$ is a special fixpoint:

Theorem

Let P be a datalog program and \mathbf{I} be a database instance. Then

- ④ \mathbf{T}_P has a least (wrt " \subseteq ") fixpoint containing \mathbf{I} , denoted $lfp(P, \mathbf{I})$.
- ② Moreover, $lfp(P, \mathbf{I}) = MM(\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I})) = P(\mathbf{I})$.

Constructive definition of $P(\mathbf{I})$ by *fixpoint iteration*

Proof (of Claim 2, first equality, sketch).

Let $M_1 = lfp(P, \mathbf{I})$ and $M_2 = MM(\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I}))$.

Since M_1 is a fixpoint of \mathbf{T}_P , it is a model of Σ_P , and since it contains \mathbf{I} it is a model of $\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I})$. Hence, $M_2 \subseteq M_1$. Since M_2 is a model of $\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I})$, it holds that $\mathbf{T}_P(M_2) \subseteq M_2$. Note that for every model M of $\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I})$ we have, due to the monotonicity of \mathbf{T}_P , that $\mathbf{T}_P(M)$ is model. Hence, $\mathbf{T}_P(M_2) = M_2$, since M_2 is a minimal model. This implies that M_2 is a fixpoint, hence $M_1 \subseteq M_2$. □

Fixpoint Iteration

For a datalog program P and an instance \mathbf{I} , we define the sequence $(\mathbf{I}_i)_{i \geq 0}$ by

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{I}_0 &= \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I}_i &= \mathbf{T}_P(\mathbf{I}_{i-1}) \quad \text{for } i > 0.\end{aligned}$$

We observe:

- By monotonicity of \mathbf{T}_P , we have $\mathbf{I}_0 \subseteq \mathbf{I}_1 \subseteq \mathbf{I}_2 \subseteq \dots \subseteq \mathbf{I}_i \subseteq \mathbf{I}_{i+1} \subseteq \dots$
- For every $i \geq 0$, we have $\mathbf{I}_i \subseteq \mathbf{B}(P, \mathbf{I})$
- Hence, for some integer $n \leq |\mathbf{B}(P, \mathbf{I})|$, we have $\mathbf{I}_{n+1} = \mathbf{I}_n$ ($=: \mathbf{T}_P^\omega(\mathbf{I})$)
- It holds that $\mathbf{T}_P^\omega(\mathbf{I}) = \text{lf}_p(P, \mathbf{I}) = P(\mathbf{I})$.

This can be readily implemented by an algorithm.

Example

$$P = \{ \text{reachable}(a), \\ \text{reachable}(Y) \leftarrow \text{arc}(X, Y), \text{reachable}(X) \}$$

$$I = \{ \text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(b, c) \}$$

Then,

$$I_0 = \{ \text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(b, c) \}$$

$$I_1 = \mathbf{T}_P^1(I) = \{ \text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(b, c), \text{reachable}(a) \}$$

$$I_2 = \mathbf{T}_P^2(I) = \{ \text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(b, c), \text{reachable}(a), \text{reachable}(b) \}$$

$$I_3 = \mathbf{T}_P^3(I) = \{ \text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(b, c), \text{reachable}(a), \text{reachable}(b), \text{reachable}(c) \}$$

$$I_4 = \mathbf{T}_P^4(I) = \{ \text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(b, c), \text{reachable}(a), \text{reachable}(b), \text{reachable}(c) \}$$

$$= \mathbf{T}_P^3(I)$$

Thus, $\mathbf{T}_P^\omega(I) = \text{lf}_p(P, I) = I_4$.

Excursion: Fixpoint Theory

- Evaluating a datalog program P on \mathbf{I} amounts to evaluating the logic program $\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I})$
- For logic programs, fixpoint semantics is defined by appeal to fixpoint theory
- This provides another possibility to define semantics of datalog programs

Excursion: Fixpoint Theory/2

- A *complete lattice* is a partially ordered set (U, \leq) such that each subset $V \subseteq U$ has a least upper bound $\text{sup}(V)$ and a greatest lower bound $\text{inf}(V)$, respectively.
- An operator $T: U \rightarrow U$ is
 - *monotone*, if for every $x, y \in U$ it holds that $x \leq y$ implies $T(x) \leq T(y)$
 - *continuous*, if $T(\text{sup}(V)) = \text{sup}(\{T(x) \mid x \in V\})$ for every $V \subseteq U$.

Notice: Continuous operators are monotone

Monotone and continuous operators have nice fixpoint properties

Fixpoint Theorems of Knaster-Tarski and Kleene

Theorem

Every monotone operator T on a complete lattice (U, \leq) has a least fixpoint $lfp(T)$, and $lfp(T) = \inf(\{x \in U \mid T(x) \leq x\})$.

A stronger theorem holds for continuous operators.

Theorem

Every continuous operator T on a complete lattice (U, \leq) has a least fixpoint, and $lfp(T) = \sup(\{T^i \mid i \geq 0\})$, where $T^0 = \inf(U)$ and $T^{i+1} = T(T^i)$, for all $i \geq 0$.

Notation: $T^\infty = \sup(\{T^i \mid i \geq 0\})$.

- Finite convergence: $T^k = T^{k-1}$ for some $k \Rightarrow T^\infty = T^k$
- A weaker form of Kleene's theorem holds for all monotone operators (transfinite sequence T^i).

Applying Fixpoint Theory

- For a logic program \mathcal{P} , the power set lattice $(P(\mathbf{HB}(\mathcal{P})), \subseteq)$ over the Herbrand base $\mathbf{HB}(\mathcal{P})$ is a complete lattice.
- We can associate with \mathcal{P} an immediate consequence operator $T_{\mathcal{P}}$ on $\mathbf{HB}(\mathcal{P})$ such that $T_{\mathcal{P}}(I) = \{H(r) \mid r \in \mathit{Ground}(\mathcal{P}), B(r) \subseteq I\}$
- $T_{\mathcal{P}}$ is monotonic (in fact, continuous)
- Thus, $T_{\mathcal{P}}$ has the least fixpoint $\mathit{lfp}(T_{\mathcal{P}})$. It coincides with $T_{\mathcal{P}}^{\infty}$ and $\mathit{MM}(\mathcal{P})$

Theorem

Theorem. Given a datalog program P and a database instance \mathbf{I} ,

$$P(\mathbf{I}) = \mathit{lfp}(T_{\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I})}) = T_{\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I})}^{\infty}$$

Remark: Application of fixpoint theory is primarily of interest for infinite sets

Proof-Theoretic Approach

Basic idea: The answer of a datalog program P on \mathbf{I} is given by the set of facts which can be *proved* from P and \mathbf{I} .

Definition (Proof tree)

A *proof tree* for a fact A from \mathbf{I} and P is a labeled finite tree T such that

- each vertex of T is labeled by a fact
- the root of T is labeled by A
- each leaf of T is labeled by a fact in \mathbf{I}
- if a non-leaf of T is labeled with A_1 and its children are labeled with A_2, \dots, A_n , then there exists a ground instance r of a rule in P such that $H(r) = A_1$ and $B(r) = \{A_2, \dots, A_n\}$

Example (Same Generation)

Let

$$P = \{r_1: \text{sgc}(X, X) \leftarrow \text{person}(X) \\ r_2: \text{sgc}(X, Y) \leftarrow \text{par}(X, X1), \text{sgc}(X1, Y1), \text{par}(Y, Y1)\}$$

where $\text{edb}(P) = \{\text{person}, \text{par}\}$ and $\text{idb}(P) = \{\text{sgc}\}$

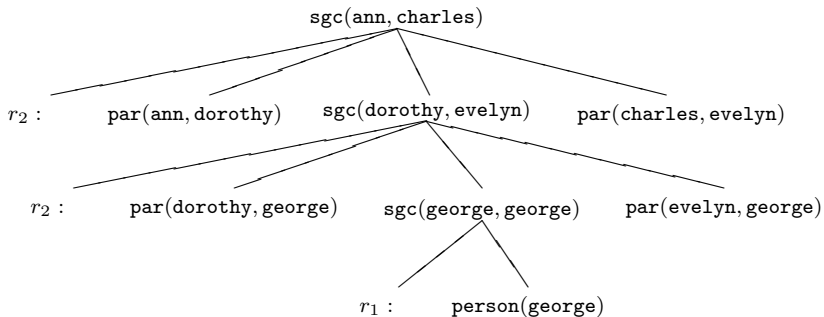
Consider \mathbf{I} as follows:

$$\mathbf{I}(\text{person}) = \{\langle \text{ann} \rangle, \langle \text{bertrand} \rangle, \langle \text{charles} \rangle, \langle \text{dorothy} \rangle, \\ \langle \text{evelyn} \rangle, \langle \text{fred} \rangle, \langle \text{george} \rangle, \langle \text{hilary} \rangle\}$$

$$\mathbf{I}(\text{par}) = \{\langle \text{dorothy}, \text{george} \rangle, \langle \text{evelyn}, \text{george} \rangle, \langle \text{bertrand}, \text{dorothy} \rangle, \\ \langle \text{ann}, \text{dorothy} \rangle, \langle \text{hilary}, \text{ann} \rangle, \langle \text{charles}, \text{evelyn} \rangle\}.$$

Example (Same Generation)/2

Proof tree for $A = \text{sgc}(\text{ann}, \text{charles})$ from \mathbf{I} and P :



Proof Tree Construction

There are different ways to construct a proof tree for A from P and \mathbf{I} :

- *Bottom Up construction*: From leaves to root

Intimately related to fixpoint approach

- Define $S \vdash_P B$ to prove fact B from facts S if $B \in S$ or by a rule in P
- Give $S = \mathbf{I}$ for granted
- *Top Down construction*: From root to leaves

In Logic Programming view, consider program $\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I})$.

- This amounts to a set of logical sentences $H_{\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I})}$ of the form

$$\forall x_1 \cdots \forall x_m (R_1(\bar{x}_1) \vee \neg R_2(\bar{x}_2) \vee \neg R_3(\bar{x}_3) \vee \cdots \vee \neg R_n(\bar{x}_n))$$

- Prove that $A = R(\bar{t})$ is a logical consequence via resolution refutation, that is, that $H_{\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I})} \cup \{\neg A\}$ is unsatisfiable.

Datalog and SLD Resolution

- Logic Programming uses SLD resolution
- SLD: Selection Rule Driven Linear Resolution for Definite Clauses
- For datalog programs P on \mathbf{I} , resp. $\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I})$, things are simpler than for general logic programs (no function symbols, unification is easy)

Let $SLD(\mathcal{P})$ be the set of ground atoms provable with SLD Resolution from \mathcal{P} .

Theorem

For any datalog program P and database instance \mathbf{I} ,

$$SLD(\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I})) = P(\mathbf{I}) = \mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I})}^{\infty} = \text{Ifp}(\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I})}) = MM(\mathcal{P}(P, \mathbf{I}))$$

SLD Resolution – Termination

- Notice: Selection rule for next rule/atom to be considered for resolution might affect termination
- Prolog's strategy (leftmost atom/first rule) is problematic

Example:

```
child_of(karl, franz).
```

```
child_of(franz, frieda).
```

```
child_of(frieda, pia).
```

```
descendent_of(X, Y) ← child_of(X, Y).
```

```
descendent_of(X, Y) ← child_of(X, Z), descendent_of(Z, Y).
```

```
← descendent_of(karl, X).
```



SLD Resolution – Termination/2

Example (cntd.):

`child_of(karl, franz).`

`child_of(franz, frieda).`

`child_of(frieda, pia).`

`descendent_of(X, Y) ← child_of(X, Y).`

`descendent_of(X, Y) ← descendent_of(X, Z), child_of(Z, Y).`

`← descendent_of(karl, X).`

SLD Resolution – Termination /3

Example (cntd.):

```
child_of(karl, franz).
```

```
child_of(franz, frieda).
```

```
child_of(frieda, pia).
```

```
descendent_of(X, Y) ← child_of(X, Y).
```

```
descendent_of(X, Y) ← descendent_of(X, Z),
```

```
                        descendent_of(Z, Y).
```

```
← descendent_of(karl, X).
```

Exercise: Metro Reachability

Over the Metro database, consider the predicates `reachableFromOne/3` and `reachableFromBoth/3`, with the following meaning for stations a , b , and c :

- 1 `reachableFromOne(a, b, c)` holds if c is reachable from one of a or b ;
- 2 `reachableFromBoth(a, b, c)` holds if c is reachable from both of a and b .

Write datalog rules that define these predicates.

