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

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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:

$\mathtt{reach}(\mathtt{X}, \mathtt{X})$	\leftarrow	link(L, X, Y)
$\mathtt{reach}(\mathtt{X}, \mathtt{X})$	\leftarrow	link(L, Y, X)
$\mathtt{reach}(\mathtt{X}, \mathtt{Y})$	\leftarrow	link(L, X, Z), reach(Z, Y)
answer(X)	\leftarrow	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.

Exercise

Write the following queries in datalog:

- Which stations can be reached from Chatelet, using exactly one line? (This excludes staying at Chatelet).
- Which stations can be reached from one another using exactly one line?
- Which stations can be reached from one another? (Check whether the query in the example is correct!)
- Which stations are terminal stops?

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
 → no unbounded data structures, such as lists, are supported
- Datalog has a purely declarative semantics
 → 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

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

where

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

Remark

- The *head* of r, denoted H(r), is $R_0(\bar{x}_0)$
- The *body* of r, denoted B(r), is $\{ R_1(\bar{x}_1), \ldots, R_n(\bar{x}_n) \}$
- The rule symbol "←" 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)

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\mathcal{M} = \{\texttt{link}(\texttt{line}, \texttt{station}, \texttt{nextstation})\}:
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$\mathtt{reach}(\mathtt{X}, \mathtt{X})$	\leftarrow	link(L, X, Y)
$\mathtt{reach}(\mathtt{X}, \mathtt{X})$	\leftarrow	link(L, Y, X)
$\mathtt{reach}(\mathtt{X}, \mathtt{Y})$	\leftarrow	${\tt link}(L,{\tt X},{\tt Z}),{\tt reach}({\tt Z},{\tt Y})$
$\texttt{answer}(\mathtt{X})$	\leftarrow	<pre>reach('Odeon',X)</pre>

Here,

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 ${\bf I}$

Definition (Rule Instantiation)

Let α : $var(r) \cup dom \rightarrow dom$ 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

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

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

The Metro Example/2

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

 $\label{eq:constraint} \begin{array}{l} \mbox{Then } \textit{adom}(\mathbf{I}) = \{ \mbox{4, 1, St.Germain, Odeon, St.Michel, Chatelet,} \\ \mbox{Louvres, Palais-Royal, Tuileries, Concorde} \} \end{array}$

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

The Metro Example/3

• The rule

is an instantiation of the rule

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

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

Datalog: Model-Theoretic Semantics

General Idea:

- We view a program as a set of first-order sentences
- Given an instance I of edb(P), the result of P is a database instance of sch(P) that extends 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 $R_0(\bar{x}_0) \leftarrow R_1(\bar{x}_1), \ldots, R_n(\bar{x}_n)$, with variables x_1, \ldots, x_m , we associate the logical sentence $\sigma(r)$:

$$\forall x_1, \dots \forall x_m \left(R_1(\bar{x}_1) \land \dots \land R_n(\bar{x}_n) \to R_0(\bar{x}_0) \right)$$

• 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 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 "⊆" (in the Logic Programming perspective)
- The *semantics* of *P* on input **I**, denoted *P*(**I**), is the *least model* of *P* containing **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
	1					

answer	
	Odeon
	St. Michel
	Chatelet
	Louvre
	Palais-Royal
	Tuileries
	Concorde

Questions

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

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

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

$$\mathbf{B}(P,\mathbf{I})(R) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \mathbf{I}(R) & \text{ for each } R \in \textit{edb}(P) \\ \textit{adom}(P,\mathbf{I})^{\textit{ary}(R)} & \text{ for each } R \in \textit{idb}(P) \end{array} \right.$$

Then: B(P, I) is a model of P containing I
⇒ P(I) is a subset of B(P, I) (if it exists)
Naive algorithm: explore all subsets of B(P, I)

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

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

Theorem

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

Corollary

$$P(\mathbf{I}) = \bigcap_{M \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{I})} M$$

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

Consequences:

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

Why Choose the Least Model?

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

- 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
- Interview of 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 ${\bf I}$ of edb(P) can be mapped to the logic program

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

(where 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

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

• the Herbrand base of \mathcal{P} , by

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

Example

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{P} &= \{ & \texttt{arc}(\texttt{a},\texttt{b}). \\ & \texttt{arc}(\texttt{b},\texttt{c}). \\ & \texttt{reachable}(\texttt{a}). \\ & \texttt{reachable}(\texttt{Y}) \leftarrow \texttt{arc}(\texttt{X},\texttt{Y}), \texttt{reachable}(\texttt{X}). \; \} \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} HU(\mathcal{P}) &= & \{a,b,c\} \\ HB(\mathcal{P}) &= & \{arc(a,a), \ arc(a,b), \ arc(a,c), \\ & arc(b,a), \ arc(b,b), \ arc(b,c), \\ & arc(c,a), \ arc(c,b), \ arc(c,c), \\ & reachable(a), \ reachable(b), \ reachable(c)\} \end{split}$$

Grounding

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

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

Example

$$\begin{split} \textit{Ground}(\mathcal{P}) &= \{ \texttt{arc}(a,b). \ \texttt{arc}(b,c). \ \texttt{reachable}(a). \\ & \texttt{reachable}(a) \leftarrow \texttt{arc}(a,a), \texttt{reachable}(a). \\ & \texttt{reachable}(b) \leftarrow \texttt{arc}(a,b), \texttt{reachable}(a). \\ & \texttt{reachable}(c) \leftarrow \texttt{arc}(a,c), \texttt{reachable}(a). \\ & \texttt{reachable}(a) \leftarrow \texttt{arc}(b,a), \texttt{reachable}(b). \\ & \texttt{reachable}(b) \leftarrow \texttt{arc}(b,b), \texttt{reachable}(b). \\ & \texttt{reachable}(c) \leftarrow \texttt{arc}(b,c), \texttt{reachable}(b). \\ & \texttt{reachable}(c) \leftarrow \texttt{arc}(c,a), \texttt{reachable}(b). \\ & \texttt{reachable}(a) \leftarrow \texttt{arc}(c,b), \texttt{reachable}(c). \\ & \texttt{reachable}(b) \leftarrow \texttt{arc}(c,b), \texttt{reachable}(c). \\ & \texttt{reachable}(b) \leftarrow \texttt{arc}(c,c), \texttt{reachable}(c). \end{cases} \end{split}$$

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 $\Sigma_{P,\mathbf{I}}$
- Equivalently, $M \subseteq \mathbf{HB}(\mathcal{P})$ is a Herbrand model if for all $r \in \operatorname{Ground}(\mathcal{P})$ 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:

•
$$M_1 = \{ \operatorname{arc}(a, b), \operatorname{arc}(b, c),$$

reachable(a), reachable(b), 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 ↔ Logic Programming))

Let P be a datalog program and 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 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: $\mathbf{K}_{\mathsf{new}} := \mathbf{T}_P(\mathbf{K}) = \mathbf{I} \cup \mathsf{new}$ facts
- Iterate until nothing new can be produced
- The result yields the semantics

Immediate Consequence Operator

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

- $R \in edb(P)$ 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 $B(r)\subseteq {\bf K}.$

Definition (Immediate Consequence Operator)

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

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

where

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

Example

Consider

$$P = \{ \begin{array}{ll} \texttt{reachable}(\texttt{a}), \\ \texttt{reachable}(\texttt{Y}) \leftarrow \texttt{arc}(\texttt{X},\texttt{Y}), \texttt{reachable}(\texttt{X}) \end{array} \}$$

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

Let

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

Example (cntd)

Then,

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{T}_{P}(\mathbf{K}_{1}) &= \{ \texttt{arc}(\texttt{a},\texttt{b}), \ \texttt{arc}(\texttt{b},\texttt{c}), \ \texttt{reachable}(\texttt{a}) \} = \mathbf{K}_{2} \\ \mathbf{T}_{P}(\mathbf{K}_{2}) &= \{ \texttt{arc}(\texttt{a},\texttt{b}), \ \texttt{arc}(\texttt{b},\texttt{c}), \ \texttt{reachable}(\texttt{a}), \ \texttt{reachable}(\texttt{b}) \} = \mathbf{K}_{3} \\ \mathbf{T}_{P}(\mathbf{K}_{3}) &= \{ \texttt{arc}(\texttt{a},\texttt{b}), \ \texttt{arc}(\texttt{b},\texttt{c}), \ \texttt{reachable}(\texttt{a}), \ \texttt{reachable}(\texttt{b}), \ \texttt{reachable}(\texttt{c}) \} = \mathbf{K}_{4} \\ \mathbf{T}_{P}(\mathbf{K}_{4}) &= \{ \texttt{arc}(\texttt{a},\texttt{b}), \ \texttt{arc}(\texttt{b},\texttt{c}), \ \texttt{reachable}(\texttt{a}), \ \texttt{reachable}(\texttt{b}), \ \texttt{reachable}(\texttt{c}) \} = \mathbf{K}_{4} \end{split}$$

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.

() The operator \mathbf{T}_P is monotonic, that is,

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

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

K is a model of Σ_P 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 I of edb(P) is a special fixpoint:

Theorem

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

- **()** \mathbf{T}_P has a least (wrt " \subseteq ") fixpoint containing \mathbf{I} , denoted $lfp(P, \mathbf{I})$.
- Solution 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 I, we define the sequence $(I_i)_{i\geq 0}$ by

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

We observe:

- By monotoncity of \mathbf{T}_P , we have $\mathbf{I}_0 \subseteq \mathbf{I}_1 \subseteq \mathbf{I}_2 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq \mathbf{I}_i \subseteq \mathbf{I}_{i+1} \subseteq \cdots$
- For every $i \ge 0$, 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 $\mathbf{T}_P^{\omega}(\mathbf{I}) = lfp(P, \mathbf{I}) = P(\mathbf{I}).$

This can be readily implemented by an algorithm.

Example

$$\begin{split} P &= \big\{ \texttt{reachable(a),} \\ &\texttt{reachable(Y)} \leftarrow \texttt{arc(X,Y), reachable(X)} \big\} \\ &\mathbf{I} = \{\texttt{arc(a,b), arc(b,c)} \} \end{split}$$

Then,

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{I}_0 &= \{ \texttt{arc}(\mathtt{a}, \mathtt{b}), \ \texttt{arc}(\mathtt{b}, \mathtt{c}) \} \\ \mathbf{I}_1 &= \mathbf{T}_P^1(\mathbf{I}) = \{ \texttt{arc}(\mathtt{a}, \mathtt{b}), \ \texttt{arc}(\mathtt{b}, \mathtt{c}), \texttt{reachable}(\mathtt{a}) \} \\ \mathbf{I}_2 &= \mathbf{T}_P^2(\mathbf{I}) = \{ \texttt{arc}(\mathtt{a}, \mathtt{b}), \ \texttt{arc}(\mathtt{b}, \mathtt{c}), \texttt{reachable}(\mathtt{a}), \ \texttt{reachable}(\mathtt{b}) \} \\ \mathbf{I}_3 &= \mathbf{T}_P^3(\mathbf{I}) = \{ \texttt{arc}(\mathtt{a}, \mathtt{b}), \ \texttt{arc}(\mathtt{b}, \mathtt{c}), \texttt{reachable}(\mathtt{a}), \ \texttt{reachable}(\mathtt{b}), \ \texttt{reachable}(\mathtt{c}) \} \\ \mathbf{I}_4 &= \mathbf{T}_P^4(\mathbf{I}) = \{ \texttt{arc}(\mathtt{a}, \mathtt{b}), \ \texttt{arc}(\mathtt{b}, \mathtt{c}), \texttt{reachable}(\mathtt{a}), \ \texttt{reachable}(\mathtt{b}), \ \texttt{reachable}(\mathtt{c}) \} \\ &= \mathbf{T}_P^3(\mathbf{I}) \end{split}$$

Thus, $\mathbf{T}_{P}^{\omega}(\mathbf{I}) = \mathit{lfp}(P, \mathbf{I}) = \mathbf{I}_{4}.$

Excursion: Fixpoint Theory

- Evaluating a datalog program P on Iamounts to evaluating the logic program $\mathcal{P}(P, I)$
- 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 sup(V) and a greatest lower bound inf(V), respectively.
- An operator $T \colon U \to U$ is
 - monotone, if for every $x,\,y\in U$ it holds that $x\leq y$ implies $T(x)\leq T(y)$
 - continuous, if $T(sup(V)) = sup(\{T(x) \mid x \in V\})$ 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: $T^{\infty} = sup(\{T^i \mid i \ge 0\}).$

- 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 $lfp(T_{\mathcal{P}})$. It coincides with $T_{\mathcal{P}}^{\infty}$ and $MM(\mathcal{P})$

Theorem

Theorem. Given a datalog program P and a database instance I,

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

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 ${\bf I}$ is given by the set of facts which can be *proved* from P and ${\bf I}.$

Definition (Proof tree)

A proof tree for a fact A from ${\bf I}$ 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 \boldsymbol{A}
- each leaf of T is labeled by a fact in I
- if a non-leaf of T is labeled with A_1 and its children are labeled with A_2, \ldots, A_n , then there exists a ground instance r of a rule in P such that $H(r) = A_1$ and $B(r) = \{A_2, \ldots, A_n\}$

Example (Same Generation)

Let

$$\begin{split} P = \{r_1: \texttt{sgc}(\mathtt{X}, \mathtt{X}) &\leftarrow \texttt{person}(\mathtt{X}) \\ r_2: \texttt{sgc}(\mathtt{X}, \mathtt{Y}) &\leftarrow \texttt{par}(\mathtt{X}, \mathtt{X1}), \texttt{sgc}(\mathtt{X1}, \mathtt{Y1}), \texttt{par}(\mathtt{Y}, \mathtt{Y1}) \} \end{split}$$

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

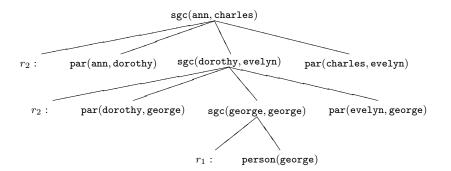
Consider ${\bf I}$ as follows:

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

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{I}(\texttt{par}) &= \{ \langle \texttt{dorothy},\texttt{george} \rangle, \; \langle \texttt{evelyn},\texttt{george} \rangle, \; \langle \texttt{bertrand},\texttt{dorothy} \rangle, \\ \langle \texttt{ann},\texttt{dorothy} \rangle, \; \langle \texttt{hilary},\texttt{ann} \rangle, \; \langle \texttt{charles},\texttt{evelyn} \rangle \}. \end{split}$$

Example (Same Generation)/2

Proof tree for A = sgc(ann, charles) from I and P:



Proof Tree Construction

There are different ways to construct a proof tree for A from P and 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

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

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

Theorem

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

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

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:

```
\begin{array}{l} \texttt{child_of(karl, franz).} \\ \texttt{child_of(franz, frieda).} \\ \texttt{child_of(frieda, pia).} \\ \texttt{descendent_of(X, Y)} \leftarrow \texttt{child_of(X, Y).} \\ \texttt{descendent_of(X, Y)} \leftarrow \texttt{child_of(X, Z), descendent_of(Z, Y).} \\ \leftarrow \texttt{descendent_of(karl, X).} \end{array}
```

SLD Resolution – Termination/2

Example (cntd.):

```
\begin{split} & \texttt{child_of(karl,franz)}. \\ & \texttt{child_of(franz,frieda)}. \\ & \texttt{child_of(frieda,pia)}. \\ & \texttt{descendent_of}(X,Y) \leftarrow \texttt{child_of}(X,Y). \\ & \texttt{descendent_of}(X,Y) \leftarrow \texttt{descendent_of}(X,Z),\texttt{child_of}(Z,Y). \\ & \leftarrow \texttt{descendent_of}(\texttt{karl},X). \end{split}
```

SLD Resolution – Termination /3

Example (cntd.):

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:

() 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.