A Very Large Rule/Fact Database based on rule-goal graphs

3P-2

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1 Introduction

We have been developing a deductive database with a very large database of rule-clauses [1]. In order to retrieve rule-clauses fast, we use a variant of relational algebra, named Relational Algebra extended with Unification (RAU). Among operators of RAU, I-operator issues a global query [2] to a database of fact-clauses. $\begin{subarray}{l} \begin{subarray}{l} \b$

This paper presents an algorithm of I-operator by a rule-goal graph and that of $\stackrel{\mathsf{u}}{\bowtie}$ -operator by hash.

2 Large Rule/Fact Database

A deductive database in this paper has two very large databases; a database of fact-clauses (factDB) in a relational database and that of rule-clauses (ruleDB). A rule-clause (rule) is a view definition of a relation. A fact-clause (fact) is a tuple of a relation. As in [3], functor symbols are allowed. Compound terms are regarded as complex objects.

Two cases enlarge a ruleDB; either there are many rules each of which has a different head-predicate, or many different rules have a common head-predicate.

In the first case, an indexed file on a head-predicate can retrieve necessary rules fast. Assume that this ruleDB, *Idb1*, is resident in a main memory. Idb1 with a factDB is a conventional deductive database.

It is enough for us to concentrate on the fast retrieval of rules in the second case, where many rules have a common head-predicate. Let's call this large ruleDB Idb2. Idb2 is stored in a disk or a large main memory. In Idb2, necessary rules are retrieved only through unification.

Ex.1.

Idb2 has two rules 'r(f(a,X)):-p1(X).', 'r(f(X,b)):-p2(X).' and also two rules 't(h(X,a)):-q1(g(X),c).', 't(f(X,d)):-q2(X).'. Rules with a common head-predicate are view definitions of a common relation. They operate different relations differently in the body according to complex objects in their arguments. Then, a query is given, "How to do 'r(X) and t(X)'?". The answer is a set of rules which defines a view $m(X) = r(X) \wedge t(X)$ '; i.e. 'm(f(a,d)):-p1(d),q2(a).'.

If we know 10^3 rules of 'r(X)' and 't(X)' in Ex.1, a

naive method tries to unify 10⁶ pairs. Hence we need a mechanism to retrieve necessary pairs of rules fast from Idb2.

Our approach is as follows [1]; At first, we compile in advance a body-part of each rule in Idb1 and Idb2 into a program of Idb1. So neither Idb1 nor Idb2 call execution of rules in Idb2.

Secondly, we make a set of rules with a common head-predicate. This set is called a *meta-relation*. It is expressed literally by a set of tuples $\{ tuple1, tuple2, ... \}$. In Ex.1, the set R with a scheme [A, B] is made as a set of rules 'r(A):-B.'.

i.e. $R[A, B] = \{ (f(a,X),p1(X)), (f(X,b),p2(X)) \}$. By the definition of R, a tuple (f(a,X), p1(X)) in R is interpreted as a rule (r(f(a,X)):-p1(X)).

In the same way, the set T with a scheme [A, C] is a set of rules 't(A):-C.'. i.e. $T[A, C] = \{ (h(X,a), q1(g(X),c)), (f(X,d), q2(X)) \}$. For Idb2, each metarelation will have thousands of tuples.

Thirdly, three set-operators $\stackrel{\mbox{\tiny M}}{\bowtie}$, σ , and I-operator are defined on meta-relations. The followings illustrate them on meta-relations R and T defined above.

1. $R[A, B] \stackrel{\bowtie}{\bowtie} T[A, C]$ with a scheme M[A, B, C] is a natural join of R and T, but unification occurs in the join attribute 'A'.

e.g. $M[A, B, C] = \{ (f(a,d), p1(d), q2(a)) \}$. M[A, B, C] is a set of rules 'm(A):-B, C', which defines a view m(X) = 'r(X) \wedge t(X)'. The single tuple in M is a rule 'm(f(a,d)):-p1(d),q2(a).'. Thus $\stackrel{\text{id}}{\bowtie}$ operator retrieves necessary pairs of rules.

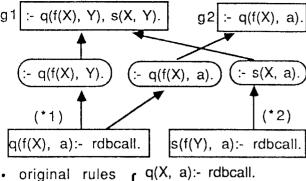
2. σ T[A,C] is a selection of rules in T, which is restricted by unification.

e.g. $\sigma_A = h(b,) T[A, C] = \{ (h(b,a), q1(g(b),c)) \}$

3. $I_B R[A, B]$ is a set of facts satisfying a rule in R. e.g. if only p1(i1) and p1(i2) are true and p2(X) has no answers in Idb1, $I_B R[A, B] = \{ (f(a,i1),p1(i1)), (f(a,i2),p2(i2)) \}$.

Those operators are called Relational Algebra extended with Unification (RAU). Note that I-operator issues a set of queries to Idb1 with a factDB. \bowtie and σ are the same as those in [4].

A query to the rule/fact database is expressed as a tree-form of RAU-operators. e.g. a query "retrieve a set of facts which satisfy both a rule in R restricted by F1 and a rule in T restricted by F2" is expressed by π I $[(\sigma_{F1}R) \stackrel{\mathsf{u}}{\bowtie} (\sigma_{F2}T)]$. It retrieves necessary pairs



- original rules $\begin{cases} q(X, a): \text{ rdbcall.} \\ s(f(X), Y) : \text{ rdbcall.} \end{cases}$
- g1, g2 are goal clauses to ldb1
 - :the direction of dataflow.

Figure 1: a rule-goal graph

of rules from Idb2 and issues a global query to Idb1 with a factDB.

3 I-op. by rule-goal graphs

Given a global query, then a rule-goal graph is generated in the *depth first order* resolution with common expression sharing [2] (Figure 1).

We use the simplest rule-goal graph [5]. It consists of goal nodes and rule nodes. A goal node is a goal literal which appears during the depth-first resolution. It has rule nodes as child-nodes. A rule node is an instance of an original rule, which is a unified form with its parent goal-node. e.g. in Figure.1, a rule node (*1) is a unified form of an original rule. Due to the depth first order, the node g1 has a goal node ':- s(X,a)', not ':- s(X,Y)'.

If a goal node ':-G.' finds an already generated rule node 'H:-B.' such that $G = H \theta$ (θ : substitution), the rule node is declared as a common expression and a reduction of ':-G.' succeeds. In Fig.1, the goal g^2 succeeds and a rule node (*1) is a common expression. If g^2 is ':-q(X,a).', the common expression (*1) is replaced by 'q(X,a):-rdbcall.' and is still shared.

The generated rule-goal graph is executed by a relational database after materializing all rule-nodes which are declared as common expressions.

Our rule-goal graph is unique in these two points.

- 1. variable-bindings are propagated in the depth first order. e.g. in Fig.1, a binding $\{X/f(Y)\}$ at the node(*2) is not propagated to the node(*1). It is much simpler than the exhaustive propagation in [6].
- 2. temporal relations are needed only for the declared common expressions. The dataflow approach in [6,7] needs to store temporal results in all nodes in the graph for common expression sharing.

4 ⋈ op. by hash

This section presents a hash based algorithm for be operator. We have already proposed an algorithm for it by hash and sort [1,8]. The sort is not, however, always useful if all operands are resident in a main memory.

For simplicity, in $A \bowtie B$, operands A and B are sets of terms which have a specified tree structure Tree. e.g. let Tree1 be functor(atom1, atom2), expressed by [functor, atom1, atom2] or [n0, n1, n2]. Then A is $\{f(X,a), h(a,b),...\}$.

Distinct hash-tables htbl(Bid, Key) are made according to (Bid, Key); Bid of a tuple t is a sequence of 0 or 1. It tells t has a variable or a constant symbol respectively on nodes of Tree. e.g. a tuple t1 = f(X,a) has Bid1 = [1,0,1] on Tree1. We say t1 has a value [f,a] on [n0,n2].

Key in a given Bid is a sequence of constant nodes whose values must be equal when unification succeeds. e.g. Key is [n0] or [n0,n2] for Bid1. If a tuple t2=f(b,a) is unified with any tuple t3 whose Bid is Bid1, both t1 and t3 must have an equal value on Key1 = [n0,n2]. Key1 is called a Key between t1 and Bid1.

A tuple t is given a hash value hv(t) = hash-function(t's value on Key) in htbl(Bid, Key). e.g. hv(t1) = hash-function(f,a) in htbl([1,0,1], [n0,n2]), and hash-function(f) in htbl([1,0,1], [n0]).

The hash-based algorithm for $A \bowtie B$ is as follows; step 1. for all tuple t in A and Key in Bid of t, insert t to the entry 'hv(t)' in htbl(Bid, Key).

step 2. for all tuple t in B and Bid in A, do the following operations; get Key between t and Bid, and next try unification of t and tuples in the entry 'hv(t)' in htbl(Bid, Key). \Box

5 Concluding remarks

An experimental (not large) rule/fact database has been developed in CProlog. I-operator is implemented by the method in this paper. $\stackrel{\bowtie}{\bowtie}$ and σ are supported by nested loop and simple hashing, respectively.

The algorithm for $\stackrel{\bowtie}{\bowtie}$ in this paper can be improved; When terms in A and B have nodes N which are not on Tree, some coding methods are useful. One way is to append another hash table of SSCW [9] on such nodes N to each entry of our hash table.

[ref.] [1]. Ohmori. IWDM'87, pp.291-304. [2]. Sellis. SIGMOD'86, pp.191-205. [3]. Zaniolo. VLDB'85, pp.458-469. [4]. Morita. VLDB'86, pp.52-59. [5]. Ullman. ACM-TODS. 10(3) '85. [6]. Kifer. ICDT'86, pp.186-202 in LNCS243. [7]. Gelder. SIGMOD'86, pp.155-165. [8]. Ohmori. 32nd.A.C. 1M-6, 1PSJ. [9]. Morita. 33rd.A.C. 6L-8, IPSJ.