2011

Ronciling Differences

Todd J. Green  
*University of California - Davis*

Zachary G. Ives  
*University of Pennsylvania*, zives@cis.upenn.edu

Val Tannen  
*University of Pennsylvania*, val@cis.upenn.edu

Follow this and additional works at: [http://repository.upenn.edu/cis_papers](http://repository.upenn.edu/cis_papers)

Part of the [Computer Sciences Commons](http://repository.upenn.edu/cis_papers)

Recommended Citation

Todd J. Green, Zachary G. Ives, and Val Tannen, "Ronciling Differences", January 2011.


ACM COPYRIGHT NOTICE. Copyright © 2011 by the Association for Computing Machinery, Inc. Permission to make digital or hard copies of part or all of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. Copyrights for components of this work owned by others than ACM must be honored. Abstracting with credit is permitted. To copy otherwise, to republish, to post on servers, or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific permission and/or a fee. Request permissions from Publications Dept., ACM, Inc., fax +1 (212) 869-0481, or permissions@acm.org.

This paper is posted at ScholarlyCommons. [http://repository.upenn.edu/cis_papers/617](http://repository.upenn.edu/cis_papers/617)

For more information, please contact repository@pobox.upenn.edu.
Ronciling Differences

Abstract
In this paper we study a problem motivated by the management of changes in databases. It turns out that several such change scenarios, e.g., the separately studied problems of view maintenance (propagation of data changes) and view adaptation (propagation of view definition changes) can be unified as instances of query reformulation using views provided that support for the relational difference operator exists in the context of query reformulation. Exact query reformulation using views in positive relational languages is well understood, and has a variety of applications in query optimization and data sharing. Unfortunately, most questions about queries become undecidable in the presence of difference (or negation), whether we use the foundational set semantics or the more practical bag semantics. We present a new way of managing this difficulty by defining a novel semantics, $Z$-relations, where tuples are annotated with positive or negative integers. $Z$-relations conveniently represent data, insertions, and deletions in a uniform way, and can apply deletions with the union operator (deletions are tuples with negative counts). We show that under $Z$-semantics relational algebra (RA) queries have a normal form consisting of a single difference of positive queries, and this leads to the decidability of their equivalence. We provide a sound and complete algorithm for reformulating RA queries, including queries with difference, over $Z$-relations. Additionally, we show how to support standard view maintenance.

Disciplines
Computer Sciences

Comments

ACM COPYRIGHT NOTICE. Copyright © 2011 by the Association for Computing Machinery, Inc. Permission to make digital or hard copies of part or all of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. Copyrights for components of this work owned by others than ACM must be honored. Abstracting with credit is permitted. To copy otherwise, to republish, to post on servers, or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific permission and/or a fee. Request permissions from Publications Dept., ACM, Inc., fax +1 (212) 869-0481, or permissions@acm.org.

This conference paper is available at ScholarlyCommons: http://repository.upenn.edu/cis_papers/617
Reconcilable Differences

Todd J. Green · Zachary G. Ives · Val Tannen

Abstract In this paper we study a problem motivated by the management of changes in databases. It turns out that several such change scenarios, e.g., the separately studied problems of view maintenance (propagation of data changes) and view adaptation (propagation of view definition changes) can be unified as instances of query reformulation using views provided that support for the relational difference operator exists in the context of query reformulation. Exact query reformulation using views in positive relational languages is well understood, and has a variety of applications in query optimization and data sharing. Unfortunately, most questions about queries become undecidable in the presence of difference (or negation), whether we use the foundational set semantics or the more practical bag semantics.

We present a new way of managing this difficulty by defining a novel semantics, $Z$-relations, where tuples are annotated with positive or negative integers. $Z$-relations conveniently represent data, insertions, and deletions in a uniform way, and can apply deletions with the union operator (deletions are tuples with negative counts). We show that under $Z$-semantics relational algebra ($\mathcal{RA}$) queries have a normal form consisting of a single difference of positive queries, and this leads to the decidability of their equivalence. We provide a sound and complete algorithm for reformulating $\mathcal{RA}$ queries, including queries with difference, over $Z$-relations. Additionally, we show how to support standard view maintenance


Our work has been supported by the National Science Foundation under grants IIS-0477972, IIS-0513778, and IIS-1050448.

T. Green
University of California, Davis, CA 95616
E-mail: green@cs.ucdavis.edu
work performed while at University of Pennsylvania

Z. Ives
University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19104
E-mail: zives@cis.upenn.edu

V. Tannen
University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19104
E-mail: val@cis.upenn.edu
and view adaptation over set or bag semantics, through an excursion into the Z-semantics setting. Our algorithm turns out to be sound and complete also for bag semantics, albeit necessarily only for a subclass of RA. This subclass turns out to be quite large and covers generously the applications of interest to us. We also show a subclass of RA where reformulation and evaluation under Z-semantics can be combined with duplicate elimination to obtain the answer under set semantics. We investigate related complexity questions, and we also extend our results to queries with built-in predicates.

**Keywords** View maintenance · View adaptation · Query optimization · Query reformulation

1 Introduction

Fundamentally, databases are dynamic entities: data gets updated, and schemas and view definitions get revised. In an increasing number of scenarios (e.g., data warehouses, data exchange, and collaborative data sharing systems), large numbers of materialized views are derived from base data: a change to the base data, the view definition, or the base schema might have a cascading effect on the views. A key operation becomes reasoning about the most efficient way to recompute a view instance (i.e., *reformulate a query*) given a set of materialized views, a set of changes, and a set of base relations. A challenge is that updates include deletions as well as insertions — and in general, deletions require a means of handling the relational difference operator.

In this paper we study the reformulation (rewriting) of relational queries that contain the difference operator. Our goal for query reformulation is to optimize by reusing existing information, such as materialized views. Since the objective is optimization, we focus on exact reformulation, which finds only equivalent rewritings of the query.  

Query reformulation using views is well understood for positive fragments of relational languages, such as conjunctive queries (CQs) or unions of CQs (UCQs), under both set and bag semantics (see, e.g., [4,26]). As we shall discuss in more detail in the preamble to Section 4 in both cases (bag and set semantics), complete procedures for finding UCQ rewritings using UCQ views exist, using finite search spaces. Also, in both cases UCQ equivalence is decidable. In fact, in the same discussion we argue that whenever a (reasonable) finite search space procedure exists, query equivalence must also be decidable.

It follows that the initial outlook on doing reformulations involving the difference operator is glum because even without views the equivalence of relational algebra (RA) queries is undecidable, for both set and bag semantics. Hence, we cannot hope for the approaches to UCQ reformulation under bag or set semantics to extend to the entire RA.

However, being able to solve this problem even partially would have an impact in at least three major change propagation scenarios. With reformulation of queries that include difference:

- **Optimization using materialized views** could be done over a broader space of plans. Even if the original query and view were just CQs/UCQs it would be valuable if we could find rewritings that, e.g., *subtract* one view from a larger view in order to return a query answer. Sometimes only such rewritings using difference exist.

---

1 In data integration, one is also interested in maximally contained rewritings, see e.g., [21].

2 The latter follows, e.g., from the undecidability of bag-containment of unions of conjunctive queries (UCQs) [23], since for UCQs Q, Q′ we have Q is contained in Q′ iff Q – Q′ is equivalent to the empty answer query.
- View adaptation [18], the act of updating a materialized view instance when the view definition has changed, could be seen as a reformulation using views. Here, the updated view can be recomputed based on the old contents of the view, by adding and/or subtracting queries over the base data and possibly other views. This would be significant progress over existing approaches.

- Incremental view maintenance [19] could be seen as a reformulation using views, since insertions and deletions could be treated as unions and differences. Consequently, one can consider multiple rewritings as solutions, using a cost model to choose the best one.

Since all these scenarios are highly relevant practical problems in databases, we are led to ask the following natural question: is there a slightly less expressive class of queries than RA, — still including difference, and hence still providing the benefits cited above — for which reformulation can be handled effectively. In this paper we do this via an excursion through a non-standard semantics that is of interest in its own right: what we term Z-relations. These are relations whose tuples are annotated with integers (positive or negative) and the positive RA operators are defined on them according to the semiring-annotated semantics used in our previous [16,17]. In addition, difference has an obvious, natural definition on Z-relations.

Z-relations are a natural and uniform representation for both data and updates. For example, they can represent updates to source relations (collections of tuple insertions and deletions, a.k.a. deltas) which must be propagated in incremental view maintenance applications. Indeed, “application” of a delta to a relation corresponds to simply computing a union. We discuss this further in Section 2.

It turns out that reformulation of RA queries using RA views can be solved effectively with respect to the Z-semantics since here equivalence of RA queries with respect to a set of RA views is decidable. We provide a sound and complete algorithm for finding rewritings of RA queries using RA views under Z-semantics.

Moreover, we obtain practically useful results about the class of RA queries for which the reformulation with respect to Z-semantics remains valid with respect to bag semantics. For example, the algorithm is complete for finding RA-reformulations of UCQs using UCQ views, provided we are only looking for well-behaved reformulations that on N-instances produce the same results under Z-semantics as under N-semantics. We show two examples that fall in this category in Section 2: an optimization using views example and a view adaptation example. Another case in which the algorithm is nicely complete, for both bag and set semantics, is the application to incremental view maintenance using the so-called delta rules [19], also discussed in Section 2.

The main contributions of the paper are:

- We show that under Z-semantics every RA query is equivalent to the difference of two queries in RA+. The latter are selection/projection/join/union queries, forming the positive relational algebra, and equivalent in expressiveness to UCQs. Then the decidability of equivalence of RA queries under Z-semantics is a corollary of the decidability of equivalence of UCQs.

- It follows that in reformulation using views under Z-semantics we can work with differences of unions of conjunctive queries (DUCQs). We give a terminating, confluent, sound and complete rewrite system such that if two DUCQs are equivalent under a set of views then they can be rewritten to the same query (modulo isomorphism). This leads to our procedure for exploring the space of reformulations (using the opposites of the rewrite rules).
In contrast to CQs/UCQs under set semantics, there is no inherent or natural, instance-independent notion of “minimality” for DUCQs under Z-semantics that would yield a finite reformulation search space. We bound the search under a simple cost model, which is an abstraction of the one used in a query optimizer.

We examine when we can use the Z-semantics reformulation strategy to obtain results that work for the bag semantics and set semantics. We show that the reformulation procedure is complete for queries/views in a certain class of queries that on N-instances produce the same results under Z-semantics as under N-semantics. Membership in this class is necessarily undecidable but we give simple and practical sufficient membership criteria. We further examine when we can also obtain results that are sound under set semantics provided we are allowed to add duplicate elimination to the reformulations.

Finally, we also show how to extend our results to queries with built-in predicates, i.e., inequalities and non-equalities.

The paper is structured as follows. We discuss motivating applications in Section 2. We define the semantics of $\mathcal{R}A$ on Z-relations, establish the decidability of Z-equivalence of $\mathcal{R}A$ queries and introduce DUCQs in Section 3. We introduce the rewrite system for queries using views in Section 4. We present reformulation algorithms and strategies in Section 5. We discuss reformulation for bag semantics/set semantics via Z-semantics in Section 6. We extend our Z-equivalence results to $\mathcal{R}A$ with built-in predicates in Section 7. We discuss related work in Section 8 and conclude in Section 9.

2 Applications of Differences

In this section, we illustrate the three motivating applications mentioned in the introduction, and show how these problems are closely related. Given a uniform way of representing data along with changes to the data — including deletions or difference operations over data, as well as insertions — we can consider each of these problems to be a case of query reformulation or query rewriting. We shall propose Z-relations as a unifying representation for this purpose, since they can capture base data, insertions, and deletions.

Optimizing queries using views [4,26]. Given a query $Q$ and a set of materialized views $\mathcal{V}$, the goal is to speed up computation of $Q$ by (possibly) rewriting $Q$ using views in $\mathcal{V}$. Sometimes, a view may be “nearly” applicable for answering a query, but cannot be used unless difference is allowed in the rewriting. For example, consider a view $V$ with paths of length 2 and 3 in $R$:

$$V(x,y) ::= R(x,z), R(z,y)$$
$$V(x,y) ::= R(x,u), R(u,v), R(v,y)$$

and a query $Q$ for paths of length 3:

$$Q(x,y) ::= R(x,u), R(u,v), R(v,y)$$

One can obtain an answer to $Q$ from an instance of $V$ by removing all paths of length 2 from it: compute paths of length 2 (by joining $R$ with itself), then compute the difference between $V$ and those paths under bag semantics. If our end goal is set semantics, we would also add a duplicate elimination step at the end.
View adaptation [18]. Here, we have a set of base relations, an existing materialized view, and an updated view definition, and we want to refresh the materialized view instance to reflect the new definition. For example, the materialized view:

\[
V(x,y,z) :: R(x,y), R(x,z)
\]

\[
V(x,y,z) :: R(x,y), R(y,z)
\]

\[
V(x,y,z) :: R(x,y), R(y,z); y = z
\]

might be redefined by deleting the second rule and projecting out the middle column:

\[
V'(x,z) :: R(x,y), R(x,z)
\]

\[
V'(x,z) :: R(x,y), R(y,z); y = z
\]

In this case, the computation of \(V'(x,z)\) might be sped up under bag semantics by computing the second rule \(V(x,y,z) :: R(x,y), R(y,z)\), subtracting the tuples of the result, and projecting only \(x\) and \(z\). (Again, duplicate removal could be done at the end to get a set-semantics answer.)

Incremental view maintenance [19]. We are given a source database, a materialized view, and a set of changes to be applied to the source database (tuple insertions or deletions), and the goal is to compute the corresponding change to the materialized view. This can then be applied to the existing materialized view to obtain the new version. For example, consider a source relation \(R\) and materialized view \(V\), with definitions and instances:

\[
R : \begin{array}{cc}
  a & b \\
  b & a \\
  c & b \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
V(x,y) :: R(x,z), R(z,y) : \begin{array}{cc}
  a & d \\
  a & c \\
  b & b \\
  c & a \\
  c & c \\
\end{array}
\]

Suppose we update \(R\) by deleting \((b,a)\) and inserting \((c,d)\); to maintain \(V\), we must insert a new tuple \((b,d)\). Note that deleting \((b,a)\) does not result in deleting \((b,b)\) from \(V\), because this tuple can still be derived by joining \((b,c)\) with \((c,b)\). Yet if we now delete \((c,b)\) from \(R\), then \((b,b)\) and \((c,c)\) must be deleted from \(V\).

In order to solve the incremental view maintenance problem, Gupta et al. [19] proposed recording in \(V\) along with each tuple the number of derivations of that tuple, i.e., the multiplicity of the tuple under bag semantics. To represent changes to a (bag) relation, they introduced the concept of delta relations, essentially bag relations with associated signs: “+” indicates an insertion and “−” a deletion. Finally, in order to propagate updates, they proposed the device of delta rules. In the example above, a set of delta rules for \(V\) corresponds to the UCQ:

\[
V^\Delta(x,y) :: R(x,z), R^\Delta(z,y)
\]

\[
V^\Delta(x,y) :: R^\Delta(x,z), R^\Delta(z,y)
\]

Here \(R'\) denotes the updated version of \(R\), obtained by applying the delta \(R^\Delta\) to \(R\), i.e., computing \(R' := R^\Delta \cup R\) where union on delta relations sums the (signed) tuple multiplicities. By computing \(V^\Delta\) and then applying it to \(V\), we obtain the updated version of \(V\), namely \(V'\). Note that there may actually be more than one possible set of delta rules for \(V\), e.g.:

\[
V^\Delta(x,y) :: R^\Delta(x,z), R(z,y)
\]

\[
V^\Delta(x,y) :: R'(x,z), R^\Delta(z,y)
\]
We would like to choose among the possible delta rules sets, as well as simply computing \( V' \) “from scratch” via the query:

\[
V'(x,y) := R'(x,z), R'(z,y)
\]

based on the expected costs of the various plans. We model the relation \( R^3 \) with \( Z \)-relations, presented in the next section. We consider this to again be a variant of optimizing queries using views: the goal is to compute the view with deltas applied, \( V' \), given not only the base data \( R \) and \( R^3 \), but also the existing materialized view \( V \), and relation \( R' \) resulting from applying the updates in \( R^3 \) to \( R \). (We can compute \( V' \) either before or after updating \( R \) to \( R' \).) Since every delta relation includes deletions, this version of the reformulation problem also incorporates a form of difference.

As we shall see, a unified treatment of these three applications is possible by using methods for representing data and changes via an excursion to an alternative semantics (\( Z \)-relations), performing query reformulation in this context, and proving sufficient conditions for cases in which the results agree with bag and set semantics.

### 3 \( Z \)-Relations

We use here the named perspective [1] of the relational model, in which tuples are functions \( t : U \rightarrow D \) with \( U \) a finite set of attributes and \( D \) a domain of values. We fix the domain \( D \) for the time being and we denote the set of all such \( U \)-tuples by \( U \)-Tup. (Usual) relations over \( U \) are subsets of \( U \)-Tup; we will also refer to these as \( B \)-relations, since they can also be viewed as mappings from \( U \)-Tup to \( B = \{true, false\} \).

A bag relation over attributes \( U \) is a mapping \( R : U \rightarrow N \) from \( U \)-tuples to their associated multiplicities. Tuples with multiplicity 0 are those “not present” in \( R \), and we require of a bag relation that its support defined by \( supp(R) \overset{def}{=} \{ t \mid R(t) \neq 0 \} \) is finite.

A \( Z \)-relation over attributes \( U \) is a mapping \( R : U \rightarrow Z \) of finite support. In other words, it is a bag relation where multiplicities may be positive or negative.

A bag instance (\( Z \)-instance) is a mapping from predicate symbols to bag relations (\( Z \)-relations). A set instance \( I \) (or \( B \)-instance) is a mapping from predicate symbols to \( B \)-relations. If \( I \) is a \( K \)-instance (for \( K \in \{Z, B, N\} \)), then \( R^I \) denotes the value of the \( K \)-relation for \( R \) in \( I \).

We define the semantics of the relational algebra on \( Z \)-instances according to the semiring-annotated relational semantics used in our previous papers [17, 16]. We begin with the operations of the positive algebra \( (R \mathcal{A}^+) \). If \( I \) is a \( Z \)-instance and \( Q \) is a positive algebra query, then the result of evaluating \( Q \) on \( I \) is the \( Z \)-relation \( \llbracket Q \rrbracket \) defined inductively as follows:

empty relation For any set of attributes \( U \), there is \( \emptyset : U \rightarrow Z \) such that

\[
\llbracket \emptyset \rrbracket (t) = 0
\]

identity If \( R \) is a predicate symbol with attributes \( U \) then \( \llbracket R \rrbracket : U \rightarrow Z \) is defined by

\[
\llbracket R \rrbracket (t) \overset{def}{=} R(t)
\]

union If \( \llbracket R_1 \rrbracket, \llbracket R_2 \rrbracket : U \rightarrow Z \) then \( \llbracket R_1 \cup R_2 \rrbracket : U \rightarrow Z \) is defined by

\[
\llbracket R_1 \cup R_2 \rrbracket (t) \overset{def}{=} \llbracket R_1 \rrbracket (t) + \llbracket R_2 \rrbracket (t)
\]
projection If \([ \pi_V R' ]^I : U \cdot \text{Tup} \rightarrow Z \) and \( V \subseteq U \) then \([ \pi_V R ]^I : V \cdot \text{Tup} \rightarrow Z \) is defined by

\[
[ \pi_V R ]^I (t) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{t' \in V \text{ and } [R']^I (t') \neq 0} [R']^I (t')
\]

(here \( t = t' \) on \( V \) means \( t' \) is a \( U \)-tuple whose restriction to \( V \) is the same as the \( V \)-tuple \( t \); note also that the sum is finite assuming \([R']^I \) has finite support)

selection If \([ R' ]^I : U \cdot \text{Tup} \rightarrow Z \) and the selection predicate \( \mathbf{P} \) maps each \( U \)-tuple to either 0 or 1 then \([ \sigma_\mathbf{P} R ]^I : U \cdot \text{Tup} \rightarrow Z \) is defined by

\[
[ \sigma_\mathbf{P} R ]^I (t) \overset{\text{def}}{=} [R']^I (t) \cdot \mathbf{P}(t)
\]

Which \( \{0,1\} \)-valued functions are used as selection predicates is left unspecified, except that we assume that \( \text{false} \)—the constantly 0 predicate, and \( \text{true} \)—the constantly 1 predicate, are always available.

natural join If \([ R'_1 ]^I : U'_1 \cdot \text{Tup} \rightarrow Z \) and \( i = 1, 2 \) then \([ R'_1 \Join R'_2 ]^I \) is the \( Z \)-relation over \( U_1 \cup U_2 \) defined by

\[
[R'_1 \Join R'_2 ]^I (t) \overset{\text{def}}{=} [R'_1]^{I_1} (t_1) \sqcap [R'_2]^{I_2} (t_2)
\]

where \( t_1 = t \) on \( U_1 \) and \( t_2 = t \) on \( U_2 \) (recall that \( t \) is a \( U_1 \cup U_2 \)-tuple).

renaming If \([ R' ]^I : U \cdot \text{Tup} \rightarrow Z \) and \( \beta : U \rightarrow U' \) is a bijection then \([ \rho_\beta R ]^I \) is a \( Z \)-relation over \( U' \) defined by

\[
[ \rho_\beta R ]^I (t) \overset{\text{def}}{=} [R']^I (t \circ \beta)
\]

For the time being we assume selection predicates correspond to equalities \( A = B \) of attributes or equalities \( A = c \) of attributes with domain values. (We extend this to include inequality predicates in Section 7.)

Observe that if we start with \( Z \)-relations with just positive multiplicities, i.e. \( N \)-relations, the results of the operations defined above are also \( N \)-relations (leading to Lemma 3.1 below) and the resulting semantics is in fact the usual bag semantics. \( B \)-relations correspond to reading the “\( \lor \)” as disjunction and the “\( \land \)” as conjunction, essentially “eliminating duplicates,” hence we get the usual set semantics.

We extend the above definition to the full relational algebra \((\mathcal{R}_A)\) on \( Z \)-instances by defining the difference operator in the obvious way:

difference If \([ R'_1 ]^I : U \cdot \text{Tup} \rightarrow Z \) and \([ R'_2 ]^I : U \cdot \text{Tup} \rightarrow Z \) then \([ R'_1 - R'_2 ]^I : U \cdot \text{Tup} \rightarrow Z \) is defined by

\[
[R'_1 - R'_2 ]^I (t) \overset{\text{def}}{=} [R'_1]^{I} (t) - [R'_2]^{I} (t)
\]

For bag semantics, the subtraction in the definition above is replaced by proper subtraction (negative numbers are truncated to 0). For \( B \)-relations this becomes the usual set difference in set semantics.

Every bag instance is also a \( Z \)-instance. Relational queries on set or bag instances can be evaluated under bag semantics or under \( Z \)-semantics. To disambiguate we use the notation \([Q]_K^I \) to mean the evaluation of \( Q \) on bag instance \( I \) under \( K \)-semantics, for \( K \in \{N,Z\} \).

For \( Q, Q' \in \mathcal{R}_A \) and \( K \in \{B,N,Z\} \) we say that \( Q \) and \( Q' \) are \( K \)-equivalent (denoted \( Q \equiv_K Q' \)) if for every \( K \)-instance \( I \), \([Q]_K^I = [Q']_K^I \). The following simple but useful observation relates \( N \)-equivalence and \( Z \)-equivalence of positive queries:

Lemma 3.1 If \( Q, Q' \in \mathcal{R}_A^+ \) then \( Q \equiv_N Q' \iff Q \equiv_Z Q' \)

Proof “\( \implies \)” follows from the fact that every bag instance is also a \( Z \)-instance and the two semantics agree for positive queries on bag instances. “\( \impliedby \)” follows from the fact that bag equivalent positive queries, when transformed into UCQs, are isomorphic [9]. \( \square \)
For any queries, under semantics, every relational query is equivalent to a single difference of positive queries. The key idea is that in contrast to bag and set semantics, under \( \mathbb{Z} \)-semantics, every relational query is equivalent to a single difference of positive queries.

**Definition 3.2** For any \( Q \in \mathcal{RA} \) we define a difference normal form denoted by \( \text{DiffNF}(Q) \) by structural recursion on \( Q \) as follows:

- If \( R \) is a predicate symbol then \( \text{DiffNF}(R) = R - 0 \).
- If \( \text{DiffNF}(Q) = A - B \) then
  \[
  \text{DiffNF}(\pi_X(Q)) = \pi_X(A) - \pi_X(B), \quad \text{and} \quad \\
  \text{DiffNF}(\sigma_P(Q)) = \sigma_P(A) - \sigma_P(B).
  \]
- If \( \text{DiffNF}(Q_1) = A_1 - B_1 \) and \( \text{DiffNF}(Q_2) = A_2 - B_2 \) then
  \[
  \text{DiffNF}(Q_1 \times Q_2) = (A_1 \times A_2 \cup B_1 \times B_2) - (A_1 \times B_2 \cup B_1 \times A_2), \\
  \text{DiffNF}(Q_1 \cup Q_2) = (A_1 \cup A_2) - (B_1 \cup B_2), \quad \text{and} \quad \\
  \text{DiffNF}(Q_1 - Q_2) = (A_1 \cup B_2) - (A_2 \cup B_1).
  \]

Moreover, the above rules clearly also define an effective procedure for computing \( \text{DiffNF}(Q) \).

**Theorem 3.3 (Normalization)** For any \( Q \in \mathcal{RA} \) we can effectively find \( A, B \in \mathcal{RA}^+ \) such that \( Q \equiv_\mathbb{Z} A - B \).

**Proof** Clearly \( \text{DiffNF}(Q) \) has the form \( A - B \) with \( A, B \in \mathcal{RA}^+ \). It is straightforward to show by induction on \( Q \) that \( Q \equiv_\mathbb{Z} \text{DiffNF}(Q) \) using the algebraic \( \mathbb{Z} \)-semantics identities in Figure 3.1. Note that in general \( \text{DiffNF}(Q) \) may be of size exponential in the size of \( Q \).

The given definition of \( \text{DiffNF}(Q) \) proliferates redundant occurrences of \( \emptyset \). We will assume that simplifications are made based on identities such as \( A \cup \emptyset \equiv A \) or \( A \times \emptyset \equiv 0 \) (true for \( \mathbb{Z} \)-semantics, bag semantics, set semantics, and in fact all semiring-annotated semantics). As a result, it is easy to check that for \( \mathcal{RA}^+ \) queries \( Q \) we have \( \text{DiffNF}(Q) = Q - \emptyset \). \( \square \)
Hence known to be in $\text{NP}$. But then $\cup B A - " \text{instance } I. J \text{ have }$ $(under set or bag semantics; while for the second identity marked (.), we have $\pi_1(R - S) \equiv_{Z} \pi_1(R) - \pi_1(S)$, but again the two queries are inequivalent under either set or bag semantics. Indeed, Theorem 3.3 fails for set or bag semantics.

**Corollary 3.4** $\equiv_{Z}$-equivalence of $\mathcal{RA}$ queries is decidable.

**Proof** Let $Q, Q' \in \mathcal{RA}$. By Theorem 3.3, $Q \equiv_{Z} Q'$ iff $\text{DiffNF}(Q) \equiv_{Z} \text{DiffNF}(Q')$. Let $A, B, C, D \in \mathcal{RA}^+$ such that $\text{DiffNF}(Q) = A - B$ and $\text{DiffNF}(Q') = C - D$. But $A - B \equiv_{Z} C - D$ iff $A \cup D \equiv_{Z} B \cup C$. But $A \cup D$ and $B \cup C$ are in $\mathcal{RA}^+$ and hence equivalent to UCQs so the result follows from the decidability of UCQ bag equivalence [9].

Corollary 3.4 can be used to show a PSPACE upper bound on the complexity of checking $\equiv_{Z}$-equivalence of $\mathcal{RA}$ queries; however, the exact complexity remains open. A lower bound is given by Proposition 3.8 which shows that the problem is at least GI-hard.3

**Remark 3.5** Converting $\mathcal{RA}^+$ queries to UCQs may increase their size exponentially, and it is well-known that for set semantics, there is a corresponding jump in the complexity of checking containment/equivalence: for UCQs, checking containment/equivalence is $\text{NP}$-complete but for $\mathcal{RA}^+$ queries it is $\Pi_2^P$-complete [32]. However, for bag-equivalence/$\equiv_{Z}$-equivalence of $\mathcal{RA}^+$ queries, the question seems to be open and may be difficult to resolve. There are intriguing connections with the polynomial identity testing problem (PIT), an important open problem in theoretical computer science. PIT is known to be solvable in probabilistic polynomial time and conjectured to be perhaps solvable in $\text{PTIME}$ (via a derandomization of the probabilistic procedure). In fact, we can show that for the cross product-union fragment of $\mathcal{RA}^+$, at least, bag-equivalence/$\equiv_{Z}$-equivalence is interreducible with the non-commutative variant of PIT, which is known to lie in $\text{PTIME}$ [31].

Another useful consequence of Theorem 3.3 is the following:

**Lemma 3.6** For any $Q_1, Q_2 \in \mathcal{RA}$, we have $Q_1 \equiv_{Z} Q_2$ iff $[Q_1]^Z_{\Pi_2} = [Q_2]^Z_{\Pi_2}$ for every $\mathbb{N}$-instance $I$.

**Proof** $\Rightarrow$” is immediate. For “$\Leftarrow$”, suppose $Q_1 \not\equiv_{Z} Q_2$. By Theorem 3.3, we have $Q_1 \equiv_{Z} A - B$ and $Q_2 \equiv_{Z} C - D$ with $A, B, C, D \in \mathcal{RA}^+$. Since $A - B \not\equiv_{Z} C - D$, we have $A \cup D \not\equiv_{Z} B \cup C$. By Lemma 3.1, this implies $A \cup D \not\equiv_{N} B \cup C$. Therefore for some $\mathbb{N}$-instance $I$, we have $[A \cup D]^I_{\Pi_2} \neq [B \cup C]^I_{\Pi_2}$, hence $[A \cup D]^I_{\Pi_2} \neq [B \cup C]^I_{\Pi_2}$. Now consider some output tuple $t$ such that $[A \cup D]^I_{\Pi_2}(t) \neq [B \cup C]^I_{\Pi_2}(t)$. It follows that $[A]^I_{\Pi_2}(t) + [D]^I_{\Pi_2}(t) \neq [B]^I_{\Pi_2}(t) + [C]^I_{\Pi_2}(t)$. But then $[A]^I_{\Pi_2}(t) - [B]^I_{\Pi_2}(t) \neq [C]^I_{\Pi_2}(t) - [D]^I_{\Pi_2}(t)$. It follows that $[A - B]^I_{\Pi_2}(t) \neq [C - D]^I_{\Pi_2}(t)$. Hence $[Q_1]^I_{\Pi_2} \neq [Q_2]^I_{\Pi_2}$. □

We shall see an application of Lemma 3.6 in Section 6.

---

3 GI is the class of problems polynomial time reducible to graph isomorphism. Graph isomorphism is known to be in $\text{NP}$, but is not known or believed to be either $\text{NP}$-complete or in $\text{PTIME}$. 
3.2 DUCQs

As we shall see below, our reformulation algorithm uses $\mathcal{RA}$ queries in difference normal form. In fact, as with CQs and UCQs it is notationally convenient to use a Datalog-style syntax for the queries on which reformulation operates directly. We define differences of unions of conjunctive queries (DUCQs) for this purpose, for example:

$$Q(x,z) : \iff R(x,y), S(y,z)$$
$$Q(x,y) : \iff R(x,u), R(u,v), R(v,y)$$
$$Q(x,y) : \iff R(x,y), T(y,y)$$

The “−” marks a “negated” CQ. If $A, B, C$ are the $\mathcal{RA}$ queries encoding the first, second, and third rules above (ignoring the minus sign for the third rule), the equivalent $\mathcal{RA}$ query is

$$Q = A \cup B - C.$$ 

DUCQs are related to the *elementary differences* of [32]. Under $Z$-semantics, any $\mathcal{RA}$ query can be written equivalently as a DUCQ; this follows from Theorem 3.3 and the fact that any $\mathcal{RA}$ query can be rewritten as a UCQ. The semantics of DUCQs on bag relations/$Z$-relations/set relations can be given formally by translation to $\mathcal{RA}$.

**Definition 3.7** If $Q = Q_1 - Q_2$ is a DUCQ which is the difference of UCQs $Q_1$ and $Q_2$, and $I$ is a $K$-instance (for $K \in \{Z, \mathbb{N}, \mathbb{B}\}$), then the result of evaluating $Q$ on $I$ is the $K$-relation

$$[Q]_K^I(t) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \left[\text{trans}(Q_1)\right]_K^I(t) - \left[\text{trans}(Q_2)\right]_K^I(t)$$

where $\text{trans} : \text{UCQ} \rightarrow \mathcal{RA}^+$ is the standard translation of UCQs to positive relational queries.

Although we do not have a precise complexity for the $Z$-equivalence of $\mathcal{RA}$ queries, we can fully characterize the complexity of checking $Z$-equivalence of DUCQs. For this and further developments we recall the standard notion of isomorphism of UCQs. CQs $A, B$ are said to be *isomorphic*, denoted $A \cong B$, if there is a bijective mapping $b$ of variables of $A$ to variables of $B$ (extended to the identity on constants) that induces a bijection of atoms from the body of $A$ to the body of $B$. UCQs $A = A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_m$ and $B = B_1 \cup \cdots \cup B_m$ are said to be isomorphic, again denoted $A \cong B$, if there is a bijection $g : \{1, \ldots, m\} \rightarrow \{1, \ldots, n\}$ (hence $m = n$) such that $A_i \cong B_{g(i)}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. Finally, we say that DUCQs $A - B$ and $C - D$ are *isomorphic*, denoted $A - B \cong C - D$, if $A \cong C$ and $B \cong D$.

**Proposition 3.8** For DUCQs $Q = A - B$, $Q' = C - D$ we have $Q \equiv_Z Q'$ iff for UCQs $A \cup D$ and $B \cup C$, $A \cup D \equiv_B B \cup C$. As a consequence, checking $Q \equiv_Z Q'$ is GI-complete.

*Proof* Following similar reasoning as in the proof of Corollary 3.4, we have $A - B \equiv_Z C - D$ iff $A \cup D \equiv_Z B \cup C$ iff $A \cup D \equiv_B B \cup C$. But by the results of [9], this holds iff $A \cup D \equiv_B B \cup C$. Thus $Z$-equivalence of DUCQs is polynomial time many-one interreducible with the GI-complete problem of checking isomorphism of UCQs. \qed
4 Reformulation Using Views

Let $\Sigma$ be a relational schema and $\mathcal{V}$ a finite set of views over $\Sigma$. Let $\Sigma_{\mathcal{V}}$ be the schema consisting of the view names (disjoint from $\Sigma$). A $\Sigma \cup \Sigma_{\mathcal{V}}$-instance is $\mathcal{V}$-compatible if it consists of a $\Sigma$-instance $I$ and a $\Sigma_{\mathcal{V}}$-instance $J$ such that $J = [\mathcal{V}]^I$. Orthogonally, these instances may consist of $\mathbb{Z}$-relations, $\mathbb{N}$-relations or $\mathbb{B}$-relations. For $K \in \{\mathbb{B}, \mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}\}$ we say that two relational queries $Q, Q'$ over $\Sigma \cup \Sigma_{\mathcal{V}}$ are $K$-equivalent under $\mathcal{V}$, denoted $Q \equiv_K Q'$, if $Q$ and $Q'$ agree on all $\mathcal{V}$-compatible $K$-instances.

Given a $\Sigma$-query $Q$, a reformulation of $Q$ using $\mathcal{V}$ is a $\Sigma \cup \Sigma_{\mathcal{V}}$-query $Q'$ such that $Q \equiv_{\mathcal{V}} Q'$. We also call $Q'$ an equivalent rewriting using $\mathcal{V}$.

Query reformulation algorithms typically work by effectively enumerating certain queries, call this a search space, filtering the queries that are not equivalent rewritings, and finding a minimum-cost query (according to some cost model). There are three requirements for designing such algorithms; (1) the search space must be finite so the algorithm terminates, (2) the returned rewriting should be actually equivalent so the algorithm is sound, and (3) if equivalent rewritings exist then at least one of them should be found so the algorithm is complete. A more subtle requirement is that the returned rewriting has smaller cost than any rewriting, even when there are infinitely many ones.

In the case of set semantics one can construct infinitely many rewritings of CQs even without views, simply by adding to their bodies atoms that can be homomorphically mapped to existing ones [1]. This can be dealt with by considering only queries that have no non-trivial endomorphism, call them locally minimal. It was shown in [26] that the space of locally minimal CQ reformulations of a CQ query $Q$ using CQ views $\mathcal{V}$ is finitely bounded. Further work focused on pruning and efficiently exploring this search space (looking for not just equivalent rewritings but also maximally contained rewritings) [27,13,30,29]. Even if certain classes of integrity constraints (capturing views and more) are considered, a corresponding notion of minimality can be used to define a finite search space for rewritings, using the chase and backchase technique [12]. For CQs and bag semantics a finite search space exploration is described in [4]. Interestingly, the UCQ and/or bag-semantics analogs of the complexity results in [26] do not seem to appear anywhere (to the best of our knowledge). For bag semantics, we attempt to remedy this omission in Subsection 4.1 below.

In the reformulation procedures we have mentioned, the search spaces are constructed and enumerated combinatorially, thus including non-equivalent rewritings. One takes advantage of the decidability of $\equiv_K$ to filter them out. But such decidability is not just sufficient, it is also necessary. Indeed, all such reasonable approaches describe a total recursive function that associates to each $\Sigma$-query $Q$ a finite set searchSpace$(Q)$ of $\Sigma \cup \Sigma_{\mathcal{V}}$-queries. Moreover, procedures like local minimization can be abstracted by another total recursive function that associates to each $\Sigma$-query $Q$ and each $\Sigma \cup \Sigma_{\mathcal{V}}$-query $Q'$ another $\Sigma \cup \Sigma_{\mathcal{V}}$-query $\mu(Q, Q')$ such that $Q' \equiv_{\mathcal{V}} \mu(Q, Q')$. And finally, one shows that $Q' \equiv_{\mathcal{V}} Q$ if and only if $\mu(Q, Q') \in \text{searchSpace}(Q)$. Since the latter is decidable, so is $\equiv_{\mathcal{V}}$.

In particular, $K$-equivalence of $\Sigma$-queries must also be decidable which is why under bag or set semantics we cannot hope to extend the ideas that have worked for positive queries to rewritings of relational queries with difference.

We have seen that shifting to $\mathbb{Z}$-semantics however leads to the decidability of $\mathbb{Z}$-equivalence of $\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}$ queries (hence DUCQs). According to the discussion above, next we need to explore $\mathbb{Z}$-equivalence under a set of views and we do so in Subsection 4.2 using a uniquely terminating term rewrite system.

In the same subsection we discuss adding the reverse of the term rewrite rules as the basis for a reformulation algorithm. In the last two subsections we consider limiting our search
to diff-irredundant rewritings, and we develop a cost model and a procedure for limiting the search space further.

4.1 Complexity of Bag Reformulation

In the case of bag semantics, UCQ queries and UCQ views there are only finitely many rewritings (modulo symbol renaming). This is essentially because under bag semantics, positive query equivalence is the same as isomorphism (see [5] for CQs and [9] for UCQs). For CQs, that is, select-project-join queries, an algorithm for exploring the resulting finite search space in conjunction with System-R style query optimization was given in [4].

We consider here, for UCQs and bag semantics, the analogs of the complexity results shown in [26] for the existence of rewritings of CQs using CQ views under set semantics.

Theorem 4.1 Given a query \( Q \in \text{UCQ} \) and a set of views \( V \subseteq \text{UCQ} \), it is NP-complete to determine whether:

(i) There exists a UCQ reformulation under bag semantics of \( Q \) using at least one predicate in \( V \) (the problem is NP-hard even for CQs).

(ii) There exists a UCQ reformulation under bag semantics of \( Q \) that is complete, i.e., using only predicates in \( V \) (the problem is NP-hard even for CQs).

Proof To show membership in \( \text{NP} \) for both cases, we observe that in each case we can guess the rewriting along with an isomorphism between \( Q \) and the rewriting with unfolded view definitions needed to demonstrate bag-equivalence, and these are easily verifiable in polynomial time.

It remains to show \( \text{NP} \)-hardness in each case.

(i) \( \text{NP} \)-hardness when \( Q \) and \( V \) are all CQs (and hence also for the case where \( Q \) and \( V \) may be UCQs) is established by a straightforward reduction from the subgraph isomorphism problem: given directed graphs \( G_1, G_2 \) is there a subgraph of \( G_1 \) which is isomorphic to \( G_2 \)? (In contrast to graph isomorphism, the subgraph isomorphism problem is known to be \( \text{NP} \)-complete.) Indeed, given directed graphs \( G_1, G_2 \), we construct CQs \( Q_1, Q_2 \) whose bodies encode the graphs in the standard fashion using a single binary predicate \( E \) and a variable \( x_i \) for each graph vertex \( v_i \), and whose heads return all the variables occurring in the bodies. \( Q_1 \) has a rewriting using \( Q_2 \) iff there is a safe substitution [?] of \( Q_2 \) in \( Q_1 \). But such a safe substitution exists iff there is a subset of the body of \( Q_1 \) which is isomorphic to the body of \( Q_2 \), which is true iff there is a subgraph of \( G_1 \) which is isomorphic to \( G_2 \).

(ii) \( \text{NP} \)-hardness when \( Q \) and \( V \) are CQs is again established by a reduction from the subgraph isomorphism problem. This time, we work with a slightly specialized version of the problem: if \( n \) is the number of edges in \( G_1 \), and \( m \) is the number of edges in \( G_2 \), we assume that \( m - n \) does not divide \( m \). It can be shown that this version of the problem remains \( \text{NP} \)-complete. Next, given directed graphs \( G_1 \) and \( G_2 \) satisfying this assumption, we construct a Boolean CQ \( Q \) encoding the edges of \( G_2 \), a CQ view \( V_1 \) encoding the edges of \( G_1 \), and an additional CQ view \( V_2 \) defined as follows:

\[
V_2(x_1, \ldots, x_{2(m-n)}) \iff E(x_1, x_2), E(x_3, x_4), \ldots, E(x_{2(m-n)-1}, x_{2(m-n)})
\]

We finish the reduction by showing that there exists a complete rewriting of \( Q \) using \( \{V_1, V_2\} \) iff there exists a subgraph isomorphism from \( G_1 \) to \( G_2 \). \[\Box\]
By the way, for \textit{DUCQ}s, the first question in the theorem has a trivial answer: a \textit{DUCQ} \( Q \) can always be rewritten as the equivalent \( (V \cup -V) \cup Q \) (equivalent under bag semantics, \( \mathbb{Z} \)-semantics, and even set semantics). As for the second question in the theorem, for \textit{DUCQ}s, we do not even know if this problem is decidable.

4.2 Term Rewriting System and Decidability of Equivalence under Views

For the dual purposes of checking equivalence under views and — as we shall see later — enumerating reformulations we introduce here a \textit{term rewriting system} [25] for \textit{DUCQ}s under \( \mathbb{Z} \)-semantics. We fix a relational schema \( \Sigma \) and a set of views \( V \) given by \textit{DUCQ}s over the relations in \( \Sigma \). The terms of our rewrite system are the \textit{DUCQ}s over any combination of the source predicates in \( \Sigma \) and the view predicates in \( V \).

In the rewrite rules we use an auxiliary \textit{view unfolding relation} on \textit{CQ}s, defined \( Q \rightarrow V Q' \), if \( Q' \) can be obtained from a \textit{CQ} \( Q \) by \textit{unfolding} (in the standard way) a single occurrence of the view predicate \( V \) in \( Q \). This can be extended to \textit{CQ}s containing "−" marks by defining the result to have a "−" mark iff exactly one of the query and view have a "−" mark (in other words, we “multiply” the signs). For instance, if \( U \) is the \textit{CQ}:

\[
-U(x) :- S(x,y,z)
\]

and \( Q \) is the query:

\[
Q() :- U(x), W(x)
\]

then \( Q \rightarrow V Q' \) where \( Q' \) is the \textit{CQ}:

\[
-Q() :- S(x,y,z), W(x)
\]

We extend \( \rightarrow_V \) to work with \textit{DUCQ} views by unfolding repeatedly (once for each \textit{CQ} in the view) and producing a \textit{DUCQ} as output (with the same number of rules as the view). For example, if \( V \) is the \textit{DUCQ} view:

\[
V(x,y) :- R(x,z), R(z,y)
\]

\[
-V(x,y) :- R(x,u), R(u,v), R(v,y)
\]

and \( Q \) is the \textit{CQ}:

\[
-Q(x,y) :- V(x,z), V(z,y)
\]

then \( Q \rightarrow V Q' \) where \( Q' \) is the \textit{UCQ}:

\[
-Q'(x,y) :- V(x,z), R(z,w), R(w,y)
\]

\[
-Q'(x,y) :- V(x,z), R(z,u), R(u,v), R(v,y)
\]

Note that the second rule for \( Q' \) has no "−" mark because the marks on \( Q \) and the second rule for \( V \) have cancelled each other.

Now we define a rewrite relation \( \rightarrow \) on terms as follows:

\[
\frac{P, Q, R \in \text{DUCQ} \quad V \in \mathcal{V} \quad P \rightarrow_V Q}{P \cup R \rightarrow Q \cup R} \quad \text{(UNFOLD)}
\]
Next we establish the salient properties of our rewrite system. We denote the transitive reflexive closure of → by →∗. A term is a normal form if no rewrite rule applies to it. A reduction sequence Q1 → · · · → Qn is terminating if Qn is a normal form.

**Proposition 4.2** The rewrite system above is uniquely terminating, i.e., it satisfies the following two properties:

1. **(confluence)** For all Q, Q1, Q2 ∈ DUCQ if Q →∗ Q1 and Q →∗ Q2 then there exist Q3, Q′ 3 ∈ DUCQ such that Q1 → Q3 and Q2 → Q′ 3 and Q3 ≡ Q′ 3.
2. **(termination)** Every reduction sequence Q1 → Q2 → · · · eventually must terminate.

**Proposition 4.3** The rewrite system above is sound and complete w.r.t. ≡Z-equivalence with respect to V′, i.e., for any Q1, Q2 ∈ DUCQ we have

1. **(soundness)** If Q1 →∗ Q2 then Q1 ≡Z Q2.
2. **(completeness)** If Q1 ≡Z Q2 then there exist Q′ 1, Q′ 2 such that Q1 → Q′ 1 and Q2 → Q′ 2 and Q1 ≡ Q′ 1 and Q2 ≡ Q′ 2.

**Proof** (of Propositions 4.2 and 4.3)

**termination** Let n be the number of occurrences of view predicate symbols in DUCQ Q1, and let m be the maximum number of CQs in a DUCQ view definition. Then one can show that any reduction sequence Q1 → Q2 → · · · uses UNFOLD at most m times. Next, note that if Q1 → Q2 using CANCEL, and Q1 has k CQs, then k ≥ 2 and Q2 has k−2 CQs. Thus CANCEL may only be applied ⌊k/2⌋ times in a row to Q1. It follows that any reduction sequence is finite and therefore terminating.

**soundness** It is easy to verify that UNFOLD and CANCEL are equivalence-preserving, and the general result follows by induction on the reduction sequence.

**(confluence)** Suppose Q →∗ Q1 and Q →∗ Q2. Then there are terminating sequences Q → Q1 → Q′ 1 and Q → Q2 → Q′ 2. Since the rewrite system is sound, Q1 ≡Z Q′ 1 and Q2 ≡Z Q′ 2. Moreover, Q′ 1 and Q′ 2 contain no view predicates (else UNFOLD would have applied), so Q1 ≡Z Q′ 1 and Q2 ≡Z Q′ 2. Since the reduction sequences were terminating, CANCEL does not apply to Q′ 1 or Q′ 2, hence no CQ in A (resp. C) is isomorphic to a CQ in B (resp. D). It follows that A →∗ B and C →∗ D.

**completeness** Suppose Q1 ≡Z Q2. Then there exist terminating sequences Q1 → Q′ 1 and Q2 → Q′ 2. Thus Q′ 1 and Q′ 2 contain no view predicate symbols (else UNFOLD would have applied). It follows that Q′ 1 ≡Z Q′ 2.

**Corollary 4.4** ≡Z-equivalence of DUCQs (and thus RA queries) with respect to a set of DUCQ (and thus RA) views V′ is decidable.

The corollary holds for RA queries and views because we can always convert them first to DUCQs. Note that converting them to DUCQs may increase the size exponentially, and there can be a separate exponential blowup when unfolding the views in the DUCQs. We leave open the exact complexity of the problems in Corollary 4.4.

**Remark 4.5** Proposition 3.8 gives a GI-hard lower bound on the problems, and we conjecture that ≡Z-equivalence of RA queries w.r.t. RA views can be checked in PSPACE (by
comparing counts of isomorphic CQs in the converted and unfolded DUCQs, without actually performing the full conversion and unfolding). Establishing the exact complexity may be difficult, for the same reasons we gave in Remark 3.5.

In addition to their use for showing decidability, the term rewrite rules can be very valuable in the search for reformulations. By the soundness property above, using the rules guarantees that we only explore equivalent rewritings. By the completeness property, if an equivalent rewriting exists, it will be reachable by a sequence of rewrite steps or — and this is the main difficulty we will have to face — converse rewrite steps.

Thus, in Section 5 we develop an enumeration algorithm for \( \mathbb{Z} \)-equivalent reformulations, which uses the above rewrite system combined with the converse of the UNFOLD and CANCEL operations, called FOLD and AUGMENT, respectively. FOLD rewrites a query by removing some of its CQs and replacing them with an equivalent view (recall that under bag semantics two UCQs are equivalent iff they are isomorphic.) In general we may need to AUGMENT first before FOLD is applicable.

\[
P, Q, R \in \text{DUCQ} \quad V \in \mathcal{V} \quad P \rightarrow_{v} Q \quad (\text{FOLD})
\]

\[
A, B \in \text{CQ} \quad Q \in \text{DUCQ} \quad A \equiv B \\
Q \rightarrow Q \cup A \cup (\neg B) \quad (\text{AUGMENT})
\]

4.3 Diff-Irredundant Rewritings

While UNFOLD and CANCEL only give terminating sequences of rewritings, the addition of the converse rules destroys this property. For example AUGMENT can be used to “grow” a DUCQ arbitrarily by adding more and more CQs: for example,

\[
Q \rightarrow Q \cup A \cup \neg A \rightarrow Q \cup A \cup B \cup \neg A \cup \neg B \rightarrow \cdots.
\]

Therefore the space of queries reachable in this way is infinite. How do we cut it down to a finite size? Given the success of considering locally minimal rewritings for set semantics, we could try to find a similar notion of minimality for DUCQs, hopefully one that is compatible with useful cost models. In this subsection, we define such a notion based on removing certain redundant computations, and we consider whether the space of non-redundant rewritings is finite.

Definition 4.6 A DUCQ \( Q = A - B \) is said to be diff-redundant if for some subset of CQs \( A' \subseteq A \) and \( B' \subseteq B \), we have \( A' \equiv_{\mathbb{Z}} B' \). In this case the pair of terms \( A', B' \) is said to be diff-redundant.

In the example above, \( Q \cup A \cup \neg A \) and \( Q \cup A \cup B \cup \neg A \cup \neg B \) are both diff-redundant.

A diff-redundant DUCQ can be minimized by repeatedly finding and removing diff-redundant pairs of terms until a diff-irredundant query is obtained. In the examples above, this leads back to \( Q \) (assuming \( Q \) itself is irredundant). More generally:

Proposition 4.7 If \( Q, Q' \) are DUCQs that do not contain view predicates and \( Q \equiv_{\mathbb{Z}} Q' \), then minimizing \( Q \) and minimizing \( Q' \) produces the same query (up to isomorphism).

However, when queries may contain view predicates, this property fails dramatically:
Theorem 4.8 The set \( \text{lr}_{U}^\ast(Q) \) of diff-irredundant rewritings of a DUCQ \( Q \) with respect to a set of views \( U \) is in general infinite.

Proof If \( R \) and \( S \) are binary relations, then denote by \( RS \) the relational composition of \( R \) and \( S \), i.e., the query:
\[
Q(x,y) :- R(x,z), S(z,y)
\]
We will use exponents to mean repeated relational composition (e.g., \( R^3 = RRR \)), and to simplify notation we use here + for union.

Now let \( Q = R^2 \), and let \( U \) contain the single view \( V = R + R^3 \). Then we have:
\[
Q = R^2 \\
\equiv R^2 V R - R^4 \\
\equiv R^2 V R - VR^3 + R^6 \\
\equiv R^2 V R - VR^3 + VR^5 - R^8
\]
and more generally:
\[
Q \equiv R^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} (-1)^{i+1} VR^{2i-1}
\]
for all \( n \geq 0 \). Clearly, there are infinitely many rewritings of this form. Moreover, one can check that every such rewriting is diff-irredundant. It follows that \( \text{lr}_{U}^\ast(Q) \) is infinite. \( \square \)

Thus, considering diff-irredundant queries does not suffice to establish a finite bound on the set of possible rewritings for a DUCQ.

4.4 A Cost Model

Another notion of minimality we might consider is the global minimality of [26], where the goal is to minimize the total number of atoms in a CQ reformulated using views. We find this notion problematic for several reasons. First, in contrast to the classical CQ minimization techniques (where minimizing the number of atoms coincides with computing the core of the query), the mathematical justification is unclear. Second, it is not clear how global minimality should be extended to UCQs/DUCQs (total number of atoms in all CQs?). Third, in the practical applications of interest to us, the real goal is to minimize the cost of executing a query, and the number of atoms is often not indicative of query performance. This is because of many factors, especially the different costs of computing with different source relations (which may be of drastically different cardinalities, have different indexes, etc.).

To illustrate this last point, recall that in Section 2 we had a view maintenance example, where the original view was defined as:
\[
V(x,y) :- R(x,y), R(z,y)
\]
and our updated view could be defined as:
\[
V'(x,y) :- R'(x,y), R'(z,y)
\]
where \( R'(x,y) \) represents \( R(x,y) \cup R^3(x,y) \). The reformulation problem has two materialized views: the original \( V \) in terms of the base \( R \), and \( V' \) (\( R \) after updates are applied, which
we can compute either before or after computing $V'$). If $R^A$ is large, then $V'$ may be most efficient to compute in terms of $R^A$, as specified in the second rule above. Alternatively, if $R^A$ is small, then it may be more efficient to compute $V'$ using and delta rules:

$$V'(x, y) :\leftarrow V(x, y)$$

$$V'(x, y) :\leftarrow R^A(x, z), R(z, y)$$

$$V'(x, y) :\leftarrow R(x, z), R^A(z, y)$$

Note that the latter query has three rules compared to only one in the first case, and five atoms to only two. Yet, intuitively, for small $R^A$s, the second case is more efficient.

In practical DBMS implementations, a cost model [33] predicts query performance given known properties (such as cardinalities) of the input relations. Thus we will seek here an abstract cost model that captures the essence of the detailed models implemented in real optimizers while allowing us to establish finite bounds on the set of possible rewritings for DUCQs using the FOLD+AGUMENT+UNFOLD+CANCEL rules.

Our cost model, $\text{cost}: \mathcal{R}\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, is instance-dependent, and makes use of external calls to a cardinality estimation function, $\text{card}: \mathcal{R}\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, which returns the estimated number of tuples in the result of a subquery (for the current database instance). We define cost inductively on $\mathcal{R}\mathcal{A}$ expressions:

$$\text{cost}(R) = \text{card}(R)$$

$$\text{cost}(\pi E) = \text{cost}(E)$$

$$\text{cost}(\sigma E) = \text{cost}(E)$$

$$\text{cost}(E_1 \cup E_2) = \text{cost}(E_1) + \text{cost}(E_2)$$

$$\text{cost}(E_1 - E_2) = \text{cost}(E_1) + \text{cost}(E_2)$$

$$\text{cost}(E_1 \bowtie E_2) = \text{cost}(E_1) + \text{cost}(E_2) + \text{card}(E_1 \bowtie E_2)$$

This cost model intuitively focuses on the cost of producing new tuples in expensive operations, namely joins and tablescans. (Union in $\mathbb{Z}$-semantics is inexpensive, as it is in bag-semantics; difference in $\mathbb{Z}$-semantics is in fact a union operation that negates counts, and hence it is also inexpensive.) Our cost model essentially computes a lower bound on the amount of work a join must perform: it considers tuple creation cost but ignores the cost of matching tuples. (For an index nested loops join or a hash join, matching is in fact inexpensive, so this is a fairly realistic lower bound.) Our model satisfies the principle of optimality [11] required by a real query optimizer cost model.

The cost model above is based on queries represented as relational algebra expressions (with a specific order of evaluation). However it can be extended to CQs by defining the cost of a CQ as the cost of the cheapest equivalent algebraic expression, and to UCQs and DUCQs by summing the costs of all the CQs in the UCQ or DUCQ. Assuming every source relation is non-empty, a simple observation is that the cost of any CQ is at least equal to the number of atoms in the CQ, and any DUCQ $Q$ has a cost that is at least equal to the number of CQs in $Q$.

Now we can establish a bound on the search space in which we wish to look for rewritings of minimum cost:

**Proposition 4.9 (completeness under cost)** Let $Q \in \text{DUCQ}$, and let $\mathcal{V}$ be a set of DUCQ views. Let $k = \text{cost}(Q)$, and let $w$ be the maximum number of CQs in $Q$ or in a view in $\mathcal{V}$.

---

4 This is in fact done by dynamic programming in real query optimizers.
Assume w.l.o.g. that $Q$ does not contain any view predicates (they can always be removed by applying UNFOLD repeatedly). Then, any DUCQ of minimum cost among those equivalent to $Q$ using $\mathcal{V}$ can be reached from $Q$ in at most $O(kw^k)$ steps of $(FOLD + AUGMENT)$-rewriting.

**Proof** Suppose that $Q'$ is a DUCQ reformulation of $Q$ of minimum cost. Then using our observations above, $Q'$ contains at most $k$ CQs each containing at most $k$ view predicates. We can rewrite $Q'$ into $Q$ by a sequence of $u$ UNFOLD steps (removing all view predicate occurrences), followed by a sequence of $v$ CANCEL steps. (Read in the reverse direction, this will yield a sequence of $v$ AUGMENT steps followed by a sequence of $u$ FOLD steps, rewriting $Q$ into $Q'$.)

Consider a single CQ in $Q'$. We claim that UNFOLD can be applied to it at most $u^k$ times, replacing the single CQ with at most $w^k$ CQs. Doing this for all of the $\leq k$ CQs in $Q'$, we have $u \leq kw^k$ UNFOLD steps, and the result is a DUCQ containing $\leq kw^k$ CQs.

Next, since each application of CANCEL removes 2 CQs, it follows that CANCEL can be applied at most $\lceil kw^k/2 \rceil$ times. Thus, the total length of the sequence rewriting $Q'$ to $Q$ is at most $kw^k + \lceil kw^k/2 \rceil = O(kw^k)$.

This yields a finite bound (which can be effectively computed from $Q$, $\mathcal{V}$, and cost) on the region of the rewrite space that must be explored in order to find a rewriting of minimum cost (for a given instance).

### 5 Finding Query Rewritings

Now that we understand the conditions under which reformulation can be bounded to a finite search space, we develop an enumeration algorithm for exploring the space of possible query reformulations, for the problems of optimizing queries using views, view adaptation, and view maintenance. Recall from Section 2 that the optimizing queries using views problem takes a set of materialized views, plus a query to be reformulated, as input. View adaptation takes a single materialized view (the “old” view definition and materialized instance), with the modified view definition as the query to be reformulated. View maintenance takes the pre-updated view instance and updated versions of the base relations as input views, with the maintained view (i.e., the view computed over the updated base relations) as the query to be reformulated.

#### 5.1 Reformulation Algorithm

Section 4.2 presented four rewrite rules, UNFOLD, CANCEL, AUGMENT and FOLD, which are required for enumerating the space of plans. However, as they are currently specified, they can lead to inefficient exploration. We observe that in isolation AUGMENT can add/subtract arbitrary CQs to the query, regardless of whether this will turn out to be “useful” (by enabling a subsequent FOLD). Hence we do not use AUGMENT directly, but rather define a compound AUGMENT-FOLD operation, which augments the query only with the CQs necessary to perform a FOLD operation with a given view. (The AUGMENT step of AUGMENT-FOLD may be skipped if FOLD can be directly applied to the query.) Additionally, we restrict AUGMENT-FOLD to apply only if there exists at least one rule in common between the query and the view. After applying AUGMENT-FOLD, we may be able to CANCEL some rules introduced into the query. Hence, we will also always apply CANCEL
Algorithm 1 reformulate(query q, set of views V) returns query

1: for each view v in V do
2: \( v := \text{normalize}(v) \)
3: end for
4: Let \( q := \text{normalize}(q) \)
5: Let \( Q := \emptyset \)
6: Let \( F := \{(q, 0)\} \)
7: for each \((q, k)\) in \( F \) do
8: Remove \((q, k)\) from \( F \) and add it to \( Q \)
9: for each \( v \) in \( V \) do
10: Let \( q' := \text{AUGMENT-FOLD-CANCEL}(q, v) \)
11: if \( q' \) not in \( Q \) and not \( \text{prune}(q', k + 1) \) then
12: Add \((q', k + 1)\) to \( F \)
13: end if
14: end for
15: end for
16: return the \( q \) in \( Q \) with lowest cost

after an AUGMENT-FOLD repeatedly until it is no longer applicable. We denote the rule which corresponds to this sequence of AUGMENT-FOLD followed by repeated CANCEL by AUGMENT-FOLD-CANCEL.

Algorithm 1 shows how the UNFOLD, CANCEL, and AUGMENT-FOLD-CANCEL primitives can be composed to enumerate the space of plans. The normalize function (omitted) repeatedly applies UNFOLD and CANCEL to the input query until they are no longer applicable. Next, the main loop simply applies AUGMENT-FOLD-CANCEL to rewrite portions of each “frontier” query \( q \) in \( F \), in terms of any views that overlap with \( q \).

The prune function determines whether the rewritten query \( q' \) should be added to the frontier set, or disregarded during exploration. For the rewrite algorithm to be guaranteed to terminate and find an optimal rewriting according to the cost model, it suffices to define \( \text{prune}(q, k) \) to return \text{true} iff \( k \) is less than the bound given by Proposition 4.9. (In practice, we would add additional heuristics to prune to limit the search space, sacrificing the guarantee of a minimum-cost rewriting.) Once the full space has been explored, reformulate returns the rewriting from \( Q \) with the lowest cost according to our cost model.

5.2 Rewriting in a Query Optimizer

In principle, one could search the space of query rewritings by building a layer above the query optimizer, which enumerates possible rewritings; then separately optimizes each. However, a more efficient approach is to extend an existing optimizer to incorporate the rewriting system into its enumeration. Unlike with rewriting of conjunctive queries, most existing cost-based optimizers cannot easily be extended to DUCQ rewritings. The System-R optimizer [33] only does cost-based optimization of joins, instead relying on heuristics for applying unions and differences. Starburst [20] can rewrite queries with unions and differences, but only at its heuristics-based query rewrite stage. Starburst only has limited facilities for cost-based comparison of alternative rewritings.

Fortunately, the Volcano [14] optimizer generator (as well as its successors) can be modified to incorporate our rewrite scheme within an optimizer. Volcano models a query initially as a plan of logical operators representing the algebraic operations, including unions and differences; it uses transformation rules to describe algebraic equivalences that can be used
to find alternate plans. Implementation rules describe how to rewrite a logical operator (or set of operators) into a series of physical algorithms, which have associated costs.

Our rewrite rules of Section 4.2 can be expressed as transformation rules for Volcano, and we would not need to change any implementation rules. However, we would also need to modify Volcano’s pruning algorithm: we must place a finite bound on the size of the rewritings explored, as with our prune function in the previous subsection.

6 Applications to Bag and Set Semantics

Having obtained a sound and complete algorithm for reformulation of $\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}$ queries using $\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}$ views under $\mathcal{Z}$-semantics, we wish to see for which $\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}$ queries/views this same algorithm actually provides reformulations under bag semantics. Thus we are naturally led to study the following class of queries:

**Definition 6.1** We denote by $\overline{\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}}$ the class of all queries $Q \in \mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}$ such that for all bag-instances $I$, $[Q]_I^I = [Q]_I^Z$.

Right away we see that:

**Lemma 6.2** For any $Q_1, Q_2 \in \overline{\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}}$ we have $Q_1 \equiv_2 Q_2$ iff $Q_1 \equiv_N Q_2$.

**Proof** Straightforward consequence of Lemma 3.6 and the definition of $\overline{\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}}$. □

Then

**Lemma 6.3** If $A, B \in \mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}^+$ then $A - B \in \overline{\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}}$ if and only if $B \subseteq_N A$.

**Proof** “⇒”: suppose $A - B \in \overline{\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}}$ and consider an arbitrary bag-instance $I$ and tuple $t$. Since $[A - B]_{t^I}^I(t) = [A]_{t^I}^I(t) - [B]_{t^I}^I(t) \geq 0$, and by definition, $[A]_{t^I}^Z(t) = [A]_{t^I}^I(t) - [B]_{t^I}^I(t)$, it follows that $[A]_{t^I}^Z(t) \geq [B]_{t^I}^I(t)$. Since $A$ and $B$ are positive queries, by Lemma 3.1, $[A]_{t^N}^N = [A]_{t^I}^I$ and $[B]_{t^N}^N = [B]_{t^I}^I$, and therefore $[A]_{t^N}^N(t) \geq [B]_{t^N}^N(t)$. Since $I$ and $t$ were chosen arbitrarily, it follows that $B \subseteq_N A$.

“⇐”: suppose $B \subseteq_N N$ and consider an arbitrary bag-instance $I$. By Lemma 3.1 $[A]_{t^N}^I = [A]_{t^N}^N$ and $[B]_{t^N}^I = [B]_{t^N}^N$. But since $[B]_{t^N}^N \leq [A]_{t^N}^N$, it follows that $[A - B]_{t^N}^I = [A]_{t^N}^I - [B]_{t^N}^I \geq 0$. Since $I$ was chosen arbitrarily, it follows that $A - B \in \overline{\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}}$. □

**Proposition 6.4** If $Q \in \overline{\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}}$ then DiffNF$(Q) \in \overline{\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}}$ and $Q \equiv_N$ DiffNF$(Q)$.

**Proof** Suppose $Q \in \overline{\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}}$, let DiffNF$(Q) = A - B$ (with $A, B \in \mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}^+$), and choose an arbitrary bag-instance $I$ and tuple $t$. Then $[Q]_{t^I}^I = [Q]_{t^I}^Z(t) = [A - B]_{t^I}^I(t) = [A]_{t^I}^I(t) - [B]_{t^I}^I(t) \geq 0$. It follows that $[A]_{t^I}^Z(t) \geq [B]_{t^I}^I(t)$ and therefore (using Lemma 3.1) that $[A - B]_{t^N}^I(t) = [A]_{t^N}^I(t) - [B]_{t^N}^I(t) \geq 0$. Since $I$ and $t$ were chosen arbitrarily, it follows that $Q \equiv_N A - B$, as required, and also that $B \subseteq_N A$. By Lemma 6.3 this in turn implies that $A - B \in \overline{\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}}$. □

**Corollary 6.5** Bag-equivalence of $\overline{\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}}$ queries is decidable.

Next we show that if we start with a DUCQ in $\overline{\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}}$ and a set of DUCQ views also in $\overline{\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}}$, then the exploration of the space of reformulations prescribed by the algorithm of Section 5 examines only queries in $\overline{\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}}$ which are $\equiv_N$ under the views to the original DUCQ.

Suppose that $\mathcal{V}$ is a set of views in $\overline{\mathcal{R} \mathcal{A}}$ expressed as DUCQs.
Theorem 6.6  If Q and the views in V are DUCQs in \( \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \), then the reformulation algorithm of Section 4.2 is sound and complete with respect to \( \mathbb{N} \)-equivalent \( \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \) reformulations of Q.

Proof  Use Lemmas 6.2 and 6.3 and Proposition 4.3.

Therefore, the reformulation algorithm can be used with \( \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \) queries and views. Unfortunately, but not unexpectedly, it is undecidable whether an \( \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \) query or even a DUCQ is actually in \( \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \) (Lemma 6.3 provides a reduction from bag-containment of UCQs). But there are interesting classes of queries for which membership in \( \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \) is guaranteed. The simplest but still very useful case is based on the observation that \( \mathcal{RA}^+ \subset \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \). It follows that our algorithm is also complete for finding DUCQ reformulations of UCQs using UCQ views, as in the example in Section 2.

Next we identify a subclass of \( \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \) for which, while still undecidable in general, membership may be easier to check in certain cases.

Definition 6.7  We denote by \( \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \) the class of all \( \mathcal{RA} \) queries Q such that for every occurrence \( A - B \) of the difference operator in Q, we have \( B \subseteq \mathbb{N} A \).

Theorem 6.8 (Normalization for \( \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \))  For any Q \( \in \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \), one can find \( A,B \in \mathcal{RA}^+ \) such that Q \( \equiv_{\mathbb{N}} A - B \).

Proof  Straightforward induction on Q, using the same algebraic identities as in Theorem 3.3. Although these identities fail under bag semantics for \( \mathcal{RA} \) queries, they hold for \( \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \) queries.

Corollary 6.9  Bag-equivalence of \( \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \) queries is decidable.

Theorem 6.10  \( \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \subseteq \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \)

Proof  Checking \( \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \subseteq \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \) is a straightforward application of Theorem 6.8. To see that the inclusion is proper, consider the query Q \( \equiv_{\mathbb{N}} (R - (R \cup R)) - (R - (R \cup R)) \). Q is both \( \mathbb{Z} \)-equivalent and \( \mathbb{N} \)-equivalent to the unsatisfiable query \( \emptyset \); it follows that Q is in \( \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \). However, since \( R \cup R \nsubseteq \mathbb{N} R \), it is clear that Q \( \notin \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \).

Although \( \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \) contains queries which are not in \( \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \) (because of their syntactic structure), it turns out that, semantically, \( \mathcal{RA} \) captures \( \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \), as the following theorem makes precise:

Theorem 6.11  For all Q \( \in \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \) there exists Q’ \( \in \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \) such that Q \( \equiv_{\mathbb{N}} Q' \).

Proof  For any Q \( \in \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \), we show that there must exist \( A,B \in \mathcal{RA}^+ \) such that \( B \subseteq \mathbb{N} A \) and Q \( \equiv_{\mathbb{N}} A - B \). Fix a Q \( \in \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \). By Theorem 3.3, there exist \( A,B \in \mathcal{RA}^+ \) such that Q \( \equiv_{\mathbb{Z}} A - B \). We argue by contradiction that \( B \subseteq \mathbb{N} A \). Suppose \( B \subseteq \mathbb{N} A \). Then there exists a bag instance I and tuple t such that \( [A]_{II}^I(t) < [B]_{II}^I(t) \). Then \( [A - B]_{II}^I(t) < 0 \), i.e., \( [A - B]_{II}^I = [Q]_{II}^I \) is not even a bag-instance. However, this is a contradiction, because by assumption (since Q \( \in \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \)), we must have \( [Q]_{II}^I = [Q]_{II}^I \). Finally, we argue that Q \( \equiv_{\mathbb{N}} A - B \). To see this, fix an arbitrary bag instance I. We want to show that \( [Q]_{II}^I = [A - B]_{II}^I \). Since Q \( \in \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \), we have \( [Q]_{II}^I = [Q]_{II}^I \). Since Q \( \equiv_{\mathbb{Z}} A - B \) we have \( [Q]_{II}^I = [A - B]_{II}^I \). Finally, since \( A - B \in \overline{\mathcal{RA}} \), by Theorem 6.10 we have \( [A - B]_{II}^I = [A - B]_{II}^I \). This completes the proof.
Membership in $\mathcal{RA}$ is also undecidable. However in some practical situations, such as incremental view maintenance of $\mathcal{RA}^+$ views using delta rules [19], the difference operator is used in a very controlled way where the containment requirement is satisfied (e.g., it is just necessary for the system to enforce that only tuples actually present in source tables are ever deleted from the sources).

We are also interested in reformulating and answering queries under $\mathbb{Z}$-semantics, but then “eliminating duplicates” to obtain the answer under set semantics. Even for $\mathcal{RA}$ queries, this is not in general straightforward: for example, consider the query $Q = (R \cup R) - R$. Under set semantics, this is equivalent to the unsatisfiable query, while under bag semantics or $\mathbb{Z}$-semantics, it is equivalent to the identity query $R$. We can, however, restrict the use of negation in $\mathcal{RA}$ further, to obtain another fragment of $\mathcal{RA}$ suitable for this purpose.

**Definition 6.12** An $\mathcal{RA}$ query $Q$ over a schema $\Sigma$ is said to be a base-difference query if $A - B$ can appear in $Q$ only when $A$ and $B$ are both base relations (names in $\Sigma$). Further, a base-difference query $Q$ is said to be positive-difference w.r.t. a set-instance $I$ if for each $A - B$ appearing in $Q$ we have $A^I \supseteq B^I$ (where $A^I$ is the relation in $I$ that corresponds to $A \in \Sigma$).

Although the use of negation in base-difference queries considered on instances w.r.t. which they are positive-difference is highly restricted, it still captures the form needed for incremental view maintenance, where negation just relates old and new versions of source relations via the tables of deleted and inserted tuples.

For conversion between bag semantics / $\mathbb{Z}$-semantics and set semantics we also define the duplicate elimination operator $\delta : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$ which maps $0$ to false and everything else (positive or negative) to true. Conversely, we can view any set instance as a bag/$\mathbb{Z}$ instance by replacing false with $0$ and true with $1$. With this we can state the salient property of base-difference queries:

**Proposition 6.13**. Let $Q \in \mathcal{RA}$ be a base-difference query and let $I$ be a set-instance w.r.t. which $Q$ is positive-difference. Then, we can compute $[Q]^I_\Sigma$ under set semantics by viewing $I$ as a $\mathbb{Z}$-instance, computing $[Q]^I_\mathbb{Z}$, and finally applying $\delta$.

Consequently, the optimization techniques in this paper (which replaces a query with a $\mathbb{Z}$-equivalent one) will also apply to set semantics, provided we restrict ourselves to base-difference queries applied to instances w.r.t. which they are positive-difference.

### 7 Built-in Predicates

To this point, our approach to query rewriting has assumed equality predicates only. Clearly, any practical implementation would also consider inequality ($<$, $\leq$) and non-equality ($\neq$) predicates. In this section we discuss the extensions necessary to support such built-in predicates.

We assume our domain $\mathbb{D}$ comes equipped with a dense linear order $<$, and we define $\mathcal{RA}^<$, $\mathcal{RA}^<=, \mathcal{CQ}^<$, etc. as the previously defined classes of queries extended to allow use of the predicates $<$, $\leq$, $=$, and $\neq$. In general, the predicates in a $\mathcal{CQ}^<$ induce only a partial order on the variables. We shall call a $\mathcal{CQ}^<$ total if the predicates in the query induce a total order on the variables, and partial otherwise. To facilitate syntactic comparison of queries we shall assume w.l.o.g. for total $\mathcal{CQ}^<$s that a minimal number of predicate atoms are used, i.e., if the predicates induce the total order $x < y < z$ then the predicate atoms $x < y$ and $y < z$
and no others appear in the query. A UCQ< or DUCQ< is total if all of its CQ<’s are total, and partial if it contains a partial CQ<.

As in [9, 8], we note that a partial CQ< Q can always be converted into an equivalent total UCQ<, denoted lin(Q), that contains one CQ< for each linearization of the partial order on the variables. For example:

\[ Q(x, y) :\text{-} R(x, y), R(y, z), x < y, x \leq z \]

can be rewritten into:

\[
\begin{align*}
Q(x, y) & :\text{-} R(x, y), R(y, z), x = z, x < y \\
Q(x, y) & :\text{-} R(x, y), R(y, z), x < y, y = z \\
Q(x, y) & :\text{-} R(x, y), R(y, z), x < y, y < z \\
Q(x, y) & :\text{-} R(x, y), R(y, z), x < z, z < y
\end{align*}
\]

Likewise a partial UCQ< (DUCQ<) Q can be converted into an equivalent total UCQ< (DUCQ<) lin(Q) by replacing each partial CQ< with its equivalent total UCQ<. Note that if Q is already total, then Q = lin(Q).

**Theorem 7.1** For all Q, Q’ \in UCQ< the following are equivalent:

1. Q \equiv_N Q’
2. Q \equiv_Z Q’
3. lin(Q) \equiv lin(Q’)

**Proof** (2) \(\Rightarrow\) (1) because every bag instance is a Z-instance. (1) \(\Rightarrow\) (3) follows by results of [9]. (3) \(\Rightarrow\) (1) follows from the observation that Q \equiv_Z lin(Q). \(\square\)

**Corollary 7.2** Z-equivalence of R A< queries is decidable and so is bag-equivalence of R A< queries.

This leads to an approach to enumerating rewritings of queries with predicates with respect to views: linearize the queries and views into total UCQs/DUCQs as above and reformulate using the linearized representations. As an optional final step, the reformulated query could then be “de-linearized” to a partial query.

**8 Related Work**

Exact query reformulation using views has been studied extensively, due to its applications in query optimization, data integration, and view maintenance, starting with the papers by Levy et al. [26] and Chaudhuri et al. [4]. The former paper established fundamental results for UCQ< under set semantics. The latter paper considered CQ’s under bag semantics, but it did not provide a complete reformulation algorithm or consider UCQs or UCQ<’s. Cohen, Nutt, and Sagiv [7] considered the problem for CQ’s with aggregate operators and built-in predicates under bag-set semantics, and developed sound and complete reformulation algorithms. In contrast to our term-rewrite system based approach, which considers only equivalent rewritings, their algorithm considers non-equivalent candidate rewritings, using an equivalence check to filter candidates. Afrati and Pavlaki [2] give results on rewriting with views for CQs with safe negation. These queries/views are considered under set semantics.
but their expressive power seems to be incomparable to that of the queries we consider in Proposition 6.13.

The seminal paper by Chandra and Merlin [3] introduced the fundamental concepts of containment mappings and canonical databases in showing the decidability of containment of CQs under set semantics and identifying its complexity as NP-complete. The extension to UCQs is due to Sagiv and Yannakakis [32], where the undecidability of set-equivalence of \(RA\) queries was also established.

The papers by Ioannidis and Ramakrishnan [23] and Chaudhuri and Vardi [5] initiated the study of query optimization under bag semantics. Chaudhuri and Vardi showed that bag-equivalence of CQs is the same as isomorphism and established the \(\Pi_2\)-hardness of checking bag-containment of CQs. Ioannidis and Ramakrishnan showed that bag-containment of UCQs is undecidable. The decidability of bag-equivalence of UCQs can be derived from the results on bag-set semantics in [9,6] and also from results on provenance-annotated semantics (see the discussion in [15]). The decidability of bag-containment of CQs remains open. Recent progress was made on the problem by Jayram, Kolaitis and Vee [24] who established the undecidability of checking bag-containment of CQs with built-in predicates (our CQ’s).

Chaudhuri and Vardi also introduced in [5] the study of bag-set semantics (where source tuple multiplicities are 0 or 1 only, and queries are evaluated under bag semantics), and showed that bag-set equivalence of CQs is the same as isomorphism. This was essentially a rediscovery of a much earlier result due to Lovász [28] (see also [22]). Cohen, Nutt, and Sagiv [8] give decidability results for bag-set equivalence of CQs with comparisons and aggregate operators. Cohen, Sagiv, and Nutt [10] give decidability results for bag-set equivalence of UCQs with comparisons, aggregate operators, and a limited form of negation (only on extensional predicates).

The view adaptation problem was introduced in [18], which gives a case-based algorithm for adapting materialized views under changes to view definitions (under bag semantics). In contrast, our methods apply to view adaptation, but use a more general term rewrite system to develop a sound and complete query reformulation algorithm.

Our \(Z\)-relations appeared in an early form as the deltas in the count incremental view maintenance algorithm for UCQs of [19]. That paper did not consider query equivalence for deltas or make a general study of query reformulation.

9 Conclusions

In this paper we investigated the problem of exact query reformulation using views, when queries and views are given with the full \(RA\) including difference. We introduced \(Z\)-relations, we showed that under \(Z\)-semantics, every \(RA\) query may be expressed as a difference of two \(RA^+\) queries, and we saw that this leads to the decidability of \(Z\)-equivalence of \(RA\) queries. (In contrast, equivalence of \(RA\) queries is undecidable under set or bag semantics). We presented a query reformulation algorithm based on a term rewrite system and saw that it is sound and complete for \(RA\) queries under \(Z\)-semantics. We also saw that query reformulation on \(Z\)-relations allows us to unify in one framework several interesting applications, such as optimizing queries using materialized views, view adaptation, and incremental view maintenance. We studied related complexity questions, and gave conditions under which our techniques can be used to find reformulations under bag semantics and set semantics. Finally, we showed that \(Z\)-equivalence of \(RA\) queries extended with built-in predicates, and bag-equivalence of \(RA^+\) queries with built-in predicates, are also decidable.
As future work, we hope to develop a practical implementation of our reformulation algorithm and evaluate experimentally its effectiveness in view maintenance, adaptation, and optimization.

References