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*Query Reformulation in Multidatabase Systems
using Semantic Knowledge*

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Query Reformulation in Multidatabase Systems using Semantic Knowledge

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Programme 1 — Architectures parallèles, bases de données, réseaux et systèmes distribués
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Abstract: We consider a multidatabase system (MDBMS) with a common object-oriented model, based on the ODMG standard, and local databases that may be relational, object-oriented, or file systems. The MDBMS interface could be different from the union of the local interfaces, and may include views of particular local databases, integrity constraints, and knowledge about data replication in local databases. Query reformulation is made difficult by the variety of semantic knowledge that is used to describe the MDBMS. We present a reformulation algorithm which exploits semantic knowledge, represented as integrity assertions and mapping rules, for semantic rewriting based on pattern-matching. It is general enough to re-use the results of previously computed queries in the MDBMS.

Key-words: Databases

(Résumé : tsvp)

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Reformulation de requêtes dans des systèmes multibases de données à l'aide de connaissances sémantiques

Résumé : Nous considérons un Système Multibase de Données (MDBMS) avec un modèle objet commun, basé sur le standard ODMG, et des bases de données locales qui peuvent être relationnelles ou objets, voire des fichiers. L'interface du MDBMS peut être différente de l'union des interfaces locales, et peut inclure des vues des bases de données locales, des contraintes d'intégrité, et des connaissances concernant la duplication des données. La reformulation de requêtes est compliquée par la diversité des connaissances nécessaires pour décrire le niveau multibase. Nous présentons un algorithme de reformulation qui exploite les connaissances sémantiques, sous forme d'assertions et de règles de traduction pour faire de la réécriture sémantique. Cet algorithme est suffisamment général pour pouvoir ré-utiliser les résultats de requêtes multibases déjà calculées.

Mots-clé : Bases de données

1 Introduction

Recent advances in distributed systems and computer networks have led to a demand for high-level integration of heterogeneous information sources such as databases and file systems. Heterogeneity typically stems from multiple data models (*eg.* relational, object-oriented), different DBMS, and dedicated data servers. Multidatabase systems (MDBMS) should contribute the necessary technology for interoperability of distributed, heterogeneous and autonomous data sources [Özsu91, Sheth90]. A MDBMS must provide transparent access to the participating data sources, which we call *local databases*. To achieve transparency of distribution and heterogeneity, the MDBMS is based on a common data model and language. The ODMG standard [Cattell93], which extends the OMG object-oriented data model [OMG92], provides a good basis for a common integration framework.

We consider a MDBMS which supports the ODMG data model and the Object Query Language (OQL) [Cattell93]. Local databases may be relational or object-oriented databases, or more specialized data sources (*eg.* multi-media servers). A database schema expressed in the ODMG model is called an *interface*. The MDBMS provides a single *MDBMS interface*, and a *local interface* for each database. Since we maintain the autonomy of local databases, which have been developed independently, we cannot insist that the MDBMS interface be restricted to be the union of the local interfaces. In fact, the MDBMS interface may include views over particular local interfaces, since there is no restriction that there be an exact correspondence of MDBMS and local entities.

In this context, multidatabase query processing proceeds along the following steps: reformulating the input OQL query against the MDBMS interface into equivalent OQL queries on the local interfaces; decomposing the reformulated queries into local queries to be evaluated in each of the local databases, and a composite query to be evaluated in the MDBMS level; and then selecting a decomposed query, for which we produce an efficient execution plan. The final step corresponds to optimization, and must use heuristics or a heterogeneous cost model, as in [Du92].

In this paper, we address the first steps of query reformulation and decomposition. They are important for several reasons. First, the MDBMS interface may be different from the union of the multiple local interfaces, and reformulation allows us to obtain queries that we may execute on one or more of the local databases. Second, query reformulation can use semantic knowledge to develop alternate queries, and thus, explore good optimization opportunities. For instance, the fact that data can be replicated in several local databases, and that the results of previous query execution may be stored in the MDBMS for later re-use, can yield alternative ways of computing answers to the same query. Reformulation in this context is more than simply translating the query from the MDBMS to the local interfaces.

To correctly reformulate a query, the MDBMS must know the mapping from the MDBMS interface to the local interfaces. We assume that some mapping information is obtained using schema integration techniques, *eg.*, [Miller93]. An object in the MDBMS interface may not directly correspond to a particular object in the local databases. It is also possible that only selected values from the local interfaces are of interest in the MDBMS interface; for example, the MDBMS may select only employee instances that occur in *all* the local interfaces, or the MDBMS may have a criterion to pick a value from a particular interface. There may also be knowledge on redundancy in the interface descriptions, which may result in data replication in the local databases, and therefore possibilities for alternate reformulations. Finally, there may be integrity constraints in the local or

MDBMS interfaces which allow for query simplification. All this information is *semantic knowledge* which we exploit for query reformulation, and query reformulation is made complex by the variety of the semantic knowledge that must be used to assure the correctness of reformulation, (*i.e.*, the reformulated query produces the expected answer).

Most work in multidatabase query reformulation assumes a restricted language based on SQL or Datalog [Levy95a]. However, many application domains, *eg.*, scientific databases [Buneman95], typically use complex data structures, which cannot be described or queried using Datalog-like languages. The generality of the query language OQL, in our MDBMS environment, allows us to deal with such complex data structures and queries. It also allows us to represent semantic knowledge, expressed as rewrite rules using OQL queries. However, generality increases complexity, and makes reformulation difficult, compared to reformulation with a Datalog-like language [Levy95a].

Our approach to query reformulation relies on the uniform expression of semantic knowledge, as rewrite rules, in a canonical form of the OQL expression. The reformulation algorithm is based on pattern-matching, and uses both syntactic rewriting (to express a query in canonical form), and semantic rewriting (using the semantic knowledge in the form of rewrite rules), to obtain alternate equivalent OQL queries in the local interface. In order to deal the problems caused by OQL's generality, we provide a significant extension of pattern matching for matching OQL expressions. The algorithm also has the flexibility to re-use the results of previously computed queries that may be stored in the MDBMS. Finally, we decompose queries in the local interface into local queries for the local databases, and a composite query.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the multidatabase query processing environment, defines the MDBMS architecture and the multidatabase model and language. It precisely defines the problem of heterogeneous query reformulation and includes an example describing some alternative reformulations. Section 3 defines the necessary semantic knowledge, in terms of integrity assertions and mapping rules. Section 4 presents the query reformulation algorithm, which uses syntactic rewriting and semantic rewriting, based on pattern-matching, and Section 5 describes query decomposition. Section 6 shows our experiments for query reformulation, within the *Flora* compiler/optimizer for the ODMG data model and query language. We conclude by comparing with related research in this area.

2 The Multidatabase Environment

Our multidatabase environment consists of a common data model and common query language to provide transparent access to multiple, heterogeneous databases. We present our assumptions wrt the MDBMS architecture, and then define the query reformulation problem for this environment.

2.1 The Common Data Model

The multidatabase model and language used to describe each local database is based on the ODMG standard [Cattell93]. We introduce the main elements of the object data model and query language (with minor changes) which are necessary for the rest of the paper.

The object data model is based on a type system. Types can be atomic or constructed. The set of the atomic types is the union of the set of predefined types, such as integer, boolean, string, and the particular set of object types added by the application. Type constructors are the set, bag, list and tuple. Type expressions are constructed from atomic types, through the recursive application of type constructors.

Object types are described in the data model through an object interface. An object interface specifies the attributes, relationships and methods that are characteristic to the instances of this object type. A relationship is a reference-valued attribute of the object type. An object interface, as it is defined in the ODMG model allows the declaration of a key constraint and the declaration of inverse

links between object types. However, we support more general integrity constraints on object types. These integrity constraints play an important role in query reformulation.

The object types are organized along a subtype hierarchy. All the attributes, relationships and methods defined on a supertype are inherited by the subtype. Furthermore, the instances of a subtype satisfy all integrity constraints defined on its supertype. Object type extensions¹ can be explicitly named in the object type interface, in which case they are automatically maintained.

The set of operators includes built-in operators, user-defined functions and user-defined methods. The built-in operators are comparison and arithmetic operators, aggregation operators (*eg.*, count, min, max, sum, avg), set operators (*eg.*, union, except, intersect, flatten, element), list operators (*eg.*, append, first, last, nth), set membership operator (in). Special built-in operators are value constructors (*eg.*, set, bag, list and tuple constructors), field selection, quantifiers and select.

An object database is accessed through the set of *named variables* which define the entry points of the database. Named variables are used as handles for data of any type (integer, objects, set of any type, *etc.*). Named variables are persistent, (their name and value is maintained in the catalog), and can be referred to by any query. Particular named variables are associated with extensions of object types that are automatically maintained. A *database interface*² consists of a set of object type interfaces, and a set of named variables (with their types). In the MDBMS environment, we assume that there is a MDBMS interface and a local interface for each local database.

2.2 The Common Query Language

The common query language used for expressing queries is OQL, a nonprocedural, functional-like language, allowing the database content exploration and function application. OQL *queries* corresponding to an interface are well-typed expressions constructed in this interface. Given an interface, OQL *expressions* constructed in this interface are syntactically constructed by a recursive application of user-defined and built-in functions, starting with constants and variables. Each OQL expression has an associated type. During reformulation, we assume that OQL expressions are well-typed, since type checking precedes query reformulation.

Definition 2.1 *OQL Expression* An OQL expression over a set of variables X is recursively defined as follows:

<i>expr</i> :	<i>const</i>	(constants)
	<i>var</i>	(variables from X)
	<i>lambda_var</i>	(if inside of a select or quantifier)
	$f([expr [, expr]^*])$	(function application) ³
	$expr.method_name()$	(method call)
	$expr.field_name$	(field selection) ⁴
	$[field_name = expr [, field_name = expr]^*]$	(tuple constructor)
	$set([expr [, expr]^*])$	(set constructor)
	$bag([expr [, expr]^*])$	(bag constructor)
	$list([expr [, expr]^*])$	(list constructor)
	$select [distinct] expr$	
	$from lambda_var in expr [, lambda_var in expr]^*$	
	$[where expr]$	(selection)
	$exists lambda_var in expr : expr$	(existential quantifier)
	$for\ all\ lambda_var\ in\ expr : expr$	(universal quantifier)

Then, an OQL *query* is defined as follows:

¹An extension is the set of all instances of a given object type and its subtypes.

²In the rest of this paper we will refer to a database schema as an interface.

³We allow the application of any built-in or user-defined function, of any arity, in prefix or infix notation.

⁴In order to ease the syntax, we unify the notation for accessing a field of an object (usually noted by an arrow) and accessing a field of a tuple.

Definition 2.2 *OQL Query*

An *OQL query against a database interface* is a well-typed *OQL expression* over the set of named variables of this interface. The answer of an *OQL query* in a given state of a database is the result of the evaluation of the corresponding expression in this state of the database.

An *OQL query* is more general than a select expression in SQL. However, the *OQL select* is a built-in n-ary operator of particular importance, and we expect most of the queries to be expressed in this form. The expressions corresponding to each input collection, the predicate, and the projection of a select-from-where expression, may all be general *OQL expressions*. As a consequence, *OQL* allows navigation (following object identifiers), nested selects, dependent joins, quantified predicates and user-defined functions or methods to appear in all clauses of the select operator.

A variable defined in the from clause of a select expression or in a quantified expression (forall or exists) is called a lambda variable. The collection-valued expression associated with a lambda variable is called its domain. Compared to a variable in a general programming language, a lambda variable has particular semantics. The value of a lambda variable is restricted to range over the value of the associated set expression and its lifetime is that of the expression (select or quantifier) which defines it. The specific constructors of *OQL* for expressions, mainly the select and the quantifiers, strongly impacts our query reformulation which is based on pattern-matching.

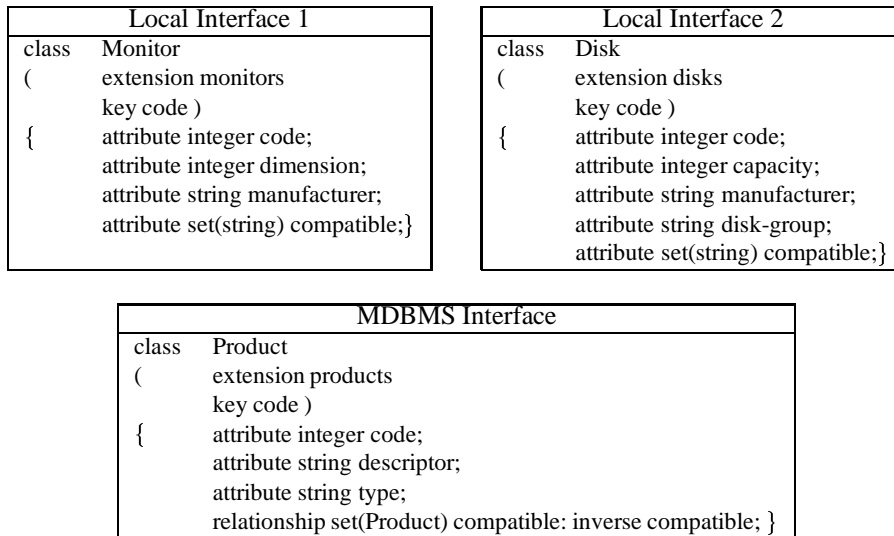
2.3 Example

Figure 1: MDBMS and Local Interfaces

Figure 1 is a simple example MDBMS interface that describes products from two local databases. Local interfaces 1 and 2 describe monitors and disks, respectively. Each Monitor (Disk) has a code (unique key) and manufacturer attribute. A monitor has an attribute dimension whereas a disk has an attribute capacity. These interfaces also describe compatibility of disks and monitors with each other. Each disk is described by an attribute disk-group which is used to specify its compatibility with monitors. Attribute compatible of class Monitor is set-valued and its values range over the *domain of the attribute disk-group* of class Disk. Attribute compatible of class Disk is also set-valued, but its values range over the *domain of values of attribute manufacturer* of class Monitor. Thus, although compatibility is replicated in the two interfaces, the structures themselves are dissimilar.

Class Product in the MDBMS interface integrates the common attributes of Monitor and Disk which are code, manufacturer and compatible. A new attribute type indicates whether a product is a monitor or a disk, and attribute descriptor could be either the dimension or the capacity, respectively. Further, in the MDBMS interface, the compatibility information is not based on the disk's disk-group or monitor's manufacturer data, but is instead represented by the codes of the compatible products. Thus the MDBMS interface is a view over the union of the local interfaces. In addition, attribute compatible is specified to be an inverse relationship in the MDBMS interface. Each interface has particular named variables products, monitors, and disks, corresponding to the extensions of the classes Product, Monitor, and Disk, respectively. Each interface is simple, but we are able to include a variety of semantic knowledge, and this is described in the next section.

Consider the following query, expressed against the global schema, which will be used to describe reformulation and decomposition in this paper:

Example 2.1 Select the code and description of all HP disks which are compatible with some 19 inch monitor. The input OQL query is the following:

```
Q1:      select [code:=x.code, descriptor:=x.descriptor]
         from x in products
         where x.type="disks" and x.manufacturer like "HP" and
              (exists y in x.compatible : y.type="monitor" and y.descriptor like "19 inch")
```

In this OQL query, *products* is a named variable corresponding to the extent of class Product, in the MDBMS interface, *x* is a lambda variable ranging over the set-valuated expression *products* and *y* is a lambda variable ranging over the set-valuated expression *x.compatible*. The variable *products* acts as a global variable, the lifetime of the lambda variable *x* is the select expression, and the lifetime of the lambda variable *y* is the expression following the semicolon. This query in the example 2.1 is an OQL expression constructed in the MDBMS interface.

2.4 Architectural Assumptions

Our MDBMS architecture is object-oriented as in [Ahmed91] or [Carey95]. The multidatabase consists of several autonomous heterogeneous local databases. Each local database is accessed through a *wrapper* [Carey95] which provides to the global level an interface describing the local data in the common data model. The wrapper is also responsible for translating queries, expressed in the multidatabase language, into the native query language, (*eg.*, SQL for a relational database).

We make several assumptions about the MDBMS environment. First, the local databases may store data about the same entities from the real world. But, since each of the local databases is developed independently, data corresponding to the same entity may be structured differently in two different databases. The MDBMS interface may represent an integrated view over these dissimilar local databases, or it may include a view defined over the union of the local interfaces, *eg.*, Product is defined over both Disk and Monitor.

Second, the data in the local databases can contain information about the same objects in the real world (data redundancy). Due to autonomy of the local databases, although data can overlap, this data may not be identical in the different databases, since the two local interfaces may be quite different. In our schema, the data on compatible products is redundant in both local databases, and for simplicity it is stored in a similar structure.

Third, there is no data in the MDBMS level. As previously noted, the global object types defined in the MDBMS interface are virtual, and they do not have instances. However, we assume that the results of previously computed queries may be stored and later reused during query processing. The problem of maintaining consistency of these stored queries, while data may be updated in the local databases, is not addressed in this paper. We note that there is extensive previous research on maintaining views, in a DBMS, and this is a similar problem. Further, there are many obvious benefits

to partially instantiate and maintain data for complex objects, in the MDBMS interface, when one considers the possible costs of accessing data from remote servers.

Fourth, for the sake of autonomy, we assume that there is no sharing of object identifiers, either between the MDBMS and the local databases, nor between multiple local databases. An object cannot directly reference another object in a different database, and all such references must be value-based (eg., based on key information).

Fifth, we do not allow methods, eg., written in a general programming language such as C++, in the MDBMS interface. To support methods in the MDBMS interface, we would need to either utilize a procedure to translate from a combination of a general programming language and data structures, in the MDBMS interface, to the local interface. Alternately, we would first instantiate all objects in the MDBMS interface and then compute the method.

Under these architectural assumptions, query processing in the MDBMS level is as follows. A query is expressed in the common query language against the MDBMS interface. The MDBMS query processor first represents this query in a canonical form, (to be discussed later). Then, it reformulates the canonical input query into a set of queries, (in the canonical form), against the union of the local interfaces. Second, each of these reformulated queries is decomposed into a set of local subqueries, each corresponding to one local database, and a composite query which re-groups the local answers, in the MDBMS level.

Each of the previous steps can lead to several alternatives. The reformulation process can produce several reformulated queries, each of these representing a possible way to compute the expected answer. There are several alternatives to compute the answer, because data may be replicated in the local databases, and because previously computed answers may be re-used. For each reformulated query, several decompositions are possible. A heterogeneous distributed cost model is needed to decide the best reformulated query, and the best decomposition for it. In this paper we only discuss obtaining the choices for the reformulated query, and obtaining the composite query and subqueries, (i.e., creating the search space). We do not address the problem of selecting the best evaluation using a heterogeneous cost model.

A simple plan for the evaluation of a composite query is as follows: each local subquery is independently processed by the corresponding wrapper, which translates it into the local query language. The local subqueries may be executed in parallel in the local databases. After executing all the local subqueries, the composite query is computed at the MDBMS level to combine the local results. Alternately, a more sophisticated evaluation strategy for the composite query and the local subqueries can be determined, using semi-join type optimization techniques, etc. However, query reformulation and query decomposition are independent of the actual evaluation plan.

The task of query reformulation in the MDBMS architecture can be stated as follows: given a well-typed input query against the MDBMS interface, and some semantic knowledge describing the state of the MDBMS environment, the reformulation task produces a set of well-typed queries against the union of the local interfaces, which are equivalent to the input query.

In a single database, *query equivalence* is defined as the property that two queries evaluate to the same value (produce the same results), in a particular state of this database. In a MDBMS environment, query equivalence is more complicated, since the input and the output queries are expressed against different interfaces, and are evaluated on different databases. Further, the MDBMS interface does not contain any data. Thus, we cannot determine the equivalence of the input and the reformulated queries by simply executing them. Our solution is to use semantic knowledge, describing the data in the MDBMS environment, during the reformulation process. Semantic knowledge is expressed using rewrite rules stored in the multidatabase catalog, and are assumed to be valid, for example, they *define* the mapping from the MDBMS interface to the local interfaces. We use a pattern-match based rewrite algorithm, using these valid rewrite rules, to produce the set of reformulated queries, which are then equivalent to the input query.

2.5 Examples of Query Reformulation and Decomposition

We now present some examples of reformulated queries for the input global query given in Example 2.1. When a reformulated query is to be evaluated against more than one local database, then we represent the reformulated query as a nested query. The inner select-from-where OQL expressions, (or select-expressions, for short), are the subqueries, each constructed against a local interface. The outer select-expression is constructed in the MDBMS interface, and is the composite query, and represents the regrouping of the final results at the MDBMS level.

Both databases must be accessed to identify HP disks and 19 inch monitors. However, our semantic knowledge includes a constraint in the local interfaces, about replication of the compatible products in the two databases, as well as other relevant integrity constraints. Thus, there are several ways in which we can evaluate this query.

One possibility is to select the disk-group of products (disks) that are compatible with 19 inch monitors, from one database, and select products that are HP disks from the other database. Then, based on the value of the disk-group attribute of the HP disks, we can determine if these are indeed compatible products, and thus, restrict the answer to compatible HP disks. The first nested subquery retrieves the set of disk-group values of products that are compatible with some 19 inch monitor, the set F1, from local database #1. The second nested subquery retrieves the code F2, descriptor (locally capacity), and the value of the disk-group attribute F4, of all HP disks, from local database #2. The composite query, (evaluated at the MDBMS level), restricts the final answer to the code and descriptor of all the HP disks (retrieved in the second nested subquery), whose disk-group (value of F2) occurs in the result of the first nested subquery (in the set F1).

```
A1:  select distinct [code:=y.F2, descriptor:=y.F3]
      from x in (select distinct [F1:=z.compatible]
                from z in monitors
                where z.dimension like "19 inch"),
      y in (select distinct [F2:=a.code, F3:=a.capacity, F4:=a.disk-group]
            from a in disks
            where a.manufacturer like "HP")
      where y.F4 in x.F1
                                     /* local database #1 */
                                     /* local database #2 */
```

Due to replication of compatible information about the products, a second possibility is to select the manufacturer of all 19 inch monitors, from one database, and retrieve HP disks and the set of manufacturers of their compatible products from the other. Then, we restrict our answer to those HP disks, where the set of compatible (manufacturer) values include the manufacturer of a 19 inch monitor. The first nested subquery retrieves the manufacturer, (F1), of all 19 inch monitors, from local database #1. The second nested subquery retrieves the the code, descriptor (locally capacity), and the set of values of attribute compatible (manufacturer values), the set F4, for each HP disk, from local database #2. The MDBMS composite query restricts the answer to those HP disks in the second subquery, whose set of compatible manufacturers (set F4) includes a manufacturer that occurs in the result of the first nested subquery (a value of F1).

```
A2:  select distinct [code:=y.F2, descriptor:=y.F3]
      from x in (select distinct [F1:=a.manufacturer]
                from a in monitors
                where a.dimension like "19 inch"),
      y in (select [F2:=c.code, F3:=c.capacity, F4:=c.compatible]
            from c in disks
            where c.manufacturer like "HP")
                                     /* local database #1 */
                                     /* local database #2 */
```

where x.F1 in y.F4

Further, suppose that the result for the following query Q2, that selects the code of all products that are compatible with some 19 inch monitors, has already been computed, and the result is stored at the MDBMS level. It is possible to compute Q1 using Q2.

```
Q2:  select x.code
      from x in Product
      where exists y in x.compatible: (y.type="monitor" and y.descriptor like "19 inch")
```

Query Q2 has already computed the code of all products that are compatible with some 19 inch monitors, and this is useful for Q1. However, Q2 does not include the descriptor of such compatible products, to determine if they are HP disks, and this information is in database #2. The first nested subquery retrieves the codes already stored in Q2. A second nested subquery, executed on local database #2, retrieves the code, (set F1) and descriptor, of all HP disks. The composite MDBMS query restricts the final answer to the code and descriptor of all the disks in the second nested subquery, whose code (value of F1) occurs in the result of the first nested subquery.

```
A3:  select distinct [code:=y.F1, descriptor:=y.F2]
      from x in Q2,                               /* previous query */
      y in (select distinct [F1:=d.code, F2:=d.capacity
                           from d in disks         /* local database #2 */
                           where d.manufacturer like "HP"])
      where x=y.F1
```

To summarize, A1 obtains the disk-group values of products compatible with 19 inch monitors from database #1, and determines if they match the disk-group value of HP disks; A2 obtains manufacturers of products compatible with HP disks from database #2, and determines if they match manufacturers of 19 inch monitors; A3 gets codes of products compatible with 19 inch monitors from query Q2, and then determines if they match the code of HP disks.

3 Semantic Knowledge

The semantic knowledge in the MDBMS catalog describes the properties of data stored in the local databases and defines the “data”⁵ in the MDBMS interface. This knowledge includes the mappings between the MDBMS interface and the local interfaces, the integrity constraints satisfied in the MDBMS environment, and information about data replication in local databases. Information about the previously computed queries, whose answers are stored at the MDBMS level, and are similar to views, are also stored temporarily in the MDBMS catalog.

Research in schema integration techniques, as described in [Ahmed91, Kim93, Miller93], all provide different sources for semantic knowledge. In our architecture, this knowledge is uniformly expressed using the OQL query language, which is expressive enough to represent the variety of knowledge involved. Using a single representation also allows us to provide a uniform basis for query reformulation using this semantic knowledge.

3.1 Integrity Constraints

There are several categories of integrity constraints, including integrity constraints (which are satisfied) in each of the local databases, integrity constraints across several local databases which describe data replication, and integrity constraints (satisfied by the view) in the MDBMS interface. All provide alternatives for query reformulation. Thus, in the previous example, knowledge about

⁵Recall that the MDBMS does not contain actual instances for object types in the MDBMS interface.

data replication of compatible products, in the local databases, was used to choose different ways to compute a query in these databases. We represent these integrity constraints in a declarative manner, as a set of *assertions*, defined as follows:

Definition 3.1 *Assertion*

An assertion is a first order logic formula of the form:

$$[\text{forall } [< \text{variable_declaration } >]^*] \quad E_1 \sim E_2$$

where a variable declaration is either:

$$< \text{var_name} > \text{ of type } < \text{type_expression} > \quad (1)$$

or

$$< \text{var_name} > \text{ of type } < \text{type_expression} > \text{ in } < \text{set_expression} > \quad (2)$$

and E_1 and E_2 are well-formed OQL expressions and are allowed to use the variables from X , as well as the named variables in the global interface and the local interface.. It is denoted by (X, E_1, E_2) , where X is the set of quantified variables.

We allow variable quantification over a type, as in (1), or over a particular collection, as in (2), *eg.*, x in monitors, where monitors is the extent of user-defined type Monitor. In (2), the variables are restricted, and the associated set-expression is the restriction domain. The type of a restricted variable can be induced from the type of the associated set-expression, and so the type is omitted.

An assertion is *valid* in a particular state of the MDBMS environment, if for each correct instantiation of the variables from X , the two expressions evaluate to the same value. An *instantiation* for the variables X is a mapping from each variable x in X to a value in the domain⁶ of the type of x . An instantiation is *correct* if the value associated with every restricted variable belongs to the corresponding restriction domain.

We now give examples of particular assertions. When both expressions E_1, E_2 in an assertion are constructed in the same interface, the assertion express an integrity constraint verified in the corresponding database. If the expression E_1 is constructed in a local interface 1 and E_2 is constructed in a local interface 2, the assertion describes the data replication in local database 1 and 2.

Example 3.1 *Integrity constraints in one local interface.* Here, both E_1 and E_2 are queries constructed in the same local interface.

- The attribute code is a key for the object type Monitor in the interface #1:
for all x : Monitor and y : Monitor $x.\text{code}=y.\text{code} \sim x=y$

Example 3.2 *Integrity constraints in the MDBMS interface.* Here, both E_1 and E_2 are constructed in the MDBMS interface.

- The relationship compatible defined the object type Product is its inverse relationship:

$$\text{for all } x:\text{Product and } y:\text{Product} \quad x \text{ in } y.\text{compatible} \sim y \text{ in } x.\text{compatible}$$

- A product is either a disk or a monitor:

$$\text{products} \sim \text{union}((\text{select } x \text{ from } x \text{ in products where } x.\text{type}=\text{"disk"}), \\ (\text{select } y \text{ from } y \text{ in products where } y.\text{type}=\text{"monitor"}))$$

- A monitor is compatible only with a disk, and vice versa:

$$\text{for all } x:\text{Product and } y:\text{Product} \\ x.\text{type}=\text{"monitor"} \text{ and } y \text{ in } x.\text{compatible} \sim y.\text{type}=\text{"disk"} \text{ and } x \text{ in } y.\text{compatible}$$

⁶The domain of a type is the set of possible values.

Example 3.3 *Integrity Constraint across several local interfaces.* Here both E_1 and E_2 may be constructed in several local interfaces. Data replication in the local databases is a particular case of such an integrity constraint. This is represented as the equivalence of two queries, evaluated in two different local databases, and which give the same answer. So, the same information is stored in both local databases, but it may be structured in different ways in each database.

- The compatibility information for disks and monitors is stored in both local databases:

for all x : Monitor and y : Disk

$y.\text{disk-group in } x.\text{compatible} \sim x.\text{manufacturer in } y.\text{compatible}$

Since OQL is an expressive query language, we are able to express and utilize a rich set of integrity constraints, wrt the complex data structures of the common object model, in comparison to knowledge used in [Arens93, Carey95, Levy95a].

During reformulation, the assertions are used as rewrite rules. Given a set W of assertions, describing the MDBMS environment, then, the set $R(W)$ of rewrite rules induced from W is as follows:

$$R(W) = \{(X, E_1 \Rightarrow E_2) \mid (X, E_1, E_2) \in W\} \cup \{(X, E_2 \Rightarrow E_1 \mid (X, E_1, E_2) \in W\} \quad (1)$$

The correctness of the rewriting, or that the input query is equivalent to the output query, while using a particular rewrite rule, is ensured by the validity of the corresponding assertion.

We address verifying the validity of assertions as follows: when the two queries of an assertion are constructed in the same local interface, or constructed in more than one local interface, (representing an integrity constraint across several local databases), then these equivalences could be verified by evaluating particular queries in the local databases. We assume that each local database is responsible for maintaining local integrity constraints. Further, if a rewrite rule expresses an integrity constraint in the MDBMS interface, then it cannot be verified directly, since the MDBMS database interface does not contain data. However, it is possible to verify a particular integrity constraint in the MDBMS interface, if we assume that all other assertions are valid in the MDBMS interface. We would reformulate the queries in the assertion that is to be verified, and obtain corresponding queries to be verified in the local interface(s).

3.2 Mapping Between the MDBMS Interface and the Local Interfaces

The mapping from the MDBMS interface to the local interface is semantic knowledge that is provided by the user. We use *rewrite rules* to specify this mapping. These rules define the MDBMS environment and are assumed to be valid. They will not be verified.

Definition 3.2 *Mapping Rule*

A mapping rule is a rewrite rule of the form:

$$Q_1 \Rightarrow Q_2 \quad (2)$$

where Q_1 is a well-formed OQL query in the MDBMS interface, and Q_2 is a well-formed OQL query in the union of the local interfaces and the MDBMS interface.

The query Q_1 , against the MDBMS interface, can be computed by evaluating the query Q_2 , in the local and MDBMS interfaces.

Example 3.4 The information about products of type disk are obtained from database #2.

<pre>select [code:=x.code, descriptor:=x.descriptor, manufacturer:=x.manufacturer, compatible:=x.compatible] from x in products where x.type="disk"</pre>	⇒	<pre>select [code:=y.code, descriptor:=y.capacity, manufacturer:=y.manufacturer, compatible:=(select z from z in products where exists t in monitors : (t.code=z.code and t.manufacturer in y.compatible))] from y in disks</pre>
--	---	--

Our approach to specifying these mappings is similar to the concept of virtual classes, proposed in [Abiteboul91]. We extend their approach to represent object references, or a relationship in the ODMG data model. The general form of a mapping rule is that Q_1 and Q_2 are queries. Thus, Q_1 may be a view definition in the MDBMS interface. Furthermore, Q_2 may involve the MDBMS interface in addition to the local interfaces. If the query Q_1 projects only values, then query Q_2 can be constructed in the local interfaces only.

However, Q_1 may project a relationship which refers to another object in the MDBMS interface. For example, the set $x.compatible$ represents the set of products in the MDBMS interface compatible with product x . Since object identifiers are not shared between the MDBMS and the local databases, we cannot explicitly map an object in the MDBMS interface with some corresponding entity in the local databases. To map this relationship between objects in the MDBMS interface, the mapping may use a key constraint in some local database to obtain the values for the fields of an object in the MDBMS interface. In the example, product z is linked to a monitor t through a key constraint. Thus, in this case, the query Q_2 is defined in both the MDBMS interface and the local interface. Using the common object model and OQL, we are able to express complex mapping rules about complex data structures, *eg.*, a product in the MDBMS interface must have at least 3 compatible products, *etc.* In this paper, we do not use examples of such complex constraints.

4 Query Reformulation

This section presents our approach to query reformulation. We first present an overview of query reformulation, emphasizing the difficulty presented by the expressiveness and complexity of OQL queries. Then, we present the query reformulation algorithm, which uses syntactic rewriting, and semantic rewriting based on pattern-matching.

4.1 Overview

The objective of query reformulation is to transform an input query into equivalent queries, each corresponding to an alternative way of computing the result. We previously defined the *equivalence* of two queries, in a particular database state, as the condition that they evaluate to the same result. But this general condition is difficult to prove, without actually executing the queries. Given some semantic knowledge, we say that two queries are *semantically equivalent* if they evaluate to the same result, in each particular database state which is described by the semantic knowledge. We express this semantic knowledge as a set of rewrite rules, and our reformulation algorithm uses these rewrite rules to correctly produce the equivalent queries.

Previous work on rule-based query rewriting, in centralized databases, [Chaudhuri93], or heterogeneous databases, [Levy95b], is based on Datalog-like languages. The expressive power of OQL expressions makes semantic knowledge expressed as OQL rewrite rules much more expressive than Datalog-like rewrite rules. But, on the other hand, query rewriting of OQL expressions becomes much more complex than with Datalog queries.

The main problem in OQL query reformulation is that an OQL expression can be written in several syntactically dissimilar ways. We say that two expressions are *logically equivalent*, if they evaluate to the same result, in *all* states of the database. During query reformulation using pattern matching, it is important to identify these logically equivalent expressions. Otherwise, a pattern matching procedure may determine that two expressions Q_1 and Q_2 do not match, although there may be an expression Q_3 , which is logically equivalent to Q_2 , and which matches Q_1 . The generality of OQL queries increases the number of dissimilar ways in which an expression can be written. For example, a select-expression can also be written as a nested select-expression, a dependent join can also be written as a logically equivalent independent join, a select-expression using navigation can be rewritten using an explicit join, *etc.* Such problems do not arise with Datalog-like queries.

Our solution to this problem is to require all select-expressions to be placed in a canonical form. We have specified several properties of this canonical form, which covers the most commonly used syntactic variations in OQL.

Another problem occurs while matching OQL select-expressions. Even if two select-expressions, Q_1 and Q_2 , in canonical form, are not found to be a match, it may be possible to rewrite Q_1 as a nested query Q_3 , which contains Q_2 as a subexpression. Thus, the rewriting algorithm must be able to detect that a select-expression is a subexpression of another select-expression. Consequently, rewriting of OQL queries is not straightforward.

In this section, we present our solution to query reformulation. For an input query expressed in the MDBMS interface, and some semantic knowledge, in the form rewrite rules, we produce a set of semantically equivalent queries, in the canonical form, expressed in the union of the local interfaces. The query reformulation algorithm consists of a *syntactic rewriting* to place the input query in the canonical form, followed by a *semantic rewriting* using the rewrite rules. A key aspect of semantic rewriting is the pattern matching algorithm for OQL expressions. The algorithm is general enough to solve the problem of answering queries using a materialized view, and this increases the alternatives explored during query reformulation.

The declarative nature of the rewrite rules eases the specification of semantic knowledge in the MDBMS environment. Since each rule describes an independent transformation, it would be simple to associate a cost benefit with a particular transformation, and use this as a first step in selecting the best reformulation. But there is a potential trade-off between ease of expressibility of the rule language and efficiency of the rewriting. The complexity of the rewrite algorithm, given an input query and a rewrite rule is, in the worst case, exponential in the size (number of collections in the from clause) of the input query. Given the fact that the size of OQL queries is typically limited to a few collections, the algorithm is quite efficient in practice. See section 6 for details.

In the rest of this section, we describe query reformulation in detail. In section 6, we describe our experiences implementing this reformulation algorithm, and we present a complete example of query reformulation.

4.2 Syntactic Query Rewriting

Syntactic query rewriting produces a canonical form representation, for an OQL select-subexpression in the input query, or a select-subexpression of any expression in the rewrite rules.

In order to solve the problem of syntactically dissimilar, but logically equivalent expressions, it would be enough to find a *canonical form* for an OQL select-expression Q such that two expressions Q_1 and Q_2 are logically equivalent if and only if their canonical form is identical. Specifying such a canonical form is an extremely hard problem. In order to solve all syntactical dissimilarities, one must integrate **all** the algebraic properties of the built-in operators and user-defined methods (*eg.*, the commutativity of the addition operator, the associativity of the intersection operator, the distributivity of the select over the union, the neutral element of the empty set for the union operator, *etc.*).

Our solution is to find a relaxed canonical form, which may not detect *all* syntactical dissimilarities⁷ for a query. We define the canonical form of a select-expression as the logically equivalent select-expression satisfying the following properties:

- the subexpression corresponding to the predicate in the where clause is in conjunctive normal form;
- existential quantifiers in the predicate of the where clause are eliminated, whenever possible;
- there are no nested select-expressions in the from clause;
- particular cases of nested select-expressions occurring in the where clause are eliminated; examples are testing membership in the result of a nested select-expression, or testing that the result of a nested select-expression is empty;

⁷This would depend on the completeness of the compiler with regard to all the possible algebraic properties of the operators and methods.

- any dependencies that may exist between different collections in the from clause are eliminated, whenever possible;
- navigation within complex objects (the so-called functional joins) is transformed into explicit joins whenever possible;
- if it is possible to deduce, based on the key, that the result cannot contain duplicates, then the **distinct** clause is explicitly introduced in the select-expression.

The compiler used during reformulation includes a built-in rewrite rule for each of the previous transformations, and an OQL select-expression is converted to its canonical form by applying these syntactic rewrite rules, in any order, until saturation. Appendix 1 gives examples of the most important syntactic rewrite rules.

A set of syntactic rules may not be complete, *i.e.*, they may not capture all the algebraic properties of the OQL operators. However, the above properties enable us to identify almost all of the commonly used syntactic variations of OQL, so that two logically equivalent queries will be identical. The set of the syntactic rewrite rules used by the compiler is not fixed, and it can be easily extended by including new rewrite rules.

4.3 Semantic Query Rewriting

Given an OQL query in its canonical form, semantic query rewriting produces semantically equivalent queries by applying the rewrite rules. It uses a pattern matching rewriting algorithm which, for a given OQL expression and a rewrite rule, produces a set of semantically equivalent OQL expressions, (in canonical form).

A *substitution* for the set of variables $X=\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a finite ordered set θ of the form $\{v_1/e_1, \dots, v_n/e_n\}$, where each e_i is an OQL expression distinct from v_i , but with the same type as v_i . The substitution θ is *correct* if for each restricted variable v_i the corresponding expression e_i is a lambda variable verifying the property that the domain of e_i is exactly the domain restriction of v_i . Let $\theta = \{v_1/e_1, \dots, v_n/e_n\}$ be a substitution, and E be an OQL expression. Consider the expressions E_0, E_1, \dots, E_n , where $E_0=E$ and E_i is obtained from E_{i-1} by replacing each occurrence of variable v_i in E_{i-1} by e_i . E_n is called *the instance of E by the substitution θ* , and it is denoted by $E\theta$.

An OQL expression E_1 *matches* another expression E_2 , if there exists a substitution, θ , such that $E_1\theta=E_2$. Substitution is the basis for derivation of OQL expressions which we define as follows:

Definition 4.1 Derivation of OQL expressions

Given two OQL expressions E and E' , and a rewrite rule $r=(X, L \Rightarrow R)$, E' is derived from E , by applying rule r ; if there exists a variable y_0 , distinct from X , and an OQL expression E_0 , such that there is at most one occurrence of y_0 in E_0 , and a correct substitution θ for the variables in X , such that $((E_0\theta_1)\theta)$ is logically equivalent to E , and $((E_0\theta_2)\theta)$ is logically equivalent to E' , where $\theta_1 = \{y_0/L\}$ and $\theta_2 = \{y_0/R\}$.

Given an input OQL expression E , and a rewrite rule $r=(X, L \Rightarrow R)$, the computation of the set of OQL expressions which may be derived from E by applying the rule r works as follows. We first identify a subexpression E_1 of the expression E which corresponds to an occurrence of the left-hand side, L , r , and substitute the subexpression E_1 with the right-hand side, R , of r . Further, we must guarantee that the application of r is sound, (*i.e.*, the resulting expression does not contain any variable from X of r). Depending on whether L of r is a select-expression or not, we have two different cases of the algorithm.

The case where L is *not* a select-expression is simple and we describe it as follows: We use a procedure **Match()** which, given two expressions e_1 and e_2 which are not select-expressions and have the same type, either fails, or succeeds and returns a substitution θ , such that $e_1\theta=e_2$. If **Match** succeeds for input expressions L and E' , with substitution θ , then subexpression E' in E is replaced

with $R\theta$. The resulting new instance of E , in its canonical form, is added to the result set \mathcal{R} . Match uses a classic pattern matching technique. The fact that OQL expressions are typed can be exploited to increase the efficiency of pattern matching. All the subexpressions of E having the same type as L are selected first, in a single traversal of E .

```

procedure Rewrite(E, r)
{   $\mathcal{R}=\{\}$ 
  if L is not a select-expression then
    foreach subexpression  $E'$  of E having the same type as L
      {if Match(L,  $E'$ ) succeeds with substitution  $\theta$  and
       if  $R\theta$  does not contain any variable from X /* there is a sound application of  $r$  */
       then replace  $E'$  in E by  $R\theta$ , convert the result to the canonical form and add it to  $\mathcal{R}$  }
  else
    foreach select-subexpression Q of E
      {if FindSubquery(L,Q) succeeds with substitution  $\theta$  and expression  $Q'$  and
       if  $R\theta$  does not contain any variable from X /* there is a sound application of  $r$  */
       then replace  $L\theta$  in  $Q'$  by  $R\theta$ , replace Q in E by  $Q'$ ,
        convert the result to the canonical form and add it to  $\mathcal{R}$  }
  return  $\mathcal{R}$ 
}

```

Figure 2: Rewriting Algorithm.

The case where L (of r) is a select-expression is more involved and requires significant extension of the pattern matching algorithm. The rewriting algorithm for this case is depicted in Figure 2. Consider a select-subexpression Q (of E) and L the left-hand side of the rule r . Even if Q and L are not matching expressions, it is possible to rewrite Q as a nested expression, logically equivalent to Q , which contains L as a subexpression. The algorithm uses the procedure **FindSubquery**.

Given two select-expressions L and Q , **FindSubquery** either fails, or if it succeeds, it returns a query Q' , logically equivalent to Q , and a substitution θ ; further, Q' contains $L\theta$ as a subexpression. If **FindSubquery** succeeds for inputs L and Q , and returns Q' and a substitution θ , then $L\theta$ is replaced in Q' with $R\theta$ and Q in E is replaced with the new instance of Q' , where Q' is logically equivalent to Q . Finally, this new instance, in its canonical form, is added to the result set \mathcal{R} .

Procedure **FindSubquery** is used extensively with the mapping rules, which are usually expressed as select-expressions. It is also used to reformulate a query using the result of a previously computed query or a *materialized view*. Consider the following: Given a query Q , and a stored view V , defined by the query Q' , we want to determine if it is possible to rewrite the query Q as a nested query Q'' , equivalent to Q , which contains the view, Q' , as a subexpression. If successful, the subquery Q' of Q'' can be replaced by the view V , and the query Q'' , equivalent to query Q , can be computed using this view V . In the case of a MDBMS environment, a previously computed query can be considered as a stored view V . Thus, the algorithm **FindSubquery** is able to solve the problem of answering queries using materialized views. As mentioned earlier, we do not address maintaining materialized views, but note that there are significant performance benefits, and so it is an important consideration during query reformulation.

We now describe Procedure **FindSubquery**, (see Appendix 2 for the complete algorithm), in detail. However, we note that these details are not needed to understand the remainder of this paper. Suppose that the input select expressions, Q' and Q , (which correspond to L and Q in Figure 2, have the following form:

$$Q' = \text{select } proj_1 \text{ from } x_{11} \text{ in } C_{11}, \dots, x_{1n} \text{ in } C_{1n} \qquad Q = \text{select } proj_2 \text{ from } x_{21} \text{ in } C_{21}, \dots, x_{2m} \text{ in } C_{2m}$$

where p_{11} and p_{12} and \dots and p_{1q}

where p_{21} and p_{22} and \dots and p_{2r}

FindSubquery works as follows. First, each query C_{1i} corresponding to an input collection in Q' is matched with some collection C_{2j_i} in Q . If the match succeeds, the resulting substitution is added to the global substitution, together with the binding x_{1i}/x_{2j_i} of the corresponding variables. If for some collection of Q' , none of the collections of Q are found to match, then the algorithm fails. However, it is possible that some of the collections of Q do not match any of the collections of Q' . These collections, together with the corresponding variables, cannot be eliminated and must appear in the from clause of the final query Q'' . Next, each conjunction p_{1i} in the predicate of Q' is matched with some conjunction p_{2j_i} in Q . If for some conjunction in the predicate of Q' , none of the conjunctions of Q match, then the algorithm fails. However, it is possible that some of the conjunctions of Q do not match with any of the conjunctions of Q' . These conjunctions cannot be eliminated and must appear in the where clause of the final query Q'' .

The resulting query Q'' is produced from Q as follows. A new collection, corresponding to query Q' , is added to the from clause of Q'' . Some collections in the from clause of Q need not appear in Q'' , since the corresponding conditions and projections are already included in Q' , but some other collections cannot be eliminated and must appear in Q'' . There are two criteria for a collection to appear in Q'' : either the corresponding variable appears in some unmatched predicates or in the projection, or the corresponding variable appears in the expression of another collection which must appear in Q'' .⁸ Thus, some collections may appear in both Q' and also appear in the from clause of Q'' . In this case, these collections appear twice in the from clause of Q'' , with two different variables ranging over them. Thus, an additional predicate must be added to the where clause of Q'' , in order to link these variables. This link assures the equivalence of the two queries Q and Q'' , if and only if the projection of Q' is a superset of a key, *i.e.*, if the $proj_1$ uniquely identifies the tuple x_{11}, \dots, x_{1n} .

4.4 The Query Reformulation Algorithm

Given an input query in the MDBMS interface, and a set of rewrite rules, the reformulation algorithm produces a set of equivalent queries in the union of the local interfaces. The algorithm is shown in Figure 3.

```

procedure Reformulate(Q, R)
{  $\mathcal{S}=\{Q\}$  /*Q is in the canonical form*/
   $\delta=\{Q\}$ 
  repeat
     $new = \vee$ 
    for each  $q \in \delta$  and  $r \in R$ 
      {  $new = new \cup Rewrite(q,r)$ 
         $\delta = new - \mathcal{S}$ 
         $\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{S} \cup \delta$ 
      }
    until  $\delta = \vee$ 
    eliminate all queries from  $\mathcal{S}$  in which named variables of the MDBMS interface occur
    return  $\mathcal{S}$ 
}

```

Figure 3: Reformulation Algorithm.

The rewrite rules (assertions and mapping rules) are applied uniformly, in any order. The control of this algorithm is similar to semi-naive evaluation, in deductive databases [Ullman88]. At each iteration, new queries obtained in the previous iteration are used to generate new queries, until no new more queries can be obtained.

⁸This is possible because of dependent joins.

It is possible that the set of reformulated queries is empty or infinite. If there is insufficient knowledge for reformulation (in the catalog), (*i.e.*, the set of reformulated queries is empty), then the MDBMS query processor would simply reject the query. If the rewrite rules are such that the set of reformulated queries is not finite, then the algorithm does not terminate. However, the execution of the algorithm can be explicitly terminated when one of the following conditions are met: (i) when at least one reformulated query is obtained; (ii) when at least one reformulated query having an acceptable cost is obtained; (iii) when an upper bound on execution time is reached.

5 Query Decomposition

```

procedure Decomp( $Q, \mathcal{P}_1, \dots, \mathcal{P}_n$ )
{
  let  $UP = \{p_1, \dots, p_q\}$  /* the set of initial conjunctions in the predicate of  $Q^*$  */
  foreach  $\mathcal{P}_i$  ( $i=1 \dots n$ ) /* construct the expression  $Q_i$  corresponding to  $\mathcal{P}_i^*$  */
  {
    let  $y_i$  be a new lambda variable /* whose domain will be  $Q_i^*$  */
    let  $proj_i = \text{empty list}$  /* the list of projections of  $Q_i^*$  */
    let  $pred_i = \text{empty list}$  /* the list of conjunctions in the predicate of  $Q_i^*$  */
    foreach  $p_j \in UP$ 
      if  $p_j$  does not use any lambda variables associated with some collection  $C_k \in \{C_1, \dots, C_m\} \setminus \mathcal{P}_i$ 
        then add  $p_j$  to  $pred_i$  and remove  $p_j$  from  $UP$ 
    let  $\mathcal{E}_i$  be the set of maximal subexpressions9 of  $proj$ , and of the conjunctions in  $UP$ ,
      such that only lambda variables associated with collections from  $\mathcal{P}_i$  occur in them
    foreach  $e_j \in \mathcal{E}_i$ 
      {
        add a new field with name  $f_j$  and value  $e_j$  to  $proj_i$  /* the projection of  $Q_i^*$  */
        replace all occurrences of  $e_j$  in  $proj$  and the conjunctions of  $UP$  by the expression  $y_i.f_j$ 
      }
    construct  $Q_i$  as the following expression, where  $\mathcal{P}_i = \{C_{i1}, C_{i2}, \dots, C_{il_i}\}$ 
      select  $proj_i$ 
      from  $x_{i1}$  in  $C_{i1}$  and  $x_{i2}$  in  $C_{i2}$  and  $\dots$  and  $x_{il_i}$  in  $C_{il_i}$ 
      where  $pred_i$ 
    } /* end of construction of  $Q_i^*$  */
    construct the composing query as the following expression, where  $UP = \{p_{j1}, \dots, p_{jt}\}$ :
      select  $proj$ 
      from  $y_1$  in  $Q_1$  and  $y_2$  in  $Q_2$  and  $\dots$  and  $y_i$  in  $Q_i$ 
      where  $p_{j1}$  and  $\dots$  and  $p_{jt}$ 
  }
}

```

Figure 4: Query Decomposition Algorithm.

Although the focus and contribution of this paper is query reformulation, we also describe query decomposition in the multidatabase environment for completeness. Query decomposition takes as input a query Q , expressed against the union of the local interfaces, in the canonical form, and produces an equivalent *decomposed query*, made of a set of local subqueries Q_1, \dots, Q_n , to be sent to the wrappers for execution on the local databases, and a composite query, to group the local results at the MDBMS level. Each subquery is an expression constructed against the corresponding local interface. The input collections of the composing query are those produced by the subqueries Q_1, \dots, Q_n . There can be more than one subquery for each local database.

Decomposition proceeds in two steps. First, a partition of the set of expressions corresponding to the collections in the from clause of the input select-expression is found. Second, the local queries and the composite query are constructed, based on this partitioning. The decomposition partitioning must satisfy some correctness criteria, which are defined as follows.

Definition 5.1 *Decomposition Partitioning*

Given a select-expression Q constructed over the union of a set of interfaces¹⁰ I_1, \dots, I_l , in the canonical form:

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{select } proj \\ \text{from } x_1 \text{ in } C_1, \dots, x_n \text{ in } C_m \\ \text{where } p_1 \text{ and } p_2 \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } p_q \end{array} \quad (Q)$$

A decomposition partitioning for Q is a partitioning $(\mathcal{P}_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ of the set $\{C_1, \dots, C_m\}$ satisfying the following conditions:

- (i) **locality:** all the expressions C_j in one subset \mathcal{P}_i are constructed in the same local interface I_i ;
- (ii) **dependency-free:** if there exists some expression $C_j \in \mathcal{P}_i$ such that the expression C_j uses a lambda variable x_k ¹¹ associated with some other expression C_k , then $C_k \in \mathcal{P}_i$.

The locality condition ensures that all the expressions in one partition are in the same interface so that the corresponding subquery is constructed over only one interface. The second condition ensures that in the case of a dependency between two collections C_k and C_j , then they are both in the same partition. When two dependent collections belong to two different partitions, the subqueries corresponding to these partitions would also be dependent and could not be executed independently.

Given a select-expression, Q , and a decomposition partitioning $\mathcal{P}_1, \dots, \mathcal{P}_n$, the algorithm **Decomp**, in Figure 4, produces a set of select-expressions Q_1, \dots, Q_n , or local subqueries, and a composite select-expression, Q' . The input collections for each Q_i are the expressions in the corresponding subset \mathcal{P}_i , and the input collections for the composite query Q' are the select-expressions Q_1, \dots, Q_n . The composite query Q' is logically equivalent to the input query (select-expression) Q . In the next section, we describe query reformulation and decomposition, using an example query.

There can be more than one possible decomposition partitioning. We can choose a “good” decomposition partitioning based on some heuristics. The obvious criterion for a partitioning to be efficient is that it must minimize the size of the results of the local subqueries. The next section includes an example of reformulation and decomposition.

6 Validation

The algorithms described in this paper have been validated within the the Flora compiler prototype [Florescu94], which has been operational at INRIA since June 1994 (IDEA Project Review). The Flora compiler supports the ODMG data model and query language, and currently uses the O2 DBMS [Bancilhon92] for local database management. The prototype is implemented in C++. An important goal in designing the Flora compiler was to achieve a trade-off between extensibility and efficiency. In order to be able to take advantage of semantic knowledge described as rewrite rules, the Flora compiler implements the extended pattern matching algorithm described in this paper. For efficient rule-based rewriting, all the syntactic transformation rules used by the compiler, to obtain canonical form OQL expressions, are coded in C++.

The architecture of the compiler is modular, as suggested in [Mitchell93]. Each module takes as input an OQL expression, and produces a set of equivalent OQL expressions, based on the knowledge specific to the module and using a specific control strategy. Each module has a goal which characterizes the resulting OQL expressions. This modular architecture allows decentralization of knowledge and finer control of the overall compiler.

Figure 5 gives a simplified view of the Flora compiler architecture, with emphasis on the major modules described in this paper. We do not show the modules for type checking, syntactic rewriting (to put an OQL expression in canonical form), and code generation (*i.e.* the wrapper from OQL to

¹⁰The union of interfaces is still an interface.

¹¹This is possible because of the dependent joins.

¹¹We use the term maximal in that no supraexpression verifies the same property.

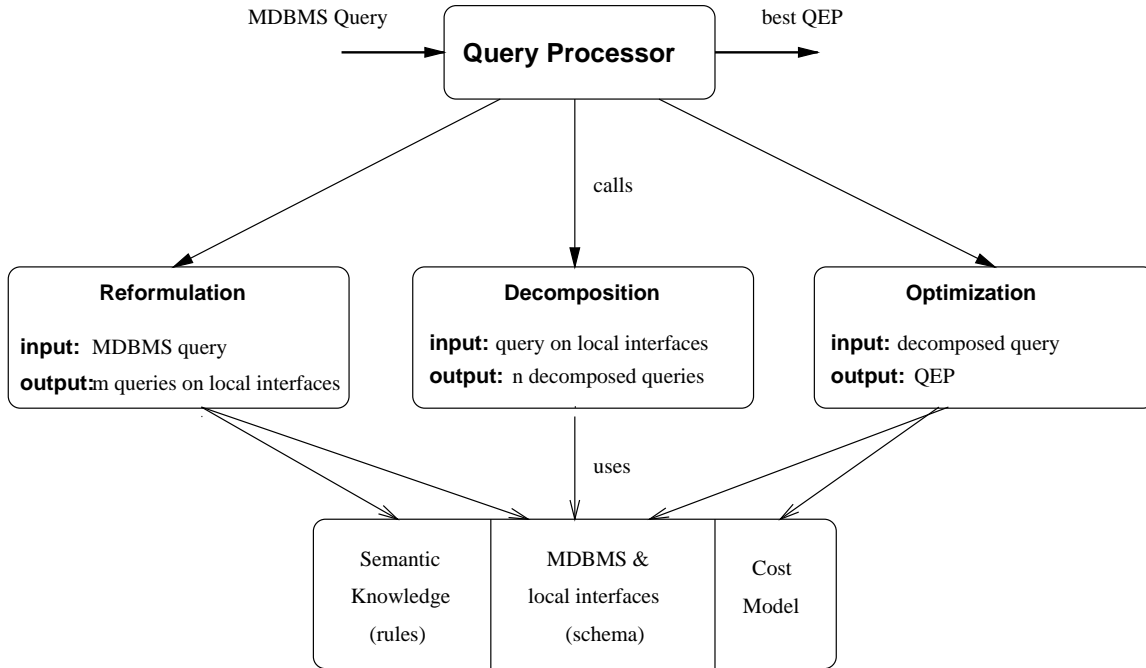


Figure 5: Simplified Flora Compiler Architecture.

O2C code). The query processor receives the input OQL query expressed on the MDBMS interface, and produces the best query execution plan (QEP) by calling the other modules. The major modules for MDBMS query processing perform reformulation, decomposition and optimization; this last step is not emphasized in this paper. All the modules access the MDBMS catalog which stores meta-data information, (interface definition and semantic knowledge), cost-based information, (statistics regarding the local databases and cost functions), and information about previously computed queries (views).

Reformulation and decomposition work as previously described. Query optimization takes as input a decomposed query and produces the corresponding QEP together with a cost descriptor using a cost model. The query processor controls the optimization process by submitting the decomposed queries to the optimization module, and selection the QEP with least cost. The query processor may also use heuristics to restrict the search space of reformulated queries and corresponding decomposed queries.

An OQL expression is represented as a direct acyclic graph. The internal representation is general enough to support the input OQL queries, as well as the reformulated queries, the decomposed queries and the optimized query execution plans, enabling seamless manipulation.

We now show the trace of a full derivation from an input query to one of the reformulated queries obtained by the running the input query of Example 2.1, and then the decomposition. At each step, several re-writings are investigated, but, for purpose of simplicity, we do not follow all the alternatives searched by the rewriting algorithm.

```

Q1:    select [code:=x.code, descriptor:=x.descriptor]
       from x in products
       where x.type="disks" and x.manufacturer like "HP" and
             (exists y in x.compatible : y.type="monitor" and y.descriptor like "19 inch")
  
```

The first step of query reformulation is syntactic rewriting. The canonical form of the query is:

Q2: select distinct [code:=x.code, descriptor:=x.descriptor]
 from x in products, y in products
 where x.type="disks" and x.manufacturer like "HP" and y in x.compatible and
 y.type="monitor" and y.descriptor like "19 inch"

Next, the mapping rule of Example 3.4 is applied. The mapping rule is the following. *Note that the left hand side and the right hand side of the rule are also in the canonical form.*

M1: select distinct [code:=x.code, descriptor:=x.descriptor, manufacturer:=x.manufacturer, compatible:=x.compatible]	⇒	select distinct [code:=x.code, descriptor:=x.capacity, manufacturer:=x.manufacturer, compatible:=(select distinct y from y in products, z in monitors where z.code=y.code and z.manufacturer in x.compatible)]
from x in products where x.type="disk"		from x in disks

The first step in applying the rule is to force the left-hand side expression to be a subexpression of the query Q2, using the **FindSubquery** algorithm. The procedure succeeds and returns the substitution {} and the following equivalent query for Q2:

Q3: select distinct [code:=x₀.code, descriptor:=x₀.descriptor]
 from x₀ in (select distinct [code:=a.code,
 descriptor:=a.descriptor,
 manufacturer:=a.manufacturer,
 compatible:=a.compatible]
 from a in products
 where a.type="disk"), y in products
 where x₀.manufacturer like "HP" and y in x₀.compatible and y.type="monitor" and y.descriptor like "19 inch"

The inner select expression, which corresponds to the left-hand side expression of the mapping rule M1, is replaced by the right-hand side of the rule, yielding:

Q4: select distinct [code:=x₀.code, descriptor:=x₀.descriptor]
 from x₀ in (select distinct [code:=a.code,
 descriptor:=a.capacity,
 manufacturer:=a.manufacturer,
 compatible:=(select distinct b
 from b in products, z in monitors
 where z.code=b.code and z.manufacturer in a.compatible)]
 from a in disks), y in products
 where x₀.manufacturer like "HP" and y in x₀.compatible and y.type="monitor" and y.descriptor like "19 inch"

The resulting query is normalized. First, Syntactic rule 1, which deals with nested select expressions in the FROM clause, is applied. Then the tuple constructor followed by a field selection is simplified, using Syntactic rule 6. We obtain the following query:

Q5: select distinct [code:=a.code, descriptor:=a.capacity]
 from a in disks, y in products
 where a.manufacturer like "HP" and y.type="monitor" and y.descriptor like "19 inch"
 and y in (select distinct b
 from b in products, z in monitors
 where z.code=b.code and z.manufacturer in a.compatible)

Syntactic rule 2 is applied to obtain the following query:


```

      where z.dimension like "19 inch"),
y in (select distinct [F2:=a.code, F3:=a.capacity, F4:=a.disk-group]
      from a in disks                               /* local database #2 */
      where a.manufacturer like "HP")
where y.F4 in x.F1

```

7 Comparison with Related Work

Much of the prior research on multidatabase query processing is based on a common object-oriented model, and assumes a global schema which is the union of the local schemas, *eg.*, Pegasus [Ahmed91], UniSQL [Kim93], Garlic [Carey95]. This simplifies query reformulation, but restricts the MDBMS interface by maintaining the autonomy of local interfaces. Furthermore, in these cited systems, semantic knowledge is not exploited, and prevents expressing a view over local databases, reusing the results of previous queries, or exploiting data redundancy.

The initial use of semantic knowledge in the form of integrity constraints, in federated databases, is reported in [Chakravarthy]. They use Horn clauses, (definite databases), as their representation language. Schema mappings from the local databases to the global entities are defined using Horn clauses. As an aid to obtaining optimized compiled queries, they also express "data integration dependencies", functional dependencies based on primary keys, and inclusion dependencies, as integrity assertions. The research cited in [Levy95a, Levy95b], generalizes on this research.

The system described in [Levy95a] performs query reformulation using schema mapping knowledge. Their common object model is an object-oriented extension of the relational model based on a description logic. The representation language is Datalog-like, and thus, their queries are not as expressive as OQL queries. A concept in the world view (MDBMS) may be expressed as a conjunctive Datalog-like query over the local relations, and they may also express a local relation as a (conjunctive) query over the world view relations. However, they are not able to express general integrity constraints in the local interfaces. The reformulation algorithm described in [Levy95a] is limited, since they try to match each global entity in the world view, against the mapping knowledge. Thus, they are not able to match all conjunctive queries expressed over the the world view entities, even if there exists a local entity defining this world view query (or a fragment of it).

They cite an extension of their algorithm [Levy95b], which is able to answer a larger class of queries, by matching a conjunctive query against a conjunctive view, to produce an equivalent query, and the algorithm is NP-complete. The intent is to obtain an equivalent query which is minimal, in that they reduce the number of literals that appear in the equivalent query. However, they note that minimality is not essential in obtaining an optimized equivalent query. This is especially true in a heterogeneous environment, where the view may be expressed over local information sources, which have dissimilar costs.

In comparison to [Levy95a], the OQL query language that we use to express semantic knowledge is much more expressive. We are able to express rewrite rules which replace a view in the MDBMS interface with an OQL query over the union of the local *and* the MDBMS interface. Thus, we are directly able to describe a mapping corresponding to an object in the in the MDBMS interface, which may have a reference, (ODMG relationship), with another object. Such a mapping for object references could not be explicitly expressed in any previous work. We are also able to utilize other semantic knowledge, *e.g.*, data replication, for query reformulation.

The extended pattern matching of our reformulation algorithm allows us to identify (a subquery of) a user query which can be replaced by a rewrite rule. Since the result of query, which is essentially a view, can be used to replace a subquery in the user query, we are able to cover the same space as the the algorithm in [Levy95b], with the caveat that we are reformulating wrt a much more complex and expressive query language. We also note that the space of query reformulation is not necessarily those queries in which we minimize the number of collections, as described in [Levy95b]. However, we are able to eliminate some collections in the query, based on semantic knowledge. This

simplification is more general than the minimality criterion of [Levy95b], which does not exploit semantic knowledge.

The SIMS project [Arens93] also performs some reformulation, but it is based on a fixed set of reformulation operators. They, too, do not use a standard object model or standard query language. They are not able to express a concept in the MDBMS level as a view over the local interfaces, nor can they express or exploit other semantic knowledge during reformulation, to generate alternate queries. Other recent proposals for transforming multidatabase queries are based on higher-order query languages [Krishnamurthy91], higher-order logics [Lakshmanan93], or meta-models [Barsalou92]. Each of these depends on using a query language or model that is not standard, (and more complex), compared to the relational or object models and languages.

8 Conclusion

In this paper, we address the problem of query reformulation in a MDBMS, with a common model and language, based on the ODMG standard, and local databases that may be relational, object-oriented, or file systems. The MDBMS interface could be different from the union of the local interfaces, and may include views of particular local databases, integrity constraints, and knowledge about data replication in local databases.

Query reformulation is an important step of multidatabase query processing and transforms an input OQL query in the MDBMS interface, into equivalent OQL queries in the (union of) the local interfaces. When this query spans several local interfaces, a process of query decomposition is used to obtain independent local sub-queries for each interface, and a composite query to regroup the results at the MDBMS level.

In order to guarantee to correctness of the reformulation, (*i.e.*, the reformulated queries in the local interfaces produces the expected answer), it is necessary to use a variety of semantic knowledge, (*i.e.* integrity constraints, data redundancy, schema mappings) which describe the MDBMS.

Our solution to query reformulation relies on the uniform expression of semantic knowledge, as rewrite rules, in a canonical form of OQL expression. OQL-based rewrite rules provide a very expressive language for specifying equivalent queries. Compared to previous reformulation work in [Arens93], [Levy95a], we support reformulation using an expressive query language and a variety of semantic knowledge.

The reformulation algorithm is based on pattern-matching, and uses both syntactic rewriting to express a query in canonical form, and semantic rewriting using the rewrite rules, to obtain alternate equivalent OQL queries. Furthermore, our query reformulation can exploit good optimization opportunities. For instance, the fact that data can be replicated in several local databases, that there are constraints that allow simplification, and that the results of previous query execution may be stored in the MDBMS for later re-use, can yield alternative ways of computing the same query. This is important to ease the subsequent task of query optimization which must select the best reformulated query and produce an efficient execution plan, *eg.*, using a heterogeneous cost model or heuristics. Our ability to re-use the results of stored queries, and the ability to identify sub-queries during the rewrite procedure, can be exploited in a heterogeneous cost model. The cost model can store the cost of computing queries, in an implementation independent manner. This is important in a heterogeneous environment, where we wish to preserve the autonomy of each local database.

We have validated all the proposed algorithmic solutions by extending the Flora compiler prototype [Florescu94]. We used this extended prototype to represent a variety of semantic knowledge, and to experiment with reformulation of several sample queries in our schema. The Flora compiler supports the ODMG data model and query language, and produces code for a wrapper for the O2 DBMS [Bancilhon92].

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9 Appendix 1. A Sample Of Syntactic Rewriting Rules

Syntactic Rule 1 : *Unnesting the select subexpressions nested in the from clause*

The expression:

```
select [distinct] proj1
from var11 in C11, ..., var1i-1 in C1i-1,
   var1i in ( select [distinct] proj2
              from var21 in C21, ..., var2m in C2m
              where pred2 ), var1i+1 in C1i+1, ..., var1n in C1n
where pred1
```

is rewritten as:

```
select [distinct] proj'1
from var11 in C'11, ..., var1i-1 in C'1i-1,
   var21 in C21, ..., var2m in C2m,
   var1i+1 in C'1i+1, ..., var1n in C'1n
where pred'1 and pred2
```

where $proj'_1$, C'_{1i+1} , ..., C'_{1n} and $pred'_1$ are obtained from $proj_1$, C_{1i+1} , ..., C_{1n} and $pred_1$ respectively, by replacing all occurrences of the variable var_{1i} by $proj_2$. The necessary condition for this rule to apply is that either both of the inner and the outer select have the distinct condition, either none of them.

Syntactic Rule 2 : *Testing membership in the result of a nested select*

The expression:

```
select [distinct] proj
from var1 in C1, ..., varn in Cn
where pred and elem in (select [distinct] proj'
                       from varn+1 in Cn+1, ..., varn+m in Cn+m
                       where pred')
```

is rewritten as:

```
select [distinct] proj
from var1 in C1, ..., varn in Cn, varn+1 in Cn+1, ..., varn+m in Cn+m
where pred and pred' and elem=proj'
```

The necessary condition for this rule to apply is that at least one of the inner or the outer select have the distinct condition. The resulting select has the distinct condition if and only if the outer select has the distinct condition.

Syntactic Rule 3 : *Existential quantifier transformation*

The expression:

```
select [distinct] proj
from var1 in C1, ..., varn in Cn
where pred and (exists varn+1 in Cn+1 : pred')
```

is rewritten as:

```
select [distinct] proj
from var1 in C1, ..., varn in Cn, varn+1 in Cn+1
where pred and pred'
```

This rule can be applied if at least one of the following conditions are verified: the initial select has the distinct condition or C_{n+1} is a set expression. The resulting select has the distinct condition if and only if the initial select has the distinct condition.

Syntactic Rule 4 : Transformation of the navigation into joins

If $expr$ is a subexpression of $pred$ whose corresponding type τ is an object type whose extension is maintained, then the expression:

```
select [distinct] proj
from var1 in C1, ..., varn in Cn
where pred
```

is rewritten as:

```
select [distinct] proj
from var1 in C1, ..., varn in Cn, varn+1 in extent( $\tau$ )
where pred' and varn+1=expr
```

where $pred'$ is obtained from $pred$ by replacing the occurrences of $expr$ by var_{n+1} . The resulting select has the distinct condition if and only if the initial select has the distinct condition.

Syntactic Rule 5 : Eliminating the dependency between the input collections

If the lambda variable var_i appears in the expression C_j ($i < j$), and the type of the elements of the collection C_j is an object type τ whose extension is maintained, then the expression:

```
select [distinct] proj
from var1 in C1, ..., vari in Ci, ..., varj in Cj, ..., varn in Cn
where pred
```

is rewritten as:

```
select [distinct] proj
from var1 in C1, ..., vari in Ci, ..., varj in extent( $\tau$ ), ..., varn in Cn
where pred and (varj in Cj)
```

This rule can be applied if at least one of the following conditions are verified: the initial select has the distinct condition or C_j is a set expression. The resulting select has the distinct condition if and only if the initial select has the distinct condition.

Syntactic Rule 6 : Simplification of tuple constructors

$[field_name_1 := expr_1, \dots, field_name_n := expr_n].field_name_i$ is rewritten as: $expr_i$.

Syntactic Rule 7 : Introducing the **distinct** condition in select-expressions

The *distinct* clause is necessary for the application of some of the previous transformations. The criteria for adding the distinct clause is that the expression corresponding to the projection represents a unique identifier for the tuple x_1, \dots, x_n ¹². This condition can be found to be true, based on key information.

```
select proj
from x1 in C1, ..., xn in Cn
where pred
```

is rewritten as:

```
select distinct proj
from x1 in C1, ..., xn in Cn
where pred
```

¹²This condition can be written as: $proj(x_1, \dots, x_n) = proj(x'_1, \dots, x'_n)$ implies $x_1 = x'_1, \dots, x_n = x'_n$.

10 Appendix 2. The Algorithm FindSubquery

```

procedure FindSubquery(Q', Q)
/*
  Input: two select-expressions Q' and Q on the following form:
    Q' = select proj1
         from x11 in C11, ..., x1n in C1n
         where p11 and p12 and ... and p1q
    Q =  select proj2
         from x21 in C21, ..., x2m in C2m
         where p21 and p22 and ... and p2r

  Output: a substitution  $\theta$  and a select-expression Q'', logically equivalent with Q and
  containing Q' $\theta$  as a subexpression
*/
{ let  $\theta = \{\}$ ;
/* STEP 1. Matching the expressions corresponding to the collections in the from clause */
let UC = {C21, ..., C2m} /* the set of unmatched collections */
let MC = {} /* the set of matched collections */
foreach C1i (i = 1 ... n)
  { find a C2ji ∈ UC so Match(C1i $\theta$ , C2ji) succeeds with substitution  $\theta'$ 
    if found then  $\theta = \theta \cup \theta' \cup \{x_{1i}/x_{2j_i}\}$ , remove C1ji from UC and add C1ji to MC
    else fail }
/* STEP 2. Matching the expressions corresponding to the conjunctions in the where clause */
let UP = {p21, ..., p2r} /* the set of unmatched conjunctions */
foreach p1i (i = 1 ... q)
  { find a p2ji ∈ UP so Match(p1i $\theta$ , p2ji) succeeds with substitution  $\theta'$ 
    if found then  $\theta = \theta \cup \theta'$  and remove p1ji from UP else fail }
/* STEP 3. Constructing the resulting select-expression */
let x0 be a new lambda variable, distinct from x11, ..., x1n, x21, ..., x2m
if proj1 is of the form [field1 := expr1, ..., fieldp := exprp] then
  replace each expri $\theta$  in C21, ..., C2m, proj2 and the unmatched predicates by x0.fieldi
else
  replace each proj1 $\theta$  in C21, ..., C2m, proj2 and the unmatched predicates by x0
let X = the subset of the set of already matched collections MC for which the corresponding lambda variables
  still appear in some unmatched predicate or in proj2 (after replacement)
find  $\overline{X}$  = the minimal subset of the matched collections MC verifying the following conditions:
  ◊ X ⊂  $\overline{X}$ 
  ◊ for each C2i ∈  $\overline{X}$ , if it exists C2j ∈ X with x2j appearing in the expression of C2i then C2j ∈  $\overline{X}$ 
let link_predicate = {} /* link_predicate is a set of conjunctions */
foreach C2j ∈  $\overline{X}$ 
  { if proj1 is a tuple and it contains a field of the form: fieldi := x2j.key
    where key is the key field of collection C2j (if some) and x2j is associated to C2j
    then add the conjunction x2j.key = x0.fieldi to the link_predicate
    else fail }
return the substitution  $\theta$  and the following equivalent query for Q
  select proj2
  from x0 in Q' $\theta$ , x2i1 in C2i1, ..., x2is in C2is, x2j1 in C2i1, ..., x2is in C2ji
  where p2j1 and ... and p2ji and p2i1 and ... and p2ix
  where UC = {C2i1, ..., C2is},  $\overline{X}$  = {C2j1, ..., C2ji}, UP = {p2k1, ..., p2kw} and link_predicate = {p2l1, ..., p2lz}
}

```

Figure 6: Query Matching Algorithm.



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