

A TUTORIAL ON PROBABILISTIC DATABASES

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Probabilistic Databases

- **Data**: standard relational data, plus **probabilities** that measure the degree of uncertainty
- **Queries**: standard SQL queries, whose answers are annotated with **output probabilities**

A Little History of Probabilistic DBs

Early days

- Wong'82
- Shoshani'82
- Cavallo&Pittarelli'87
- Barbara'92
- Lakshmanan'97,'01
- Fuhr&Roellke'97
- Zimanyi'97

Main challenge:
Query Evaluation
(=Probabilistic Inference)

Recent work

- Stanford (Trio)
- UW (MystiQ)
- Cornell (MayBMS)
- Oxford (MayBMS)
- U.of Maryland
- IBM Almaden (MCDB)
- Rice (MCDB)
- U. of Waterloo
- UBC
- U. of Florida
- Purdue University
- U. of Wisconsin

Why?

Many applications need to manage **uncertain data**

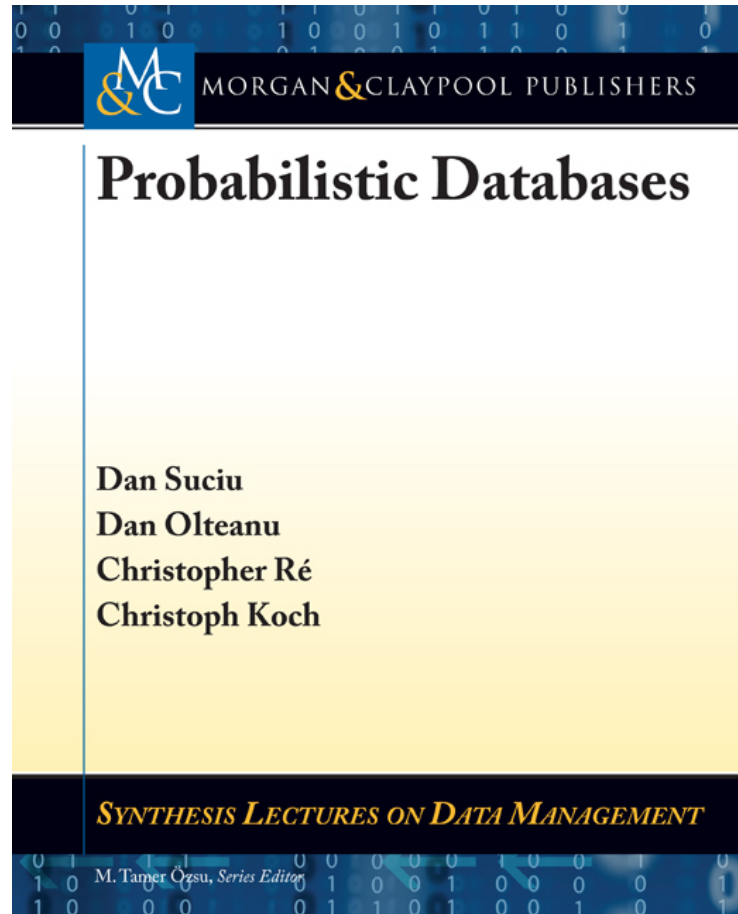
- Information extraction
- Knowledge representation
- Fuzzy matching
- Business intelligence
- Data integration
- Scientific data management
- Data anonymization

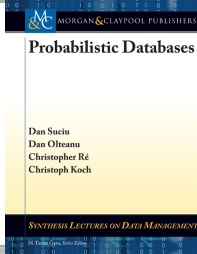
What?

- **Probabilistic Databases** extend Relational Databases with probabilities
- Combine **Formal Logic** with **Probabilistic Inference**
- Requires a new thinking for both databases and probabilistic inference

This Tutorial: Query Evaluation

Based on the book:



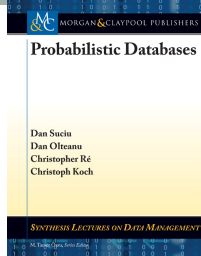


Outline of the Tutorial

- | | | |
|--------|---------------------------------------|-------------|
| Part 1 | 1. Motivating Applications | |
| | 2. The Probabilistic Data Model | Chapter 2 |
| Part 2 | 3. Extensional Query Plans | Chapter 4.2 |
| | 4. The Complexity of Query Evaluation | Chapter 3 |
| Part 3 | 5. Extensional Evaluation | Chapter 4.1 |
| Part 4 | 6. Intensional Evaluation | Chapter 5 |
| | 7. Conclusions | |

What You Will Learn

- **Background:**
 - Relational data model: tables, queries, relational algebra
 - PTIME, NP, #P
 - Model counting: DPLL, OBDD, FBDD, d-DNNF
- **In detail:**
 - Extensional plans, extensional evaluation, running them in postgres
 - The landscape of query complexity: from PTIME to #P-complete,
 - Query compilation: Read-Once Formulas, OBDD, FBDD, d-DNNF
- **Less detail:**
 - The #P-hardness proof, complexity of BDDs
- **Omitted:**
 - Richer data models: BID, GM, XML, continuous random values)
 - Approximate query evaluation,
 - Ranking query answers



Related Work. See book, plus:

These references are not in the book

- Wegener: Branching programs and binary decision diagrams: theory and applications, 2000
- Dalvi, S.: The dichotomy of probabilistic inference for unions of conjunctive queries, JACM'2012
- Huang, Darwiche: DPLL with a Trace: From SAT to Knowledge Compilation, IJCAI 2005
- Beame, Li, Roy, S.: Lower Bounds for Exact Model Counting and Applications in Probabilistic Databases, UAI'13
- Gatterbauer, S.: Oblivious Bounds on the Probability of Boolean Functions, under review

The applications are from:

- Ré, Letchner, Balazinska, S: Event queries on correlated probabilistic streams. SIGMOD Conference 2008
- Gupta, Sarawagi: Creating Probabilistic Databases from Information Extraction Models. VLDB 2006
- Stoyanovich, Davidson, Milo, Tannen: Deriving probabilistic databases with inference ensembles. ICDE 2011
- Beskales, Soliman, Ilyas, Ben-David: Modeling and Querying Possible Repairs in Duplicate Detection. PVLDB 2009
- Kumar, Ré: Probabilistic Management of OCR Data using an RDBMS. PVLDB 2011

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Chapter 2

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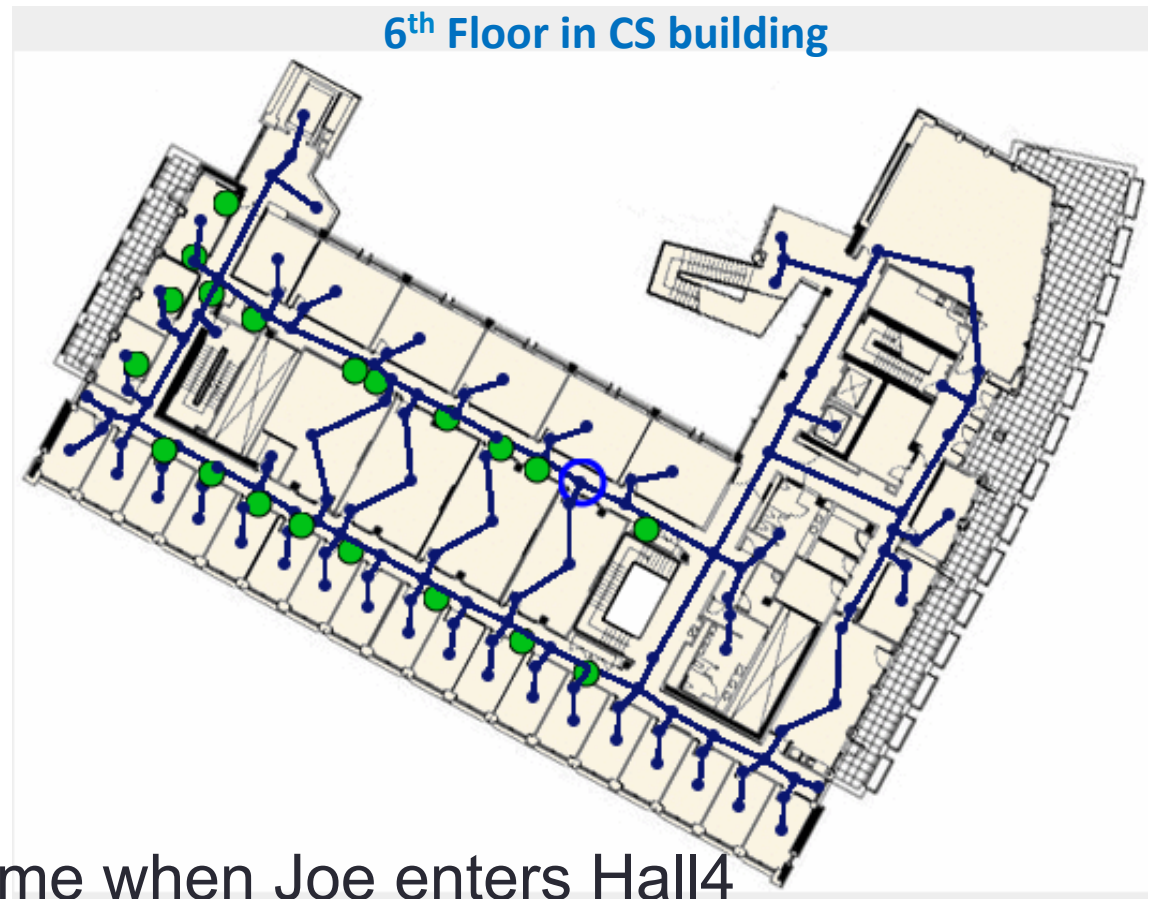
7. Conclusions

Motivation

- Many applications have structured, but **uncertain data**
- **Uncertain data** is modeled as **probabilistic data**
- Outputs to **SQL queries** annotated with **probabilities**

[Re' 08]

Example1: RFID Tracking



Simple Query: “Alert me when Joe enters Hall4

Complex Query: “Who brought their laptops to the meeting”

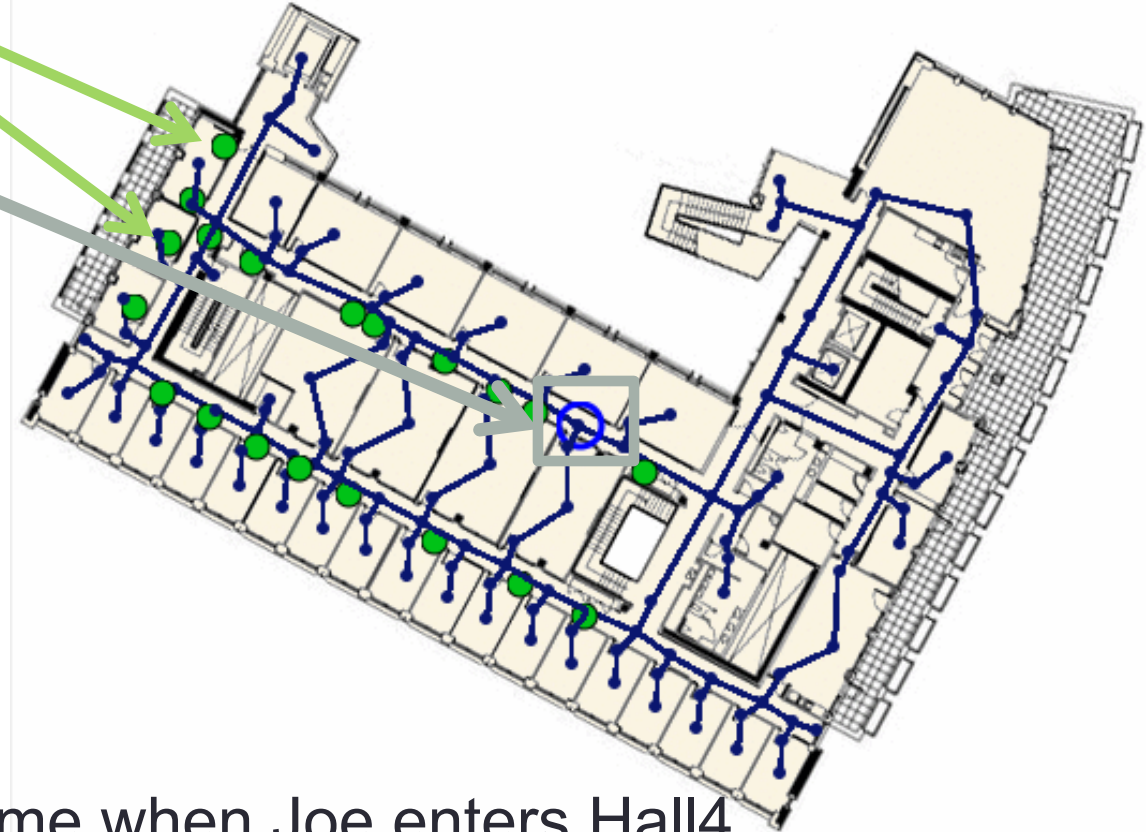
[Re' 08]

Example1: RFID Tracking

Antennas

Blue ring is Joe's
Location

6th Floor in CS building



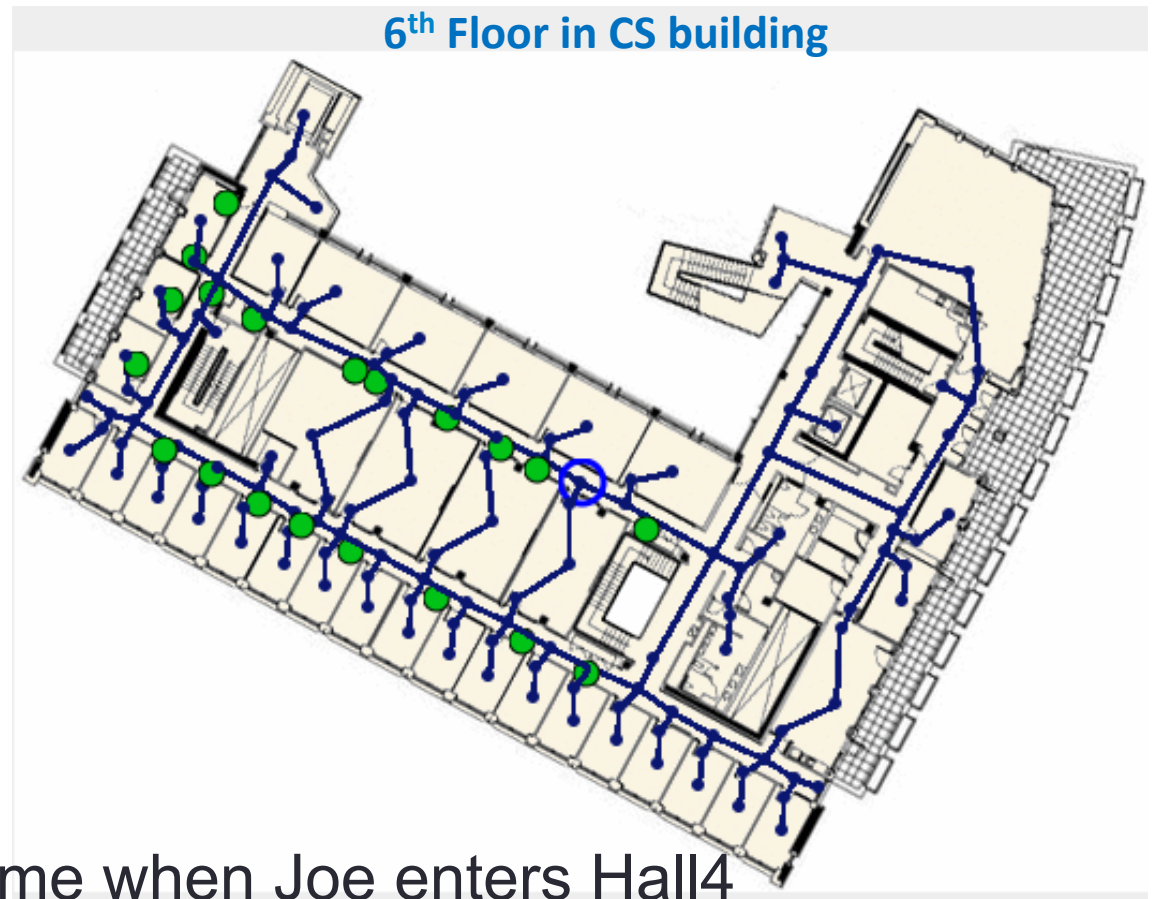
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Example1: RFID Tracking

(Watch movie)



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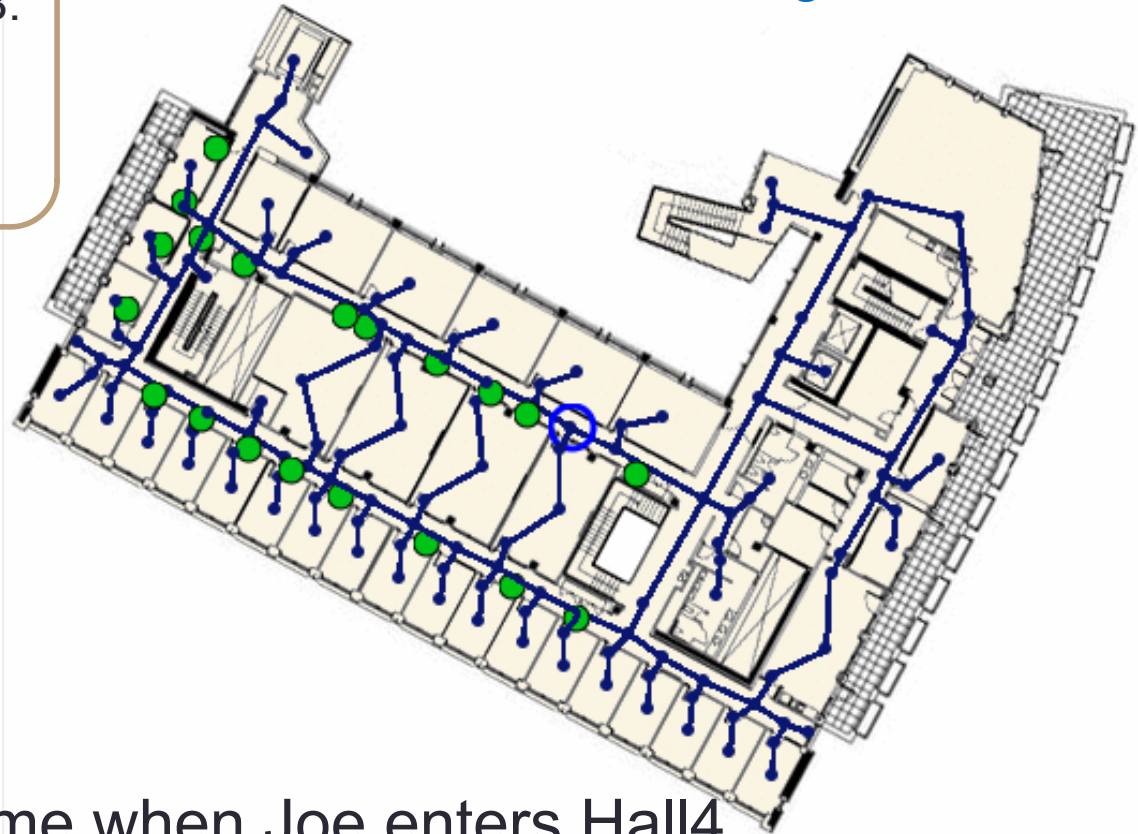
Example1: RFID Tracking

Standard Deterministic DB:

- Missed readings
- Duplicate readings
- Granularity mismatch

Tag	Loc	Time
Joe	Hall4	3
Joe	Office3	4
Joe	Hall4	7
Joe	Office3	7
Bob		...

6th Floor in CS building



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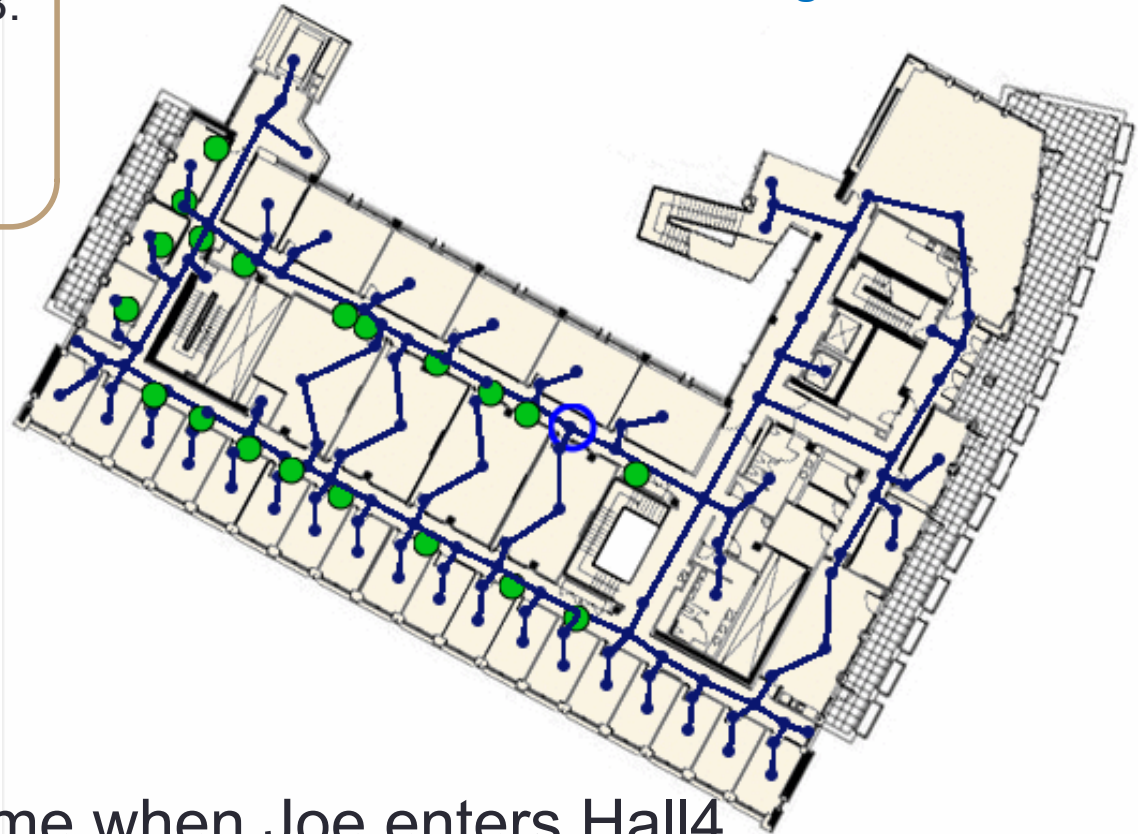
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Queries are virtually impossible to answer using SQL

[Re' 08]

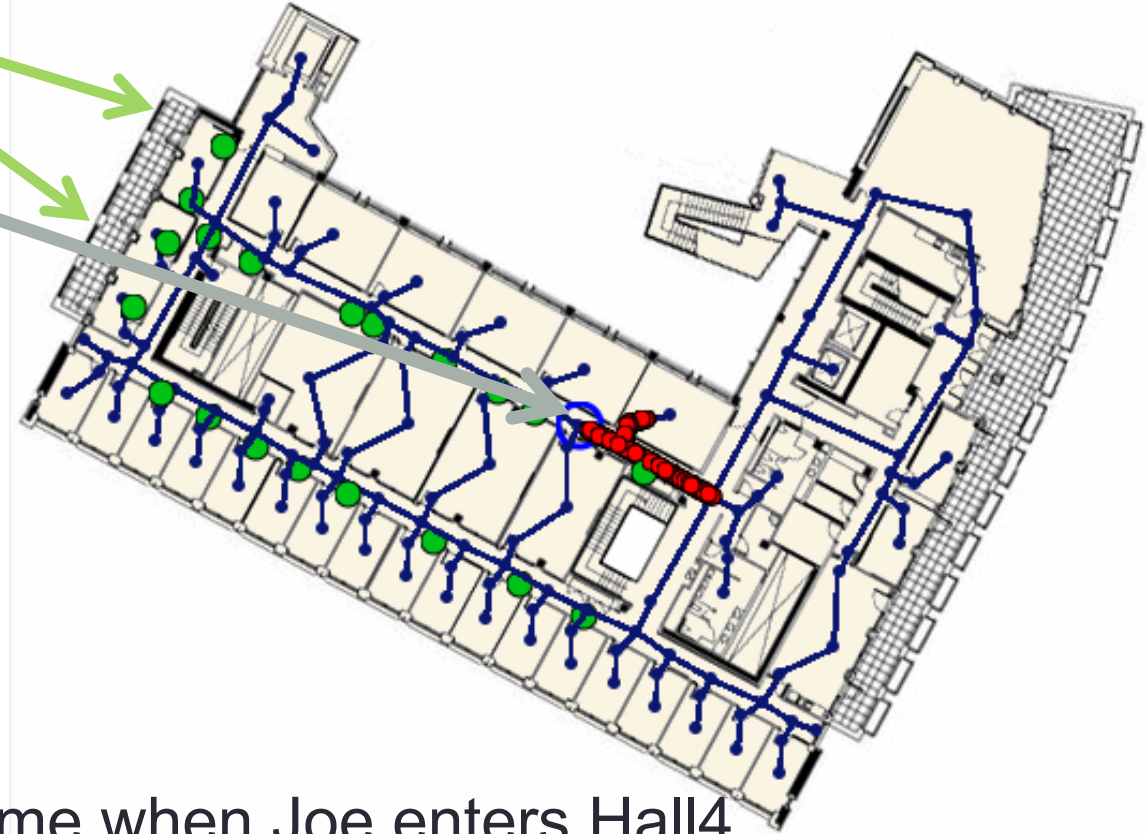
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[Doucet et al' 01]

Example1: RFID Tracking

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Blue ring is
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Example1: RFID Tracking

Antennas

Blue ring is
ground truth

Each orange particle is a guess
of Joe's location

6th Floor in CS building



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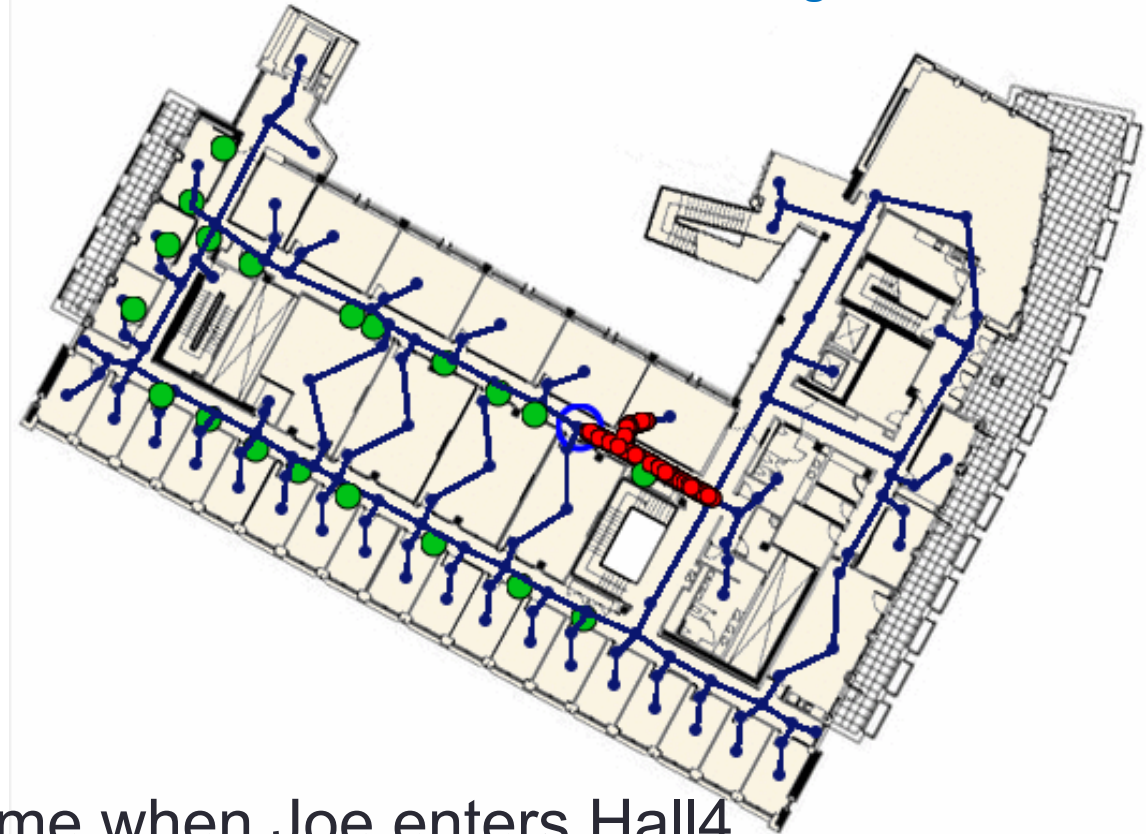
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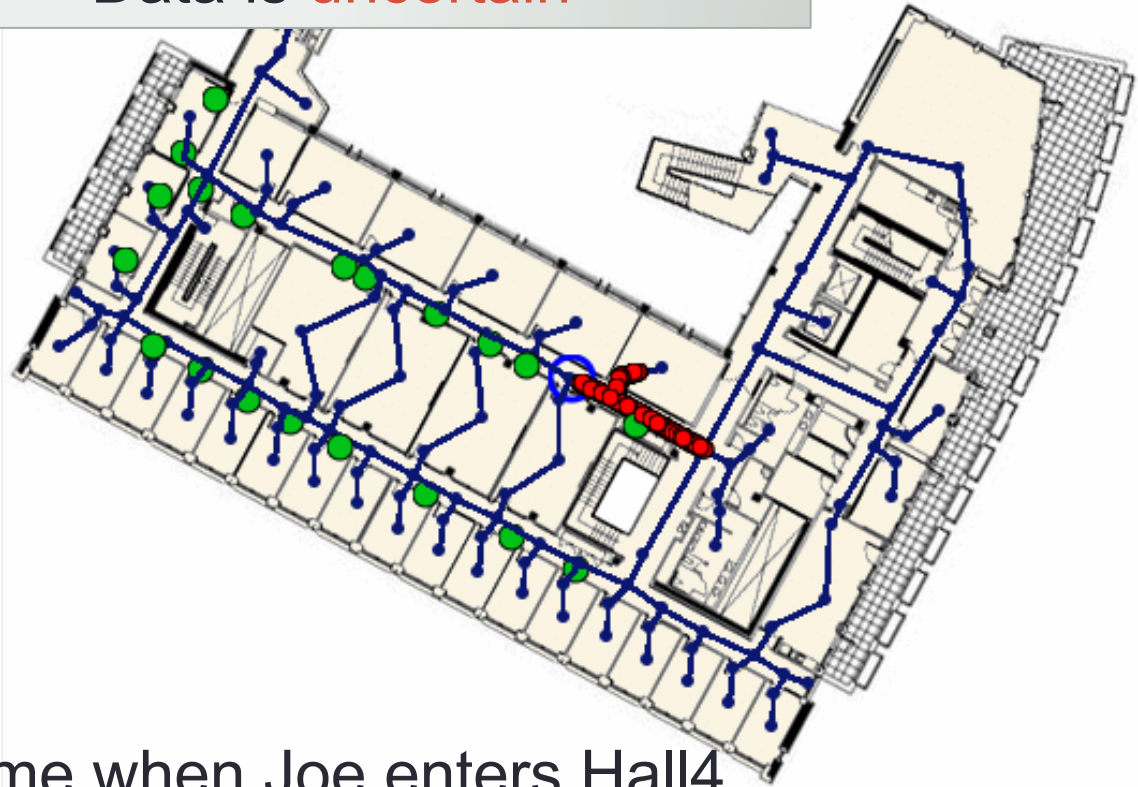
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Data is **uncertain**



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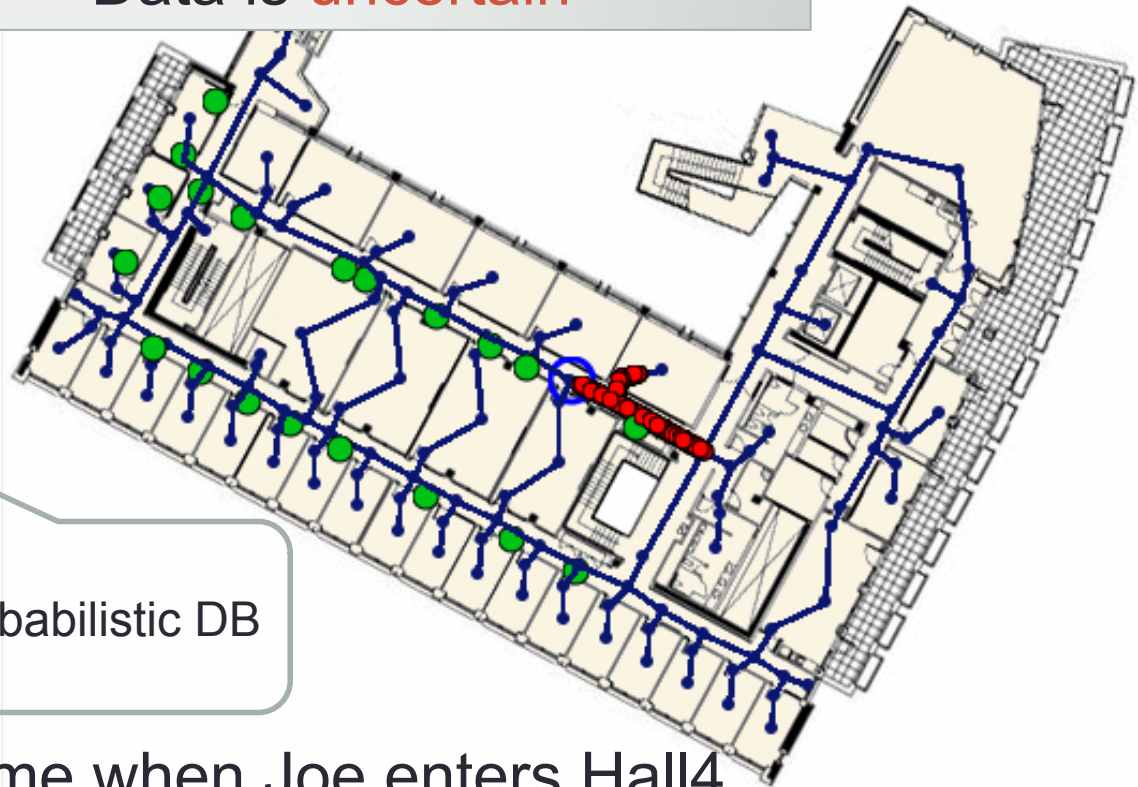
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Example1: RFID Tracking

Many particles = many locations
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Tag	Loc	Time	P
Joe	Hall4	3	0.8
Joe	Office3	3	0.2
Joe	Hall4	4	0.4
Joe	Office3	4	0.6
Bob		...	...

Probabilistic DB



Simple Query: “Alert me when Joe enters Hall4”

Complex Query: “Who brought their laptops to the meeting”

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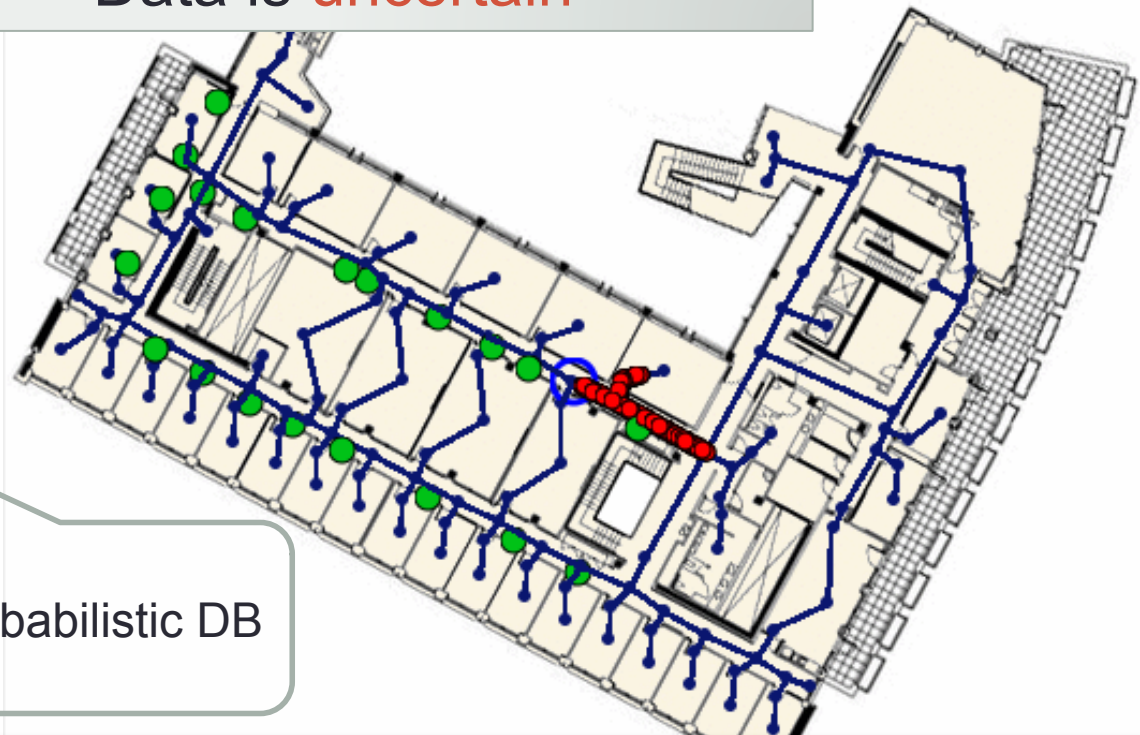
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Bob		...

P
0.8
0.2
0.4
0.6
...



Probabilistic DB

Simp
Com

Answers to SQL queries:

“Joe entered Hall4 at t=3 with probability $p=0.8$ ”

“Fred was at the meeting and brought his laptop $p=0.14$ ”

Example1: RFID Tracking -- Lessons

- **Data is uncertain:**
 - Missed readings
 - Duplicate readings
 - Granularity mismatch
- **Deterministic databases**
 - Can store uncertain data,
 - But impossible to query in SQL
- **Probabilistic databases:**
 - Store uncertain data annotated with probability p
 - Answer SQL queries by computing their output probability p'

[Gupta'2006]

Example 2: Information Extraction

52-A Goregaon West Mumbai 400 076

CRF

Standard DB: keep the most likely extraction

Id	House_no	Area	City	Pincode	Prob
1	52	Goregaon West	Mumbai	400 062	0.1
1	52-A	Goregaon	West Mumbai	400 062	0.2
1	52-A	Goregaon West	Mumbai	400 062	0.5
1	52	Goregaon	West Mumbai	400 062	0.2

Probabilistic DB: keep most/all extractions to increase **recall**

Key finding: the probabilities given by CRFs correlate well with the precision of the extraction.

[Stoyanovich'2011]

Example 3: Modeling Missing Data

id	age	edu	inc	nw
t1	20	HS	?	?
t2	20	BS	50K	100K
t3	20	?	50K	?
t4	20	HS	100K	500K
t5	20	?	?	?
t6	20	HS	50K	100K
t7	20	HS	50K	500K
t8	?	HS	?	?
t9	30	BS	100K	100K
t10	30	?	100K	?
t11	30	HS	?	?
t12	30	MS	?	?
t13	40	BS	100K	100K
t14	40	HS	?	?
t15	40	BS	50K	500K
t16	40	HS	?	500K
t17	40	HS	100K	500K

Standard DB: NULL

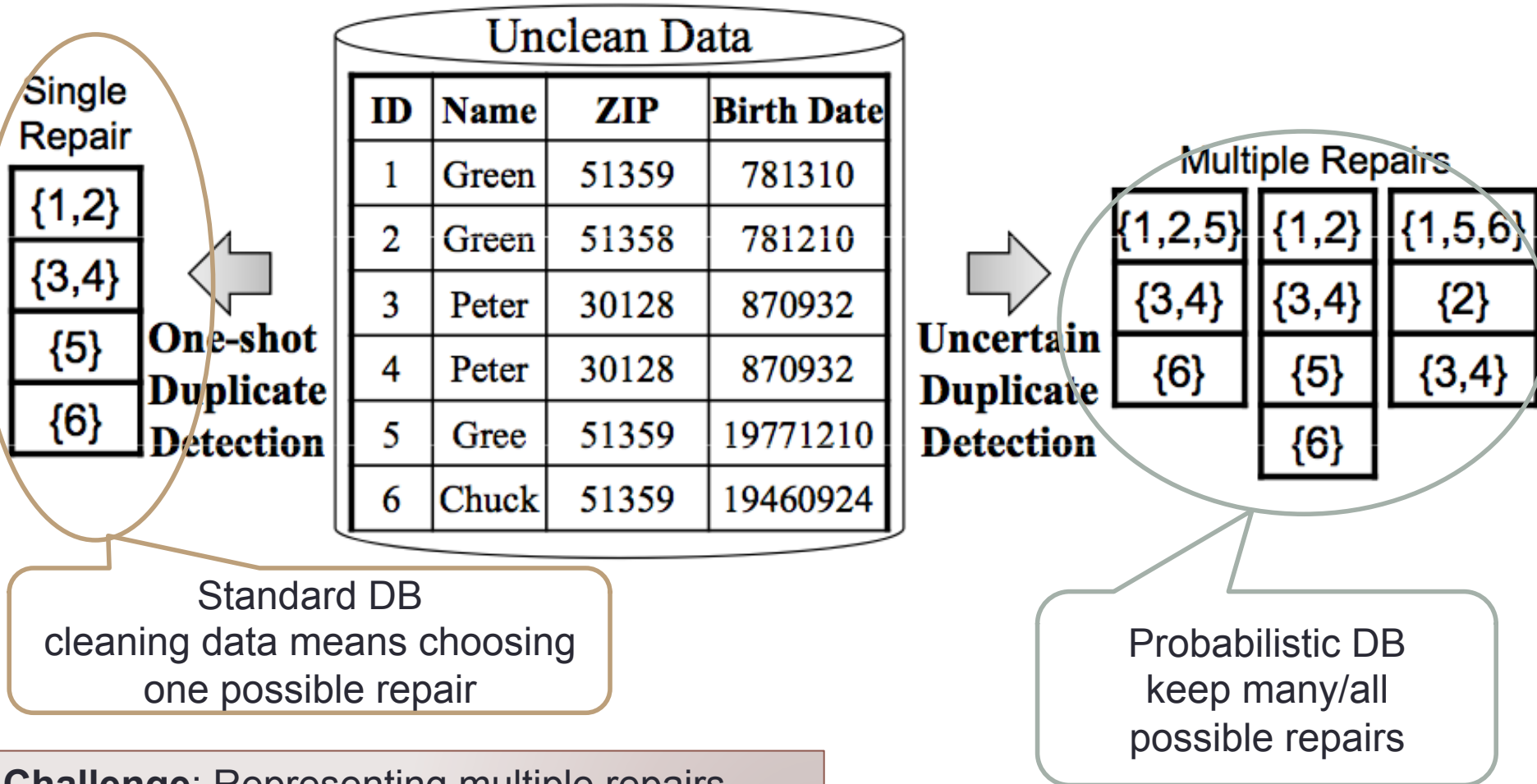
Probabilistic DB:
distribution on possible values

Key technique:
Meta Rule
Semi-Lattice for
inferring missing
attributes.

id	age	edu	inc	nw	prob
t12.1	30	MS	50K	100K	0.30
t12.2	30	MS	50K	500K	0.45
t12.3	30	MS	100K	100K	0.10
t12.4	30	MS	100K	500K	0.15

[Beskaes'2009]

Example 4: Data Cleaning



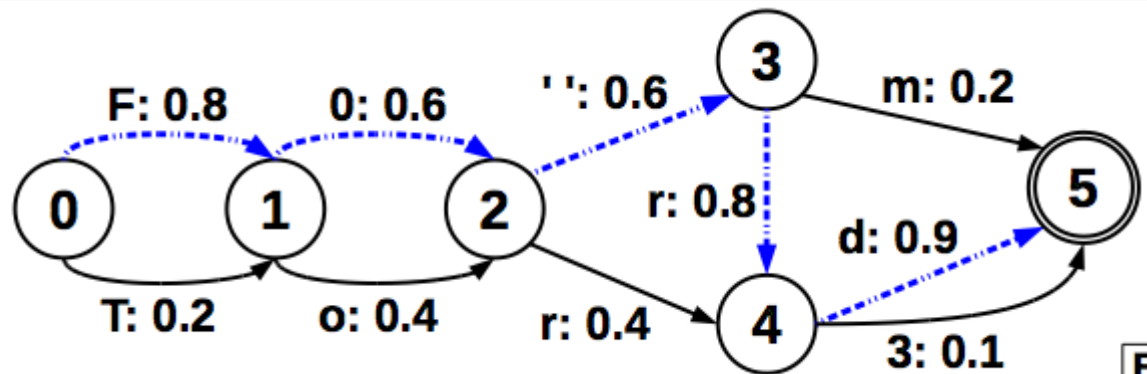
Challenge: Representing multiple repairs.
[Beskaes'2009] restrict to hierarchical repairs.

[Kumar'2011]

Example 5: OCR

The make of the claim ...
Ford Fusion I6 SEL, ...
 Detroit, MI on the ...
 2011. The details of ...
 have been verified by ...
 agent, and the parts ...

A



B

They use OCRopus from Google Books: output is a stochastic automaton

Traditionally: retain only the Maximum A Posteriori (MAP)

With a probabilistic database: may retain several alternative recognitions: increase recall

```

SELECT DocId, Loss
FROM Claims
WHERE Year = 2010
      AND DocData LIKE '%Ford%';
  
```


Summary of Applications

- Structured, but **uncertain data**
- Modeled as **probabilistic data**
- Answers to **SQL queries** annotated with **probabilities**

Probabilistic database:

- Combine data management with probabilistic inference

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Probabilistic Data Model: Outline

- Review: Relational Data Model
- Incomplete Databases
- Probabilistic Databases (PDB)
- Query semantics
- Block Independent Disjoint

Review: Relational Data Model

Data:
stored in relations (= tables)

Owner

Name	Object
Joe	Book302
Joe	Laptop77
Jim	Laptop77
Fred	GgleGlass

Location

<u>Object</u>	<u>Time</u>	Loc
Laptop77	5:07	Hall
Laptop77	9:05	Office
Book302	8:18	Office

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Queries: SQL,

Find all owners of objects in the Office

-- SQL: e.g. postgres

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SELECT DISTINCT Owner.name
FROM Owner, Location
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$Q(z) = \text{Owner}(z, x), \text{Location}(x, t, y)$

Note that x, t, y are existentially quantified:

$Q(z) = \exists x \exists t \exists y (\text{Owner}(z, x), \text{Location}(x, t, y))$

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Query answer: $Q =$

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Joe
Jim

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Review: Complexity of Query Evaluation

Query Q , database D

- Data complexity:
fix Q , complexity = $f(D)$
- Query complexity:
fix D , complexity = $f(Q)$
- Combined complexity: complexity = $f(D, Q)$

Today's talk



Moshe Vardi

Data complexity is unique to database research

Incomplete Database

Definition An **Incomplete Database** is a finite set of database instances $\mathbf{W} = (W_1, W_2, \dots, W_n)$

Each W_i is called a possible world

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Certain answers to Q : Joe

Possible answers to Q : Joe, Jim

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	Jim						Jim																																											

Probabilistic Database: Query Semantics

Definition Given query Q , probabilistic database (W, P) :

- The marginal probability of an answer t is:

$$P(t) = \sum \{ P(W_i) \mid W_i \in W, t \in Q(W_i) \}$$

$$Q(z) = \text{Owner}(z, x), \text{Location}(x, t, y)$$

$$P(\text{Joe}) = 1.0$$

$$P(\text{Jim}) = 0.4$$

W_1			W_2			W_3			W_4																																									
Owner 0.3			Owner 0.4			Owner 0.2			Owner 0.1																																									
<table><tr><th>Name</th><th>Object</th></tr><tr><td>Joe</td><td>Book302</td></tr><tr><td>Joe</td><td>Laptop77</td></tr><tr><td>Jim</td><td>Laptop77</td></tr><tr><td>Fred</td><td>GgleGlass</td></tr></table>			Name	Object	Joe	Book302	Joe	Laptop77	Jim	Laptop77	Fred	GgleGlass	<table><tr><th>Name</th><th>Object</th></tr><tr><td>Joe</td><td>Book302</td></tr><tr><td>Jim</td><td>Laptop77</td></tr><tr><td>Fred</td><td>GgleGlass</td></tr></table>			Name	Object	Joe	Book302	Jim	Laptop77	Fred	GgleGlass	<table><tr><th>Name</th><th>Object</th></tr><tr><td>Joe</td><td>Laptop77</td></tr></table>			Name	Object	Joe	Laptop77	<table><tr><th>Name</th><th>Object</th></tr><tr><td>Joe</td><td>Book302</td></tr><tr><td>Jim</td><td>Laptop77</td></tr><tr><td>Fred</td><td>GgleGlass</td></tr></table>			Name	Object	Joe	Book302	Jim	Laptop77	Fred	GgleGlass									
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Discussion

- **Intuition**: a probabilistic database says that the database can be in one of possible states, each with a probability
- **Possible query answers**: a set of answers annotated with probabilities:

$(t_1, p_1), (t_2, p_2), (t_3, p_3), \dots$

Usually: $p_1 \geq p_2 \geq p_3 \geq \dots$

- **Problem**: the number of possible world in a probabilistic database is astronomically large. To represent it, we impose some restrictions

Independent, Disjoint Tuples

Definition Given a probabilistic database (W, P) .

Two tuples t_1, t_2 are called:

- **Independent**, if: $P(t_1 t_2) = P(t_1) P(t_2)$
- **Disjoint** (or exclusive), if: $P(t_1 t_2) = 0$

Independent, Disjoint Tuples

Definition Given a probabilistic database $(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{P})$.

Two tuples t_1, t_2 are called:

- **Independent**, if: $\mathbf{P}(t_1 t_2) = \mathbf{P}(t_1) \mathbf{P}(t_2)$
- **Disjoint** (or exclusive), if: $\mathbf{P}(t_1 t_2) = 0$

Definition A probabilistic database is called **Block-Independent-Disjoint** (BID), if its tuples are grouped into blocks such that:

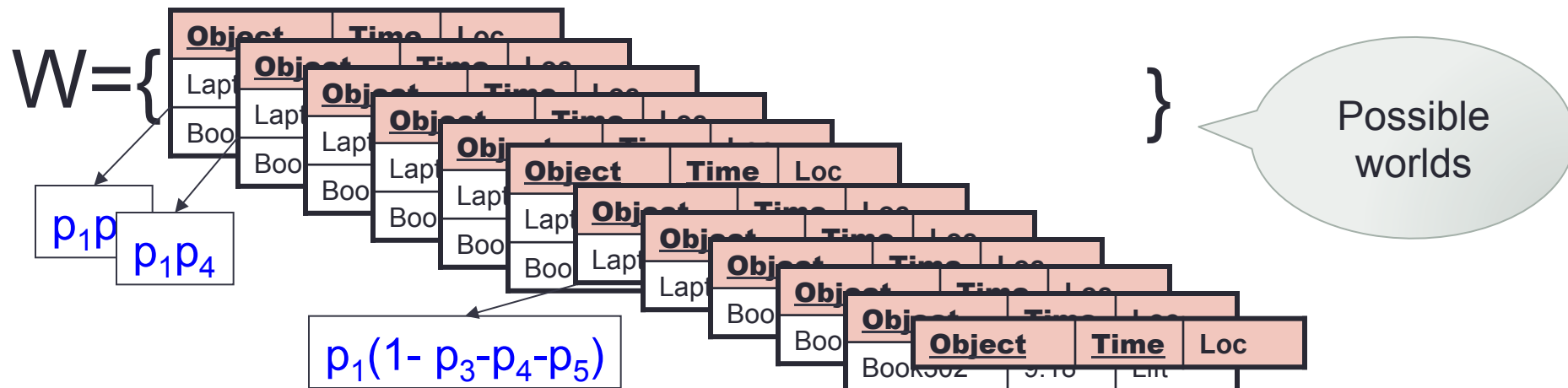
- Tuples from the same block are **disjoint**
- Tuples from different blocks are **independent**

Example: BID Table

<u>Object</u>	<u>Time</u>	<u>Loc</u>	<u>P</u>
Laptop77	9:07	Rm444	p_1
Laptop77	9:07	Hall	p_2
Book302	9:18	Office	p_3
Book302	9:18	Rm444	p_4
Book302	9:18	Lift	p_5

BID Table

Disjoint
Disjoint
Independent



The Query Evaluation Problem

Given: a BID database D , a query Q , and output tuple t

Compute: $P(t)$

Note: D has, say, 1000000 tuples,
while the number of possible worlds is $2^{1000000}$

Challenge: compute $P(t)$ efficiently, in the size of D

Data complexity: the complexity of P depends dramatically on Q

An Example

Boolean query

```
SELECT DISTINCT 'true'
FROM R, S
WHERE R.x = S.x
```

$Q() = R(x), S(x,y)$

$$P(Q) = 1 - \{1 - p_1 * [1 - (1 - q_1) * (1 - q_2)]\} * \\ \{1 - p_2 * [1 - (1 - q_3) * (1 - q_4) * (1 - q_5)]\}$$

One can compute $P(Q)$ in PTIME
in the size of the database D

R

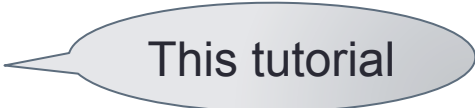
x	P
a1	p_1
a2	p_2
a3	p_3

S

x	y	P
a1	b1	q_1
a1	b2	q_2
a2	b3	q_3
a2	b4	q_4
a2	b5	q_5

Summary of the Probabilistic Data Model

- **Possible Worlds Semantics**: very powerful but difficult to represent
- **Block-Independent-Disjoint** databases have efficient representation: **D** is stored in a traditional database
- **Independent Databases**: even simpler



This tutorial

Main challenge: evaluate **Q** efficiently in the size of **D**

Outline

- | | | |
|--------|---------------------------------------|-------------|
| Part 1 | 1. Motivating Applications | |
| | 2. The Probabilistic Data Model | Chapter 2 |
| Part 2 | 3. Extensional Query Plans | Chapter 4.2 |
| | 4. The Complexity of Query Evaluation | Chapter 3 |
| Part 3 | 5. Extensional Evaluation | Chapter 4.1 |
| Part 4 | 6. Intensional Evaluation | Chapter 5 |
| | 7. Conclusions | |

Background: Relational Algebra

1. Join $\bowtie$
2. Projection (w/ duplicate elimination) Π
3. Union $\cup$
4. Selection σ

Background: Query Plans

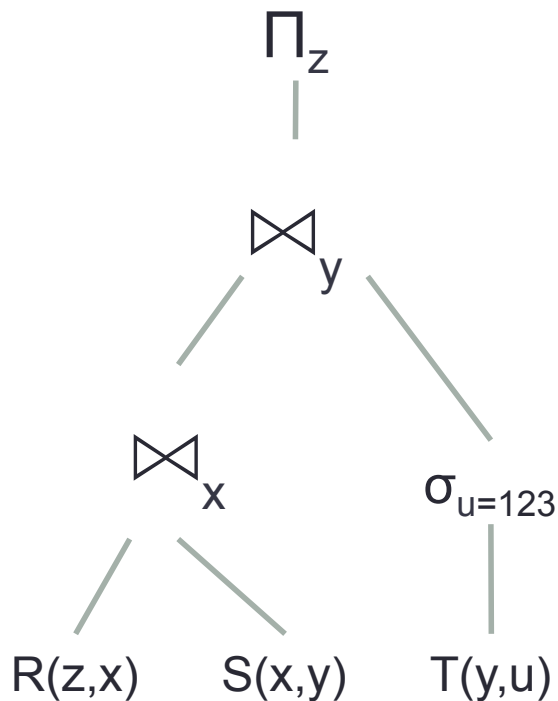
```
SELECT DISTINCT R.z  
FROM R, S, T  
WHERE R.x = S.x  
      and S.y=T.y  
      and T.u = 123
```

$$Q(z) = R(z,x), S(x,y), T(y,u)$$

Background: Query Plans

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SELECT DISTINCT R.z  
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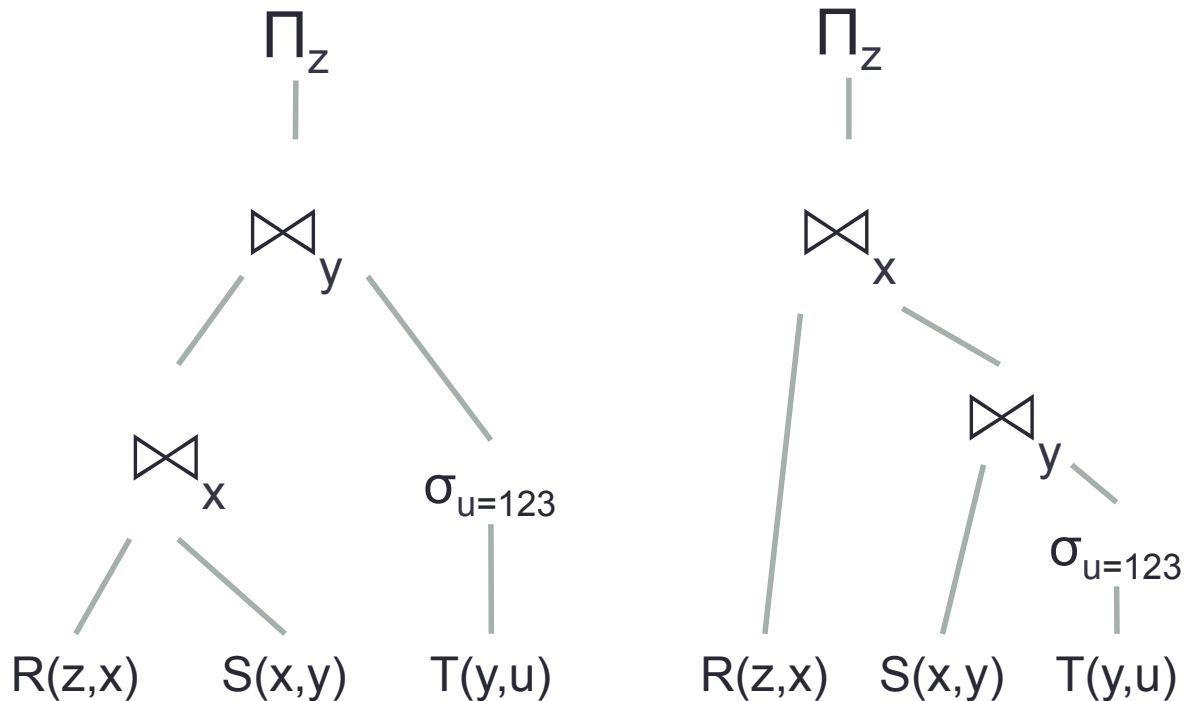
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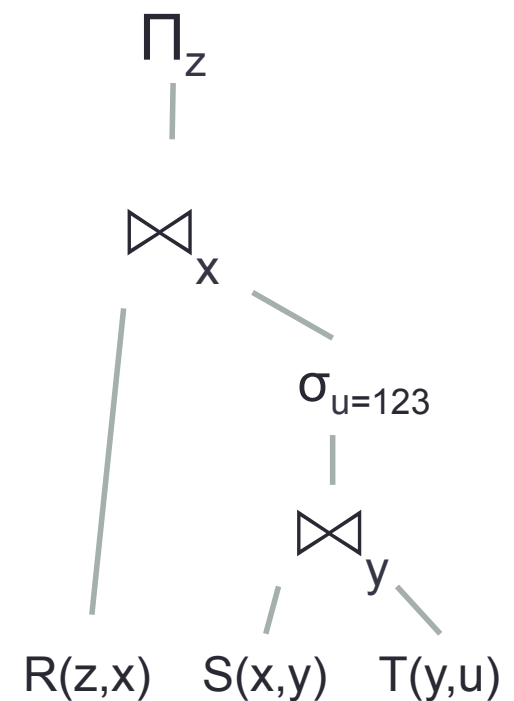
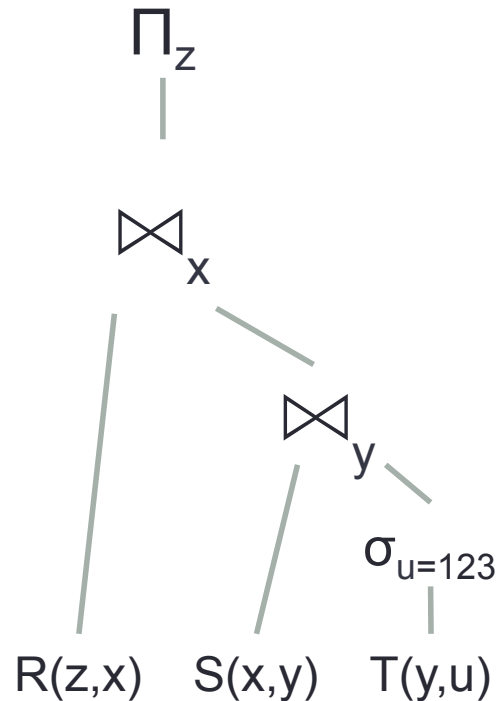
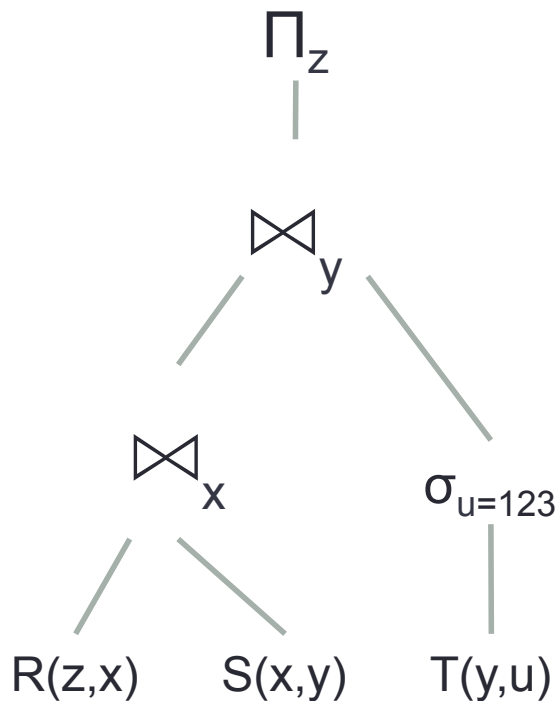
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Background: Query Plans

SELECT DISTINCT R.z
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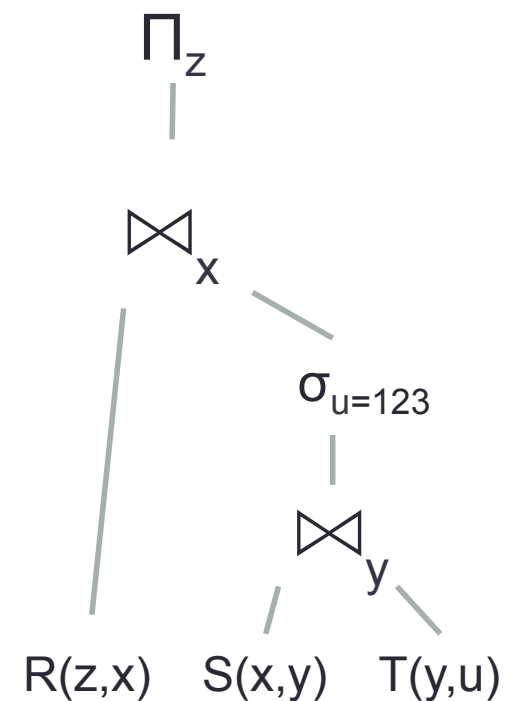
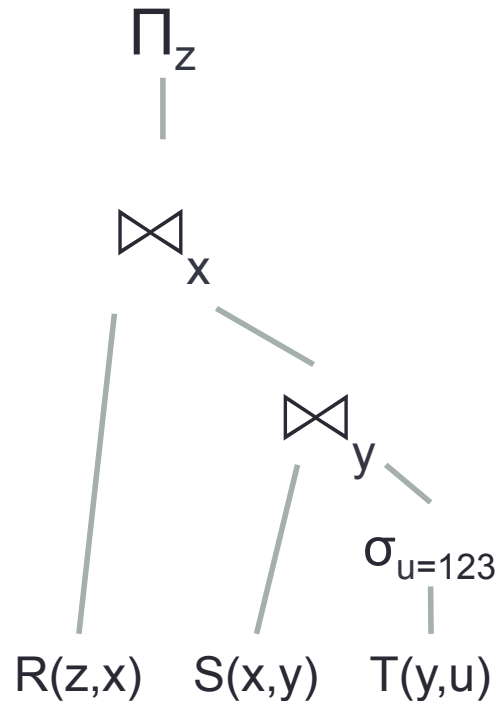
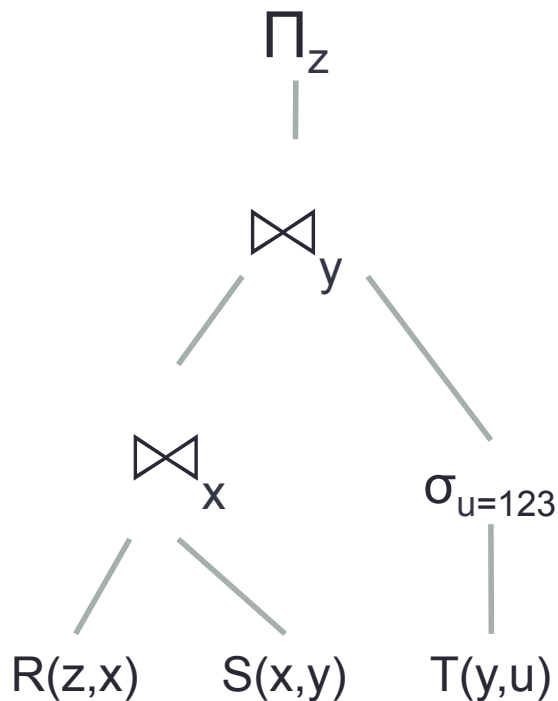
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FROM R, S, T
WHERE R.x = S.x
and S.y=T.y
and T.u = 123

$Q(z) = R(z,x), S(x,y), T(y,u)$

These plans are equivalent!

The query optimizer will select a plan with minimal cost.



Extensional Plans

- Main idea:
 - Modify each operator to compute output probabilities
- Must make some assumption:
 - Probabilities are independent, or
 - Probabilities are disjoint (exclusive)

Extensional Operators

Independent
join

A	B	P
a1	b1	$p1 \cdot q1$
a1	b2	$p1 \cdot q2$
a2	b3	$p2 \cdot q3$
a2	b4	$p2 \cdot q4$
a2	b5	$p2 \cdot q5$



i

R(A)

A	P
a1	$p1$
a2	$p2$
a3	$p3$

S(A,B)

A	B	P
a1	b1	$q1$
a1	b2	$q2$
a2	b3	$q3$
a2	b4	$q4$
a2	b5	$q5$

Extensional Operators

Independent
join

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a2	b4	$p2 \cdot q4$
a2	b5	$p2 \cdot q5$



$R(A)$

A	P
a1	$p1$
a2	$p2$
a3	$p3$

$S(A,B)$

A	B	P
a1	b1	$q1$
a1	b2	$q2$
a2	b3	$q3$
a2	b4	$q4$
a2	b5	$q5$

Independent
project

A	P
a1	$1 - (1-q1) \cdot (1-q2)$
a2	$1 - (1-q3) \cdot (1-q4) \cdot (1-q5)$



$S(A,B)$

A	B	P
a1	b1	$q1$
a1	b2	$q2$
a2	b3	$q3$
a2	b4	$q4$
a2	b5	$q5$

Extensional Operators

Independent
join

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a2	b3	$p2 \cdot q3$
a2	b4	$p2 \cdot q4$
a2	b5	$p2 \cdot q5$



i

R(A)

A	P
a1	$p1$
a2	$p2$
a3	$p3$

S(A,B)

A	B	P
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Independent
project

A	P
a1	$1 - (1-q1) \cdot (1-q2)$
a2	$1 - (1-q3) \cdot (1-q4) \cdot (1-q5)$

Π_A^i

S(A,B)

A	B	P
a1	b1	$q1$
a1	b2	$q2$
a2	b3	$q3$
a2	b4	$q4$
a2	b5	$q5$

Selection

A	B	P
a2	b2	$q3$
a2	b3	$q4$
a2	b2	$q5$

$\sigma_{A=a2}$

S(A,B)

A	B	P
a1	b1	$q1$
a1	b1	$q2$
a2	b2	$q3$
a2	b3	$q4$
a2	b2	$q5$

```
SELECT DISTINCT 'true'
FROM R, S
WHERE R.x = S.x
```

 $Q() = R(x), S(x,y)$

$$P(Q) = 1 - [1 - p_1 * (1 - (1 - q_1) * (1 - q_2))] * [1 - p_2 * (1 - (1 - q_3) * (1 - q_4) * (1 - q_5))]$$

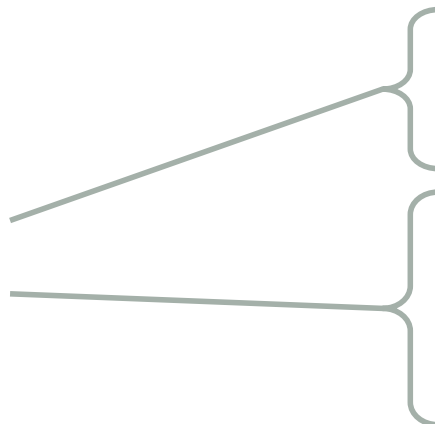
Example

R

x	P
a ₁	p ₁
a ₂	p ₂
a ₃	p ₃

S

x	y	P
a ₁	b ₁	q ₁
a ₁	b ₂	q ₂
a ₂	b ₃	q ₃
a ₂	b ₄	q ₄
a ₂	b ₅	q ₅



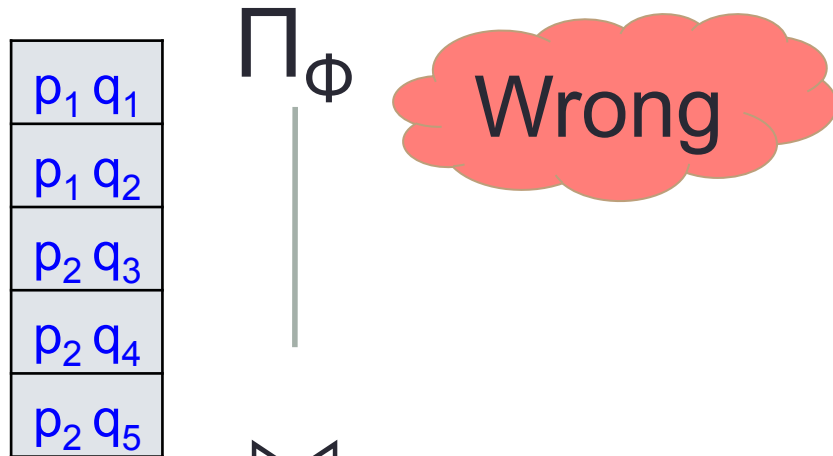
SELECT DISTINCT 'true'
FROM R, S
WHERE R.x = S.x

$Q() = R(x), S(x,y)$

$$P(Q) = 1 - [1 - p_1 * (1 - (1 - q_1) * (1 - q_2))] * [1 - p_2 * (1 - (1 - q_3) * (1 - q_4) * (1 - q_5))]$$

$$1 - (1 - p_1 q_1)(1 - p_1 q_2)(1 - p_2 q_3)(1 - p_2 q_4)(1 - p_2 q_5)$$

$$1 - \{1 - p_1 [1 - (1 - q_1)(1 - q_2)]\} * \{1 - p_2 [1 - (1 - q_3)(1 - q_4)(1 - q_5)]\}$$



x	P
a_1	p_1
a_2	p_2
a_3	p_3

R(x)

S(x,y)

x	y	P
a_1	b_1	q_1
a_1	b_2	q_2
a_2	b_3	q_3
a_2	b_4	q_4
a_2	b_5	q_5

R(x)

Π_x

S(x,y)

Safe Plans

- Fix a schema for the probabilistic database
 - E.g. all relations are tuple-independent, or BID with a given key

Definition: A plan is **safe** if it computes probabilities correctly

- **Query optimization** = find a safe plan

Lesson 1

- Equivalent plans may become in-equivalent when interpreted as extensional plans
- A correct extensional plan is called a safe plan
- Goal: find a safe plan!
- Does every query have a safe plan?

Unsafe Queries

R

X	P
x1	p1
x2	p2

S

X	Y
x1	y1
x1	y2
x2	y2

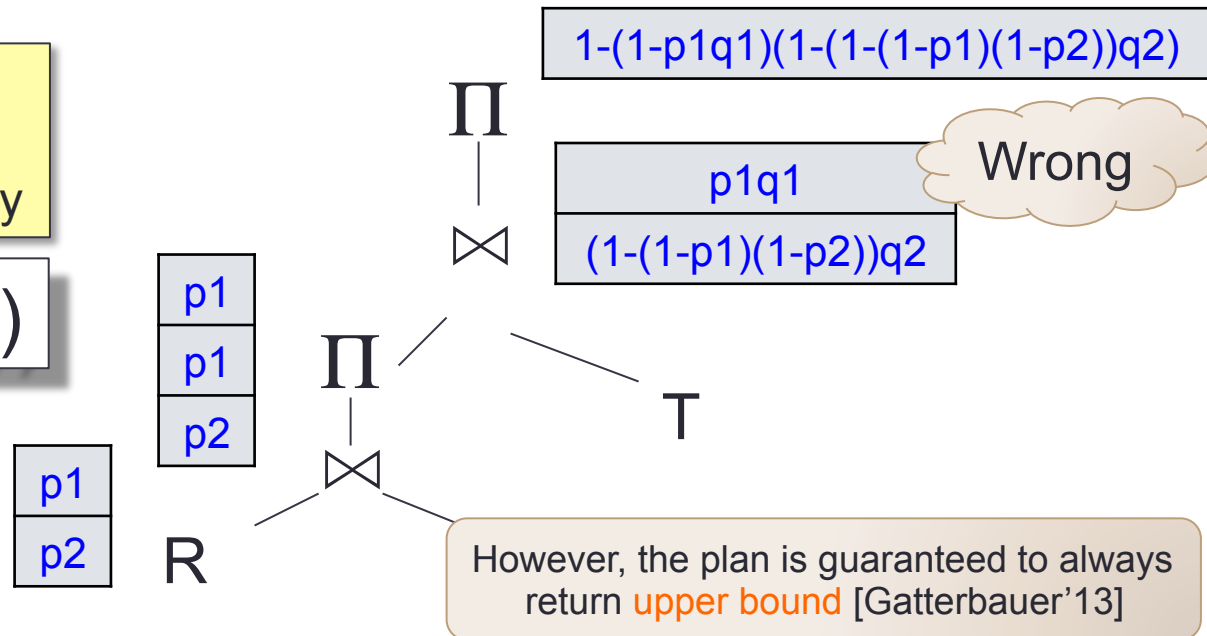
T

Y	P
y1	q1
y2	q2

SELECT DISTINCT 'yes'
FROM R, S, T
WHERE R.x = S.x and S.y = T.y

H_0 :- R(x), S(x,y), T(y)

#P-hard



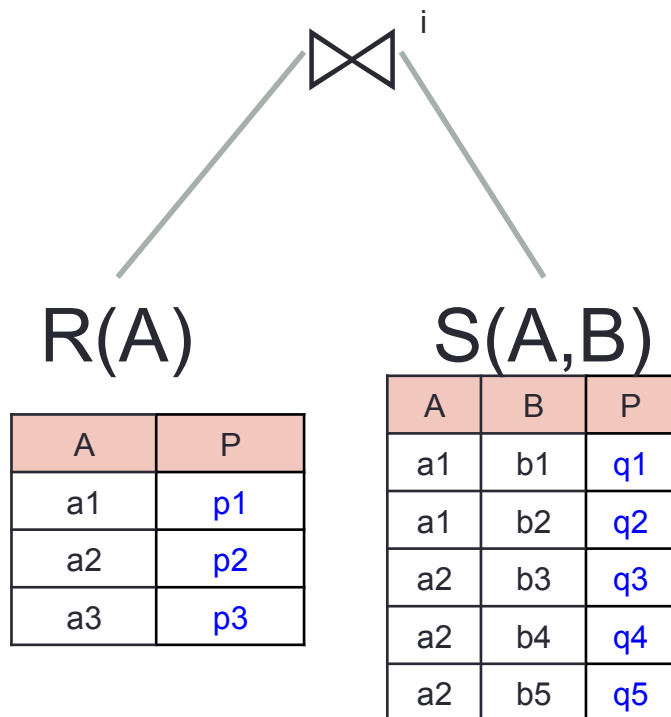
Discussion

- **Safe queries** admit a safe plan, and can be computed efficiently
- **Unsafe queries** do not admit safe plans, and we will prove that they cannot be computed efficiently
- Every extensional plan (safe or unsafe) can be written directly in SQL – will illustrate with postgres
- Every query (safe/unsafe) admits extensional plans that compute upper bounds, or lower bounds of its probability

Extensional Plans in Postgres

A	B	P
a1	b1	$p1 \cdot q1$
a1	b2	$p1 \cdot q2$
a2	b3	$p2 \cdot q3$
a2	b4	$p2 \cdot q4$
a2	b5	$p2 \cdot q5$

```
SELECT R.A, S.B, R.P*S.P
FROM   R, S
WHERE  R.A=S.A
```



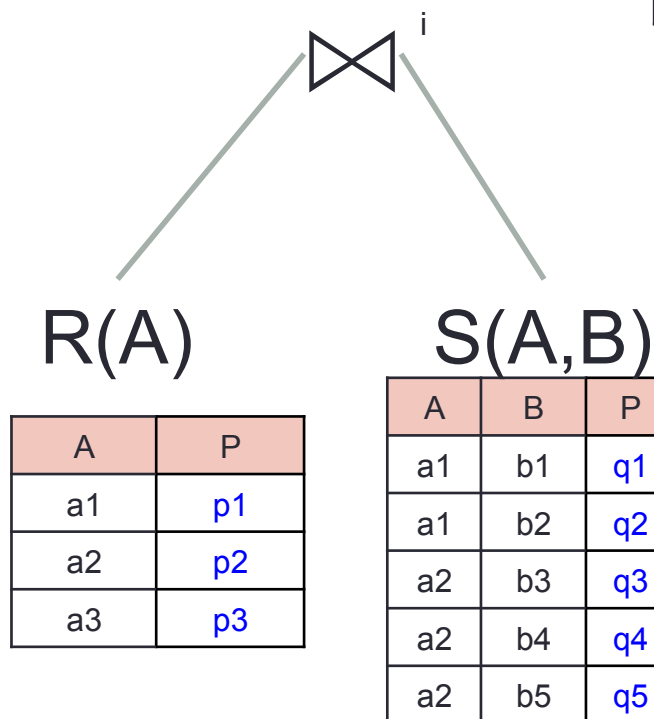
Extensional Plans in Postgres

A	B	P
a1	b1	$p1 \cdot q1$
a1	b2	$p1 \cdot q2$
a2	b3	$p2 \cdot q3$
a2	b4	$p2 \cdot q4$
a2	b5	$p2 \cdot q5$

```
SELECT R.A, S.B, R.P*S.P
FROM   R, S
WHERE  R.A=S.A
```

```
SELECT S.A, 1.0-prod(1.0 - S.p)
FROM     S
GROUP BY S.A
```

A	P
a1	$1 - (1-q1) \cdot (1-q2)$
a2	$1 - (1-q3) \cdot (1-q4) \cdot (1-q5)$



$\prod_A^i$

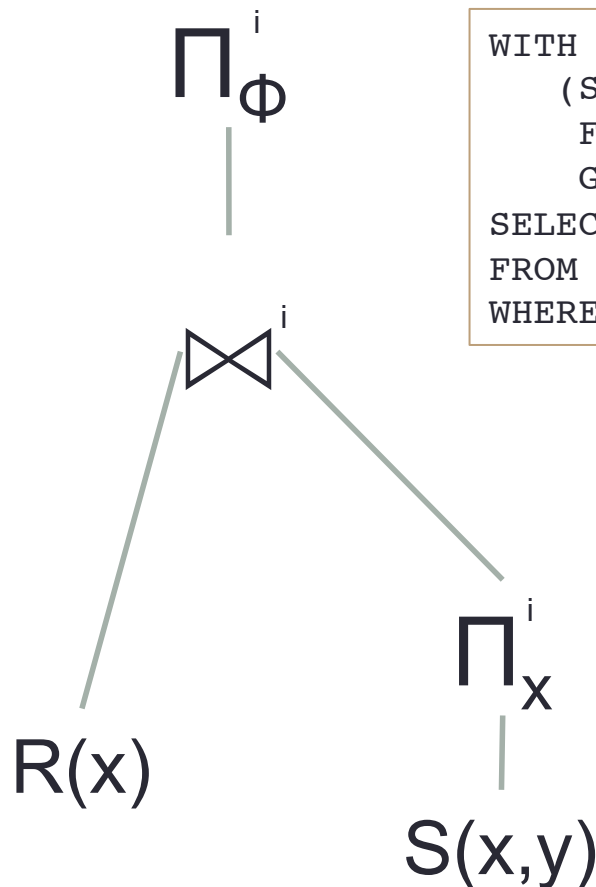
S(A,B)

A	B	P
a1	b1	$q1$
a1	b2	$q2$
a2	b3	$q3$
a2	b4	$q4$
a2	b5	$q5$

```
create or replace
function combine_prod(float, float)
returns float as
'select $1 * $2' language SQL;
create or replace
function final_prod(float)
returns float as
'select $1' language SQL;
drop aggregate if exists prod (float);
create aggregate prod(float)
(
  sfunc = combine_prod,
  stype = float,
  finalfunc = final_prod,
  initcond = '1.0'
);
```

Extensional Plans in Postgres

```
SELECT DISTINCT 'true'
FROM R, S
WHERE R.x = S.x
```



```
WITH Temp AS
  (SELECT S.x, 1.0-prod(1.0 - S.p) as p
   FROM S
   GROUP BY S.x)
SELECT 'true' as z, 1.0-prod(1.0 - R.P * Temp.P) as p
FROM R, Temp
WHERE R.x = Temp.x
```

Try this in postgres:

```

-----
-- First step: download postgres from http://www.postgresql.org/
-- Second step: run the command "createdb pdb"
-- Third step: run the command "psql pdb" then cut/paste commands below
-----
-- define an aggregate function to compute the product
create or replace function combine_prod (float, float) returns float as 'select $1 * $2' language SQL;
create or replace function final_prod (float) returns float as 'select $1' language SQL;
drop aggregate if exists prod (float);
create aggregate prod (float)
(
  sfunc = combine_prod,
  stype = float,
  finalfunc = final_prod,
  initcond = '1.0'
);

-----
-- simple tables, similar to those used in the tutorial
create table R(z char(8), x char(8), p float);
create table S(x char(8), y char(8), p float);

insert into R values('c', 'a1', 0.5);
insert into R values('c', 'a2', 0.5);
insert into R values('c', 'a3', 0.5);

insert into S values('a1', 'b1', 0.5);
insert into S values('a1', 'b2', 0.5);
insert into S values('a2', 'b2', 0.5);
insert into S values('a2', 'b3', 0.5);
insert into S values('a2', 'b4', 0.5);

-- computing the query  $Q(z) = R(z,x), S(x,y)$ 
-- a safe plan:
with Temp as
  (select S.x, 1.0-prod(1.0-p) as p
   from S
   group by S.x)
select R.z, 1.0-prod(1-R.p*Temp.p)
from R, Temp
where R.x=Temp.x
group by R.z;

-- an unsafe plan; guaranteed to return an upper bound on the probability
select R.z, 1.0-prod(1-R.p*S.p)
from R, S
where R.x=S.x
group by R.z;

```

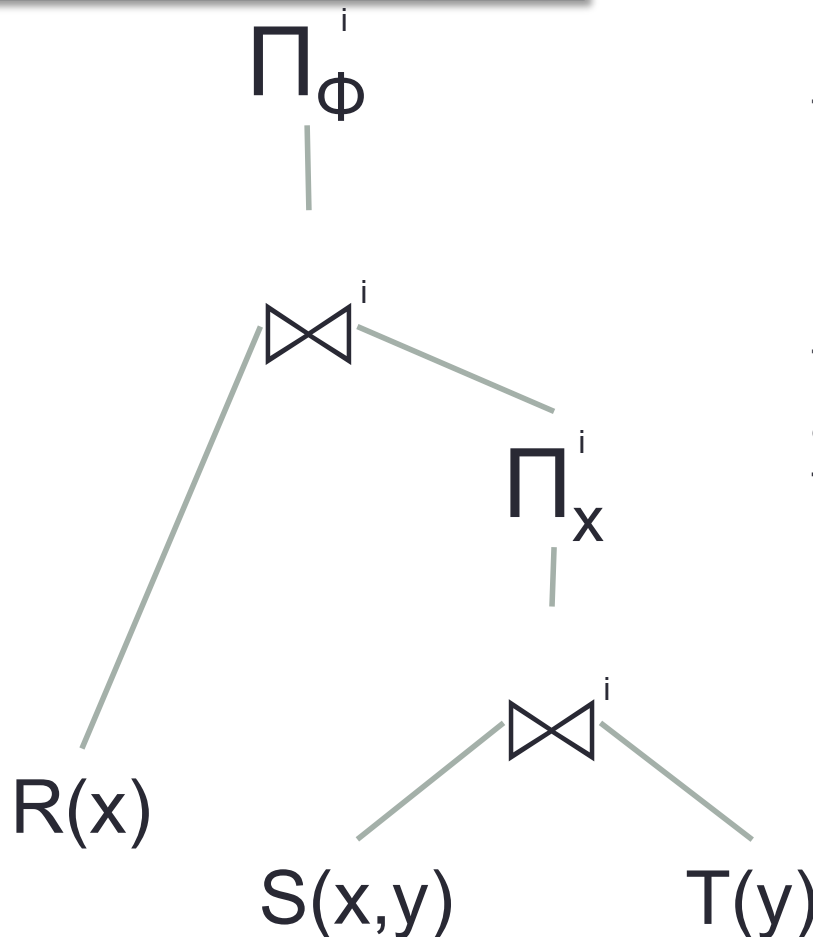
Extensional Plans in Postgres

```
SELECT DISTINCT 'yes'  
FROM R, S, T  
WHERE R.x = S.x and S.y = T.y
```

This query is **unsafe**

The plan is **unsafe**, but guaranteed to return a probability that is an **upper bound**.

The same plan is guaranteed to return a **lower bound**, by modifying appropriately the probabilities in T



Try this in postgres:

```

-----
-- The following approximation plans for unsafe queries are from
-- Gatterbauer, Suciu: Oblivious Bounds on the Probability of Boolean Functions

-- create a third table
create table T(y char(8), p float);

insert into T values('b1', 0.5);
insert into T values('b2', 0.5);
insert into T values('b3', 0.5);
insert into T values('b4', 0.5);

-- computing the query  $Q(z) = R(z,x), S(x,y), T(y)$ 
-- This query has no safe plans

-- Next two unsafe plans compute upper bounds on the probability:
-- Unsafe plan #1
with Temp as
  (select S.x, 1.0-prod(1.0-S.p*T.p) as p
   from S,T
   where S.y=T.y
   group by S.x)
select R.z, 1.0-prod(1-R.p*Temp.p)
from R, Temp
where R.x=Temp.x
group by R.z;

-- Unsafe plan #2
with Temp as
  (select R.z,S.y,1.0-prod(1.0-R.p*S.p) as p
   from R,S
   where R.x=S.x
   group by R.z,S.y)
select Temp.z, 1.0-prod(1-Temp.p*T.p)
from Temp, T
where Temp.y=T.y
group by Temp.z;

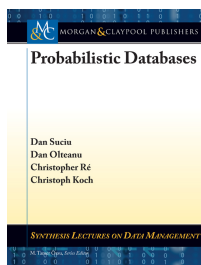
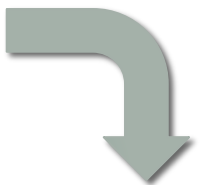
-- Next two unsafe plans compute lower bounds on the probability:
with newT as
  (select T.y, 1-exp((ln(1-T.p))/count(*)) as p
   from S,T
   where S.y=T.y
   group by T.y, T.p),
Temp as
  (select S.x, 1.0-prod(1.0-S.p*newT.p) as p
   from S,newT
   where S.y=newT.y
   group by S.x)
select R.z, 1.0-prod(1-R.p*Temp.p)
from R, Temp
where R.x=Temp.x
group by R.z;

with newR as
  (select R.z, R.x, 1-exp((ln(1-R.p))/count(*)) as p
   from R,S
   where R.x=S.x
   group by R.z,R.x,R.p),
Temp as
  (select newR.z, S.y, 1.0-prod(1.0-newR.p*S.p) as p
   from newR, S
   where newR.x=S.x
   group by newR.z, S.y)
select Temp.z, 1.0-prod(1-Temp.p*T.p)
from Temp, T
where Temp.y=T.y
group by Temp.z;

```

Lesson 2

- You don't need a probabilistic database system in order to use a probabilistic database!
- What you need is to know really well SQL and probability theory
- (You also need to read the book on probabilistic databases!)



Outline

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2. The Probabilistic Data Model | Chapter 2 |
| Part 2 | 3. Extensional Query Plans
4. The Complexity of Query Evaluation | Chapter 4.2
Chapter 3 |
| Part 3 | 5. Extensional Evaluation | Chapter 4.1 |
| Part 4 | 6. Intensional Evaluation
7. Conclusions | Chapter 5 |

The Model Counting Problem

- Given a Boolean Formula F , compute the number of satisfying assignments $\#F$
 - If F has n Boolean variables, then $0 \leq \#F \leq 2^n$
- SAT is the problem:
Given F , check if there exists a satisfying assignment
 SAT is NP -complete
- $\#SAT$ is the **model counting problem**:
Given F , compute $\#F$
 $\#SAT$ is $\#P$ -complete
- We can reduce SAT to $\#SAT$
- **Probability computation** is the problem:
if each Boolean variable X_i is set to true with probability p_i , compute $P(F)$,
the probability that F is true
Also $\#P$ -complete



Example

$$F = X_1Y_1 \vee X_1Y_2 \vee X_2Y_3 \vee X_2Y_4$$

The Model Counting Problem (#SAT): Compute #F

Example

$$F = X_1 Y_1 \vee X_1 Y_2 \vee X_2 Y_3 \vee X_2 Y_4$$

The **Model Counting Problem (#SAT)**: Compute #F

$$P(X_1) = p_1, \quad P(X_2) = p_2,$$

$$P(Y_1) = q_1, \quad P(Y_2) = q_2, \quad P(Y_3) = q_3, \quad P(Y_4) = q_4$$

The **Probability Computation Problem**: Compute $P(F)$

Example

$$F = X_1 Y_1 \vee X_1 Y_2 \vee X_2 Y_3 \vee X_2 Y_4$$

The **Model Counting Problem (#SAT)**: Compute #F

$$P(X_1) = p_1, \quad P(X_2) = p_2, \\ P(Y_1) = q_1, \quad P(Y_2) = q_2, \quad P(Y_3) = q_3, \quad P(Y_4) = q_4$$

The **Probability Computation Problem**: Compute $P(F)$

Re-group:
$$F = [X_1 (Y_1 \vee Y_2)] \vee [X_2 (Y_3 \vee Y_4)]$$

$$P(F) = 1 - [1 - p_1(1 - (1 - q_1)(1 - q_2))] [1 - p_2(1 - (1 - q_3)(1 - q_4))]$$

Example

$$F = X_1 Y_1 \vee X_1 Y_2 \vee X_2 Y_3 \vee X_2 Y_4$$

The **Model Counting Problem (#SAT)**: Compute #F

$$P(X_1) = p_1, P(X_2) = p_2, \\ P(Y_1) = q_1, P(Y_2) = q_2, P(Y_3) = q_3, P(Y_4) = q_4$$

The **Probability Computation Problem**: Compute $P(F)$

Re-group:
$$F = [X_1 (Y_1 \vee Y_2)] \vee [X_2 (Y_3 \vee Y_4)]$$

$$P(F) = 1 - [1 - p_1(1 - (1 - q_1)(1 - q_2))] [1 - p_2(1 - (1 - q_3)(1 - q_4))]$$

$$\#F = 2^6 P(F), \text{ when } p_1 = \dots = q_4 = 0.5$$

$$\#F = 34$$

Now let's try this:

$$F = X_1X_2 \vee X_1X_3 \vee X_2X_3$$

Now let's try this:

$$F = X_1X_2 \vee X_1X_3 \vee X_2X_3$$

No clever grouping
seems possible.
Use brute force:

X_1	X_2	X_3	F	P
0	0	0	0	
0	0	1	0	
0	1	0	0	
0	1	1	1	$(1-p_1)p_2p_3$
1	0	0	0	
1	0	1	1	$p_1(1-p_2)p_3$
1	1	0	1	$p_1p_2(1-p_3)$
1	1	1	1	$p_1p_2p_3$

Now let's try this:

$$F = X_1X_2 \vee X_1X_3 \vee X_2X_3$$

No clever grouping
seems possible.
Use brute force:

$$P(F) = (1-p_1)p_2p_3 + p_1(1-p_2)p_3 + p_1p_2(1-p_3) + p_1p_2p_3$$

X_1	X_2	X_3	F	P
0	0	0	0	
0	0	1	0	
0	1	0	0	
0	1	1	1	$(1-p_1)p_2p_3$
1	0	0	0	
1	0	1	1	$p_1(1-p_2)p_3$
1	1	0	1	$p_1p_2(1-p_3)$
1	1	1	1	$p_1p_2p_3$

$$\#F = 4$$

Complexity of Model Counting

SAT is the problem: Given F , check if there exists a satisfying assignment

#SAT is the problem: Given F , compute $\#F$

Theorem [Valiant:1979] **#SAT** is **#P**-complete

NP = class of problems of the form “is there a witness ?” **SAT**

#P = class of problems of the form “how many witnesses ?” **#SAT**

Interesting fact:

The **decision** problem **2CNF** is in **PTIME**

The **counting** problem **#2CNF** is **#P**-complete

PP2DNF Formulas

Definition. A Positive, Partitioned 2DNF (**PP2DNF**) formula is:

$$F = X_{i1} Y_{j1} \vee X_{i1} Y_{j1} \vee \dots \vee X_{in} Y_{jn}$$

Example: $F = X_1 Y_3 \vee X_2 Y_1 \vee X_2 Y_3 \vee X_3 Y_2$

Theorem [Provan and Ball 1982]

Model counting for **PP2DNF** is **#P**-complete.

Even for such simple formulas, counting the number of models is **#P**-complete!

Queries are #P-Complete

Theorem. [Dalvi&S.04] Consider the query $H_0 = R(x), S(x,y), T(y)$
 The problem: given a probabilistic database D , compute $P(H_0)$
 is #P-complete in the size of D

Proof: by reduction from #PP2DNF

Example: suppose $F = X_1 Y_1 \vee X_1 Y_2 \vee X_2 Y_2$

R

X	P
x1	0.5
x2	0.5

S

X	Y
x1	y1
x1	y2
x2	y2

T

Y	P
y1	0.5
y2	0.5

Then $P(F) = P(H_0)$

Where We Are

- Safe queries have safe plans: in PTIME
- Unsafe queries have no safe plans: provably #P-complete
- Problem: for a given query, determine if it is safe.
 - Next: Conjunctive Queries without Self-joins
 - Later: Unions of Conjunctive Queries

Review: Conjunctive Queries

A conjunctive query:

$$Q(z) = \exists x \exists t . (\text{Owner}(z,x) \wedge \text{Location}(x,t, \text{"Office444"}))$$

Same as:

$$Q(z) = \text{Owner}(z,x), \text{Location}(x,t, \text{"Office444"})$$

Review: Conjunctive Queries

A conjunctive query:

$$Q(z) = \exists x \exists t . (\text{Owner}(z,x) \wedge \text{Location}(x,t, \text{"Office444"}))$$

Same as:

atom

atom

$$Q(z) = \text{Owner}(z,x), \text{Location}(x,t, \text{"Office444"})$$

z=head variable

x, t = existential variables

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atom

$$Q(z) = \text{Owner}(z,x), \text{Location}(x,t, \text{"Office444"})$$

z=head variable

x, t = existential variables

A conjunctive query has **self-joins** if it has repeated atoms:

$$Q() = R(z,x_1), S(z,x_1,y_1), T(z,x_2), S(z,x_2,y_2)$$

$$Q() = R(x,y), R(y,z)$$

Review: Conjunctive Queries

A conjunctive query:

$$Q(z) = \exists x \exists t . (\text{Owner}(z,x) \wedge \text{Location}(x,t, \text{"Office444"}))$$

Same as:

atom

atom

$$Q(z) = \text{Owner}(z,x), \text{Location}(x,t, \text{"Office444"})$$

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A conjunctive query has **self-joins** if it has repeated atoms:

$$Q() = R(z,x_1), S(z,x_1,y_1), T(z,x_2), S(z,x_2,y_2)$$

$$Q() = R(x,y), R(y,z)$$

Conjunctive queries **without self-joins** (no repeated atoms):

$$Q() = R(x), S(x,y)$$

$$H_0() = R(x), S(x,y), T(y)$$

Hierarchical Queries

$\text{at}(x)$ = set of atoms containing the variable x in a key position

Definition A query Q is **hierarchical** if for all existential variables x, y :

$$\text{at}(x) \subseteq \text{at}(y) \quad \text{or} \quad \text{at}(y) \subseteq \text{at}(x) \quad \text{or} \quad \text{at}(x) \cap \text{at}(y) = \emptyset$$

Hierarchical Queries

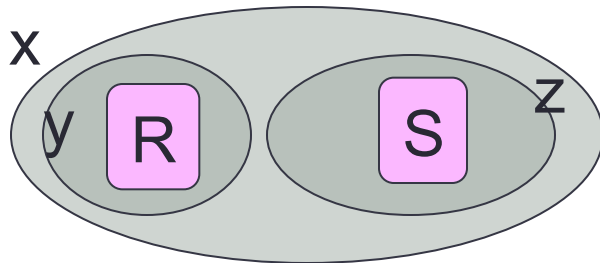
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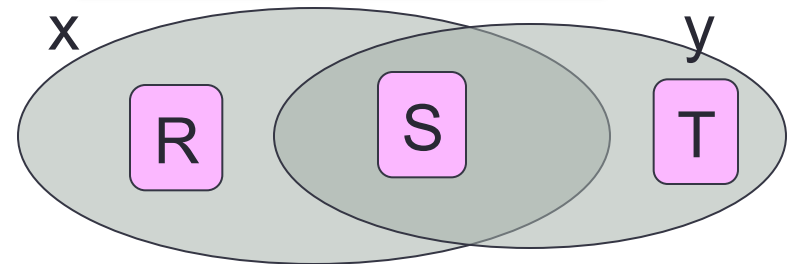
Hierarchical

$$Q = R(x, y), S(x, z)$$



Non-hierarchical

$$H_0 = R(x), S(x, y), T(y)$$



The Small Dichotomy Theorem

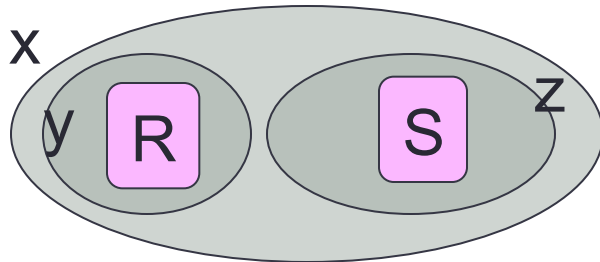
Fix a schema for probabilistic databases where all tuples are independent

Theorem [Dalvi&S.04] For every conjunctive query Q w/o self-joins:

- If Q is hierarchical, then computing $P(Q)$ is in **PTIME**
- If Q is not hierarchical then computing $P(Q)$ is **#P**-complete

Hierarchical

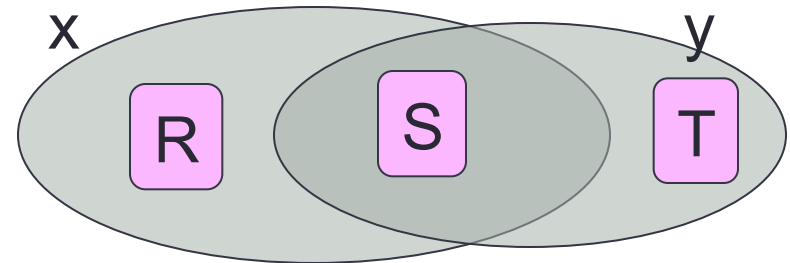
$Q = R(x,y), S(x,z)$



PTIME

Non-hierarchical

$H_0 = R(x), S(x, y), T(y)$



#P-complete

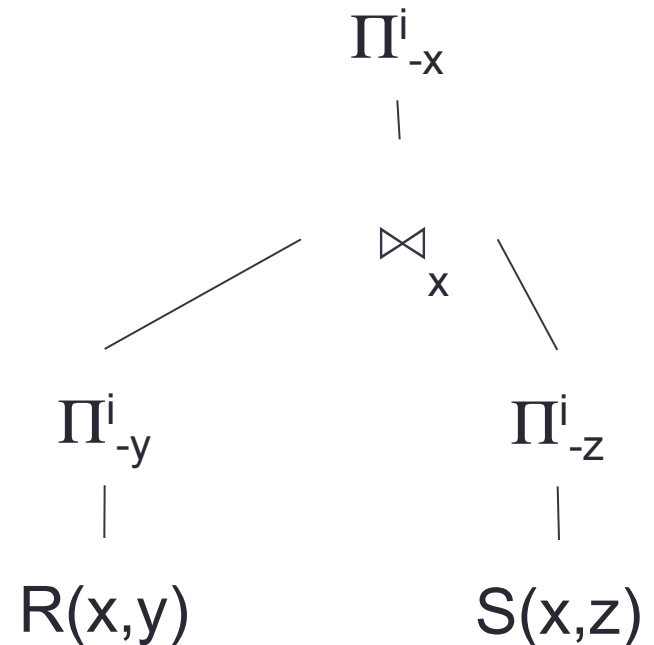
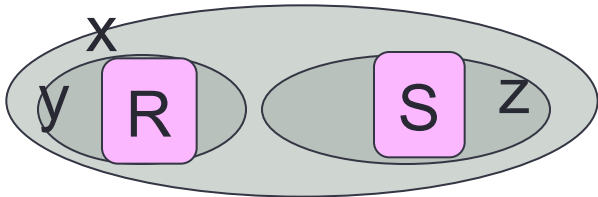
Proof: Part I

Hierarchical $\rightarrow$ PTIME

If Q is hierarchical, then use the query's hierarchy to derive a safe plan.

Example:

$Q = R(x,y), S(x,z)$



Proof: Part II

Non-hierarchical $\rightarrow$ #P-hard

If Q is not hierarchical, then there exists x, y :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{at}(x) &\not\subseteq \text{at}(y), \\ \text{at}(x) \cap \text{at}(y) &\neq \emptyset \\ \text{at}(x) &\not\supseteq \text{at}(y) \end{aligned}$$



There exists atoms R, S, T :

$$\begin{aligned} R &\in \text{at}(x) - \text{at}(y), \\ S &\in \text{at}(x) \cap \text{at}(y), \\ T &\in \text{at}(y) - \text{at}(x) \end{aligned}$$



$$Q = \dots R(x, \dots), S(x, y, \dots), T(y, \dots), \dots$$

...and we use a reduction from H_0

Summary of the Complexity

- Safe queries are in PTIME
- Unsafe queries are $\#P$ -complete
- **Small Dichotomy Theorem**: classifies every query in one of these two classes, but only applies to Conjunctive Queries without Self-joins
- **Big Dichotomy Theorem**: applies to all Unions of Conjunctive Queries – will discuss next

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Overview

- Review: Unions of Conjunctive Queries, UCQ
- Four simple rules for evaluating queries Q
- Big Dichotomy Theorem:
 1. If the rules succeed $\rightarrow Q$ is safe $\rightarrow$ in PTIME
 2. If the rules fail $\rightarrow Q$ is unsafe $\rightarrow$ #P-complete
- Compare to the Small Dichotomy Theorem, which applies only to conjunctive queries w/o self-joins:
 - Case 1 holds precisely when Q is hierarchical
 - Case 2 holds precisely when Q is not hierarchical

Review: Unions of Conjunctive Queries

Owners of items in either “Office444” or “Hall7”:

$$Q(z) = \exists x_1 \exists t_1 (\text{Owner}(z, x_1) \wedge \text{Location}(x_1, t_1, \text{“Office444”})) \vee \exists x_2 \exists t_2 (\text{Owner}(z, x_2) \wedge \text{Location}(x_2, t_2, \text{“Hall7”}))$$

Same as:

$$Q(z) = \text{Owner}(z, x_1), \text{Location}(x_1, t_1, \text{“Office444”}) \vee \text{Owner}(z, x_2), \text{Location}(x_2, t_2, \text{“Hall7”})$$

Review: Unions of Conjunctive Queries

Owners of items in either “Office444” or “Hall7”:

$$Q(z) = \exists x_1 \exists t_1 (\text{Owner}(z, x_1) \wedge \text{Location}(x_1, t_1, \text{"Office444"})) \vee \exists x_2 \exists t_2 (\text{Owner}(z, x_2) \wedge \text{Location}(x_2, t_2, \text{"Hall7"}))$$

Same as:

Union of conjunctive queries

$$Q(z) = \text{Owner}(z, x_1), \text{Location}(x_1, t_1, \text{"Office444"}) \vee \text{Owner}(z, x_2), \text{Location}(x_2, t_2, \text{"Hall7"})$$

Review: Unions of Conjunctive Queries

Owners of items in either “Office444” or “Hall7”:

$$Q(z) = \exists x_1 \exists t_1 (\text{Owner}(z, x_1) \wedge \text{Location}(x_1, t_1, \text{“Office444”})) \vee \exists x_2 \exists t_2 (\text{Owner}(z, x_2) \wedge \text{Location}(x_2, t_2, \text{“Hall7”}))$$

Same as:

Union of conjunctive queries

$$Q(z) = \text{Owner}(z, x_1), \text{Location}(x_1, t_1, \text{“Office444”}) \vee \text{Owner}(z, x_2), \text{Location}(x_2, t_2, \text{“Hall7”})$$

Same as:

$$Q(z) = \text{Owner}(z, x) \wedge \exists t [\text{Location}(x, t, \text{“Office444”}) \vee \text{Location}(x, t, \text{“Hall7”})]$$

Review: Unions of Conjunctive Queries

Owners of items in either “Office444” or “Hall7”:

$$Q(z) = \exists x_1 \exists t_1 (\text{Owner}(z, x_1) \wedge \text{Location}(x_1, t_1, \text{“Office444”})) \vee \exists x_2 \exists t_2 (\text{Owner}(z, x_2) \wedge \text{Location}(x_2, t_2, \text{“Hall7”}))$$

Same as:

Union of conjunctive queries

$$Q(z) = \text{Owner}(z, x_1), \text{Location}(x_1, t_1, \text{“Office444”}) \vee \text{Owner}(z, x_2), \text{Location}(x_2, t_2, \text{“Hall7”})$$

Same as:

$$Q(z) = \text{Owner}(z, x) \wedge \exists t [\text{Location}(x, t, \text{“Office444”}) \vee \text{Location}(x, t, \text{“Hall7”})]$$

We will use these laws:

1. Distributivity law for $\vee$, $\wedge$
2. Commutativity law for $\exists$, $\vee$: $(\exists x P(x)) \vee (\exists y T(y)) = \exists z (P(z) \vee T(z))$

Four Rules for Computing Query Probabilities

- Independent join
- Independent project
- Independent union
- Inclusion/exclusion

Rules apply to **Boolean Queries** only

Rule 1: Independent Join

$$P(Q1 \wedge Q2) = P(Q1)P(Q2)$$

If Q1 and Q2 are independent
(meaning: no common atoms)

Rule 1: Independent Join

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If Q1 and Q2 are independent
(meaning: no common atoms)

Rule 2: Independent Project

$$P(\exists z Q) = 1 - \prod_{a \in \text{Domain}} (1 - P(Q[a/z]))$$

If z is a “separator variable” in Q,
meaning that for any constants a,b,
Q[a/z] and Q[b/z] are independent

Rule 1: Independent Join

$$P(Q1 \wedge Q2) = P(Q1)P(Q2)$$

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(meaning: no common atoms)

Rule 2: Independent Project

$$P(\exists z Q) = 1 - \prod_{a \in \text{Domain}} (1 - P(Q[a/z]))$$

If z is a “separator variable” in Q,
meaning that for any constants a,b,
Q[a/z] and Q[b/z] are independent

Rule 3: Independent Union

$$P(Q1 \vee Q2) = 1 - (1 - P(Q1))(1 - P(Q2))$$

If Q1 and Q2 are independent
(meaning: no common atoms)

Example

$$Q_U = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1) \vee T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

$$= \exists x_1 \exists y_1 R(x_1) \wedge S(x_1, y_1) \vee \exists x_2 \exists y_2 T(x_2) \wedge S(x_2, y_2)$$

Example

$$Q_U = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1) \vee T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

$$= \exists x_1 \exists y_1 R(x_1) \wedge S(x_1, y_1) \vee \exists x_2 \exists y_2 T(x_2) \wedge S(x_2, y_2)$$

$$Q_U = \exists z [R(z) \wedge S(z, y_1) \vee T(z) \wedge S(z, y_2)]$$

Commute $\exists$ with $\vee$

Example

$$Q_U = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1) \vee T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

$$= \exists x_1 \exists y_1 R(x_1) \wedge S(x_1, y_1) \vee \exists x_2 \exists y_2 T(x_2) \wedge S(x_2, y_2)$$

$$Q_U = \exists z [R(z) \wedge S(z, y_1) \vee T(z) \wedge S(z, y_2)]$$

Commute $\exists$ with $\vee$

$$P(Q_U) = 1 - \prod_{a \in \text{Domain}} (1 - P[R(a) \wedge \underline{S(a, y_1)} \vee T(a) \wedge \underline{S(a, y_2)}])$$

Independent project: for $a \neq b$,
 $Q_U[a/z]$ and $Q_U[b/z]$ are independent
 because atoms $R(a), S(a, y_1), T(a), S(a, y_2)$
 are distinct from $R(b), S(b, y_1), T(b), S(b, y_2)$

Example

$$Q_U = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1) \vee T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

$$= \exists x_1 \exists y_1 R(x_1) \wedge S(x_1, y_1) \vee \exists x_2 \exists y_2 T(x_2) \wedge S(x_2, y_2)$$

$$Q_U = \exists z [R(z) \wedge S(z, y_1) \vee T(z) \wedge S(z, y_2)]$$

Commute $\exists$ with $\vee$

$$P(Q_U) = 1 - \prod_{a \in \text{Domain}} (1 - P[R(a) \wedge \underline{S(a, y_1)} \vee T(a) \wedge \underline{S(a, y_2)}])$$

Independent project: for $a \neq b$, $Q_U[a/z]$ and $Q_U[b/z]$ are independent because atoms $R(a), S(a, y_1), T(a), S(a, y_2)$ are distinct from $R(b), S(b, y_1), T(b), S(b, y_2)$

$$P(Q_U) = 1 - \prod_{a \in \text{Domain}} (1 - P[(R(a) \vee T(a)) \wedge \underline{\exists y. S(a, y)}])$$

Distribute $\wedge$ over $\vee$

Example

$$Q_U = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1) \vee T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

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Distribute $\wedge$ over $\vee$

$$P(Q_U) = 1 - \prod_{a \in \text{Domain}} (1 - P[R(a) \vee T(a)] P[\exists y. S(a, y)])$$

Independent join

Example

$$Q_U = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1) \vee T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

$$= \exists x_1 \exists y_1 R(x_1) \wedge S(x_1, y_1) \vee \exists x_2 \exists y_2 T(x_2) \wedge S(x_2, y_2)$$

$$Q_U = \exists z [R(z) \wedge S(z, y_1) \vee T(z) \wedge S(z, y_2)]$$

Commute $\exists$ with $\vee$

$$P(Q_U) = 1 - \prod_{a \in \text{Domain}} (1 - P[R(a) \wedge \underline{S(a, y_1)} \vee T(a) \wedge \underline{S(a, y_2)}])$$

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$$P(Q_U) = 1 - \prod_{a \in \text{Domain}} (1 - P[(R(a) \vee T(a)) \wedge \underline{\exists y. S(a, y)}])$$

Distribute $\wedge$ over $\vee$

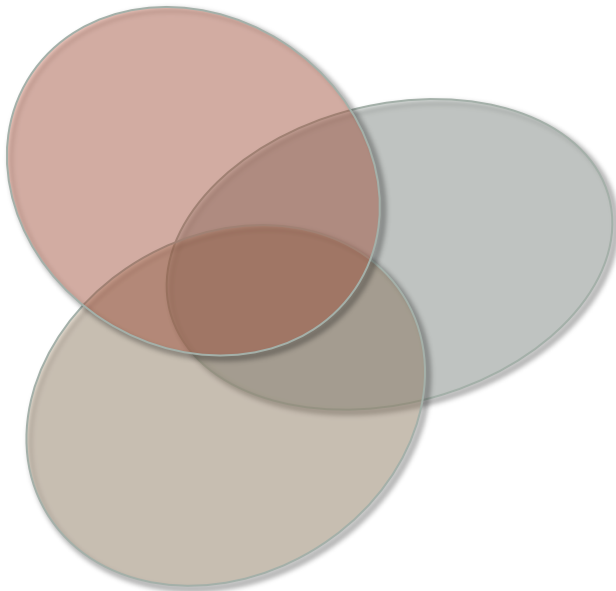
$$P(Q_U) = 1 - \prod_{a \in \text{Domain}} (1 - P[R(a) \vee T(a)] P[\exists y. S(a, y)])$$

Independent join

$$P(Q_U) = 1 - \prod_{a \in \text{Domain}} (1 - (1 - (1 - P[R(a)])(1 - P[T(a)])) (1 - \prod_{b \in \text{Domain}} (1 - P[S(a, b)])))$$

Rule 4: Inclusion-Exclusion

$$\begin{aligned} P(Q1 \wedge Q2 \wedge Q3) = & P(Q1) + P(Q2) + P(Q3) \\ & - P(Q1 \vee Q2) - P(Q1 \vee Q3) - P(Q2 \vee Q3) \\ & + P(Q1 \vee Q2 \vee Q3) \end{aligned}$$



Note: this is the dual of the more popular formula:

$$\begin{aligned} P(Q1 \vee Q2 \vee Q3) = & P(Q1) + P(Q2) + P(Q3) \\ & - P(Q1 \wedge Q2) - P(Q1 \wedge Q3) - P(Q2 \wedge Q3) \\ & + P(Q1 \wedge Q2 \wedge Q3) \end{aligned}$$

Example

$$Q_J = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1), T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

$$= [\exists x_1 \exists y_1 R(x_1) \wedge S(x_1, y_1)] \wedge [\exists x_2 \exists y_2 T(x_2) \wedge S(x_2, y_2)]$$

Example

$$Q_J = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1), T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

$$= [\exists x_1 \exists y_1 R(x_1) \wedge S(x_1, y_1)] \wedge [\exists x_2 \exists y_2 T(x_2) \wedge S(x_2, y_2)]$$

$$Q_J = Q_1 \wedge Q_2$$

where

$$Q_1 = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1)$$

$$Q_2 = T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

Example

$$Q_J = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1), T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2) = [\exists x_1 \exists y_1 R(x_1) \wedge S(x_1, y_1)] \wedge [\exists x_2 \exists y_2 T(x_2) \wedge S(x_2, y_2)]$$

$$Q_J = Q_1 \wedge Q_2$$

where

$$Q_1 = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1)$$

$$Q_2 = T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

$$P(Q_J) = P(Q_1) + P(Q_2) - P(Q_1 \vee Q_2)$$

Q_1 = a hierarchical conjunctive query w/o self-joins

Q_2 = similar

$Q_1 \vee Q_2 = Q_U$, which have see a couple of slides ago

Lesson 3

We need unions in order to handle self-joins!

- Conjunctive Queries = not a “natural” class of queries for Probabilistic DBs
- Unions of Conjunctive Queries = the “natural” class of queries

Unsafe Queries – When the Rules Fail

$$H_0 = R(x), S(x, y), T(y)$$

Unsafe Queries – When the Rules Fail

$$H_0 = R(x), S(x, y), T(y)$$

$$H_1 = R(x_0), S(x_0, y_0) \vee S(x_1, y_1), T(y_1)$$

$$= \exists z [R(z) \wedge S(z, y_0) \vee S(x_1, z) \wedge T(z)]$$

Unlike Q_U , here z occurs on different positions in S and we cannot apply Independent Project

Unsafe Queries – When the Rules Fail

$$H_0 = R(x), S(x, y), T(y)$$

$$H_1 = R(x_0), S(x_0, y_0) \vee S(x_1, y_1), T(y_1)$$

$$H_2 = R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0) \vee S_1(x_1, y_1), S_2(x_1, y_1) \vee S_2(x_2, y_2), T(y_2)$$

Unsafe Queries – When the Rules Fail

$$H_0 = R(x), S(x, y), T(y)$$

$$H_1 = R(x_0), S(x_0, y_0) \vee S(x_1, y_1), T(y_1)$$

$$H_2 = R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0) \vee S_1(x_1, y_1), S_2(x_1, y_1) \vee S_2(x_2, y_2), T(y_2)$$

$$H_3 = R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0) \vee S_1(x_1, y_1), S_2(x_1, y_1) \vee S_2(x_2, y_2), S_3(x_2, y_2) \vee S_3(x_3, y_3), T(y_3)$$

■ ■ ■

Unsafe Queries – When the Rules Fail

$$H_0 = R(x), S(x, y), T(y)$$

$$H_1 = R(x_0), S(x_0, y_0) \vee S(x_1, y_1), T(y_1)$$

$$H_2 = R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0) \vee S_1(x_1, y_1), S_2(x_1, y_1) \vee S_2(x_2, y_2), T(y_2)$$

$$H_3 = R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0) \vee S_1(x_1, y_1), S_2(x_1, y_1) \vee S_2(x_2, y_2), S_3(x_2, y_2) \vee S_3(x_3, y_3), T(y_3)$$

• • •

Theorem. Each query H_k is #P-hard

The proof is in [Dalvi&S, JACM'2012]

The Amazing Queries H_k

H_k is #P-hard.

But if we drop any one conjunctive query, then it is in PTIME

$$H_3 = R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0) \vee \cancel{S_1(x_1, y_1), S_2(x_1, y_1)} \vee S_2(x_2, y_2), S_3(x_2, y_2) \vee S_3(x_3, y_3), T(y_3)$$

Independent union

$$\begin{aligned} &= \exists z [S_2(x_2, z), S_3(x_2, z) \vee S_3(x_3, z), T(z)] \\ &= \exists z [\exists x_3 S_3(x_3, z)] \wedge [(\exists x_2 S_2(x_2, z)) \vee T(z)] \\ &= \text{etc} \end{aligned}$$

Where We Are

- We have seen examples of unsafe queries: H_k
 - But if a query Q has H_k as a subquery, it is not necessarily unsafe
- When the four rules succeed, then Q is safe
 - But **inclusion/exclusion** is insufficient: need to replace with **Mobius inversion formula**

We will discuss these issues
then state the **Big Dichotomy Theorem**

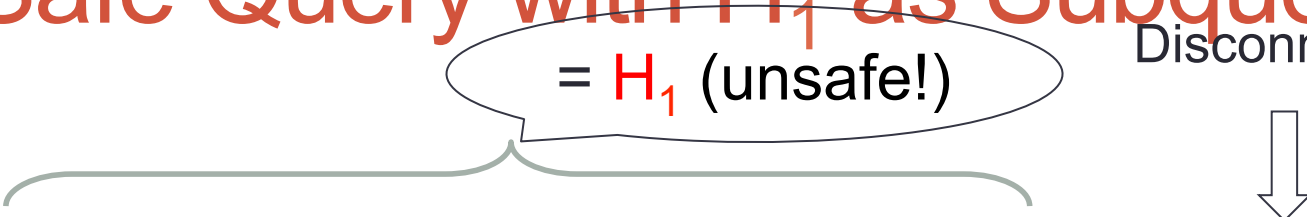
A Safe Query with H_1 as Subquery

$$Q_V = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1) \vee S(x_2, y_2), T(y_2) \vee R(x_3), T(y_3)$$

A Safe Query with H_1 as Subquery

= H_1 (unsafe!)

Disconnected query


$$Q_V = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1) \vee S(x_2, y_2), T(y_2) \vee R(x_3), T(y_3)$$

A Safe Query with H_1 as Subquery

$= H_1$ (unsafe!)

Disconnected query

DNF

$$Q_V = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1) \vee S(x_2, y_2), T(y_2) \vee R(x_3), T(y_3)$$

CNF

$$Q_V = [S(x_2, y_2), T(y_2) \vee R(x_3)] \wedge [R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1) \vee T(y_3)]$$

A Safe Query with H_1 as Subquery

$= H_1$ (unsafe!)

Disconnected query

DNF

$$Q_V = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1) \vee S(x_2, y_2), T(y_2) \vee R(x_3), T(y_3)$$

CNF

$$Q_V = [S(x_2, y_2), T(y_2) \vee R(x_3)] \wedge [R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1) \vee T(y_3)]$$

Inclusion/exclusion:

PTIME !

$$P(Q_V) = P(q_1 \wedge q_2) = P(q_1) + P(q_2) - P(q_1 \vee q_2)$$

$$= R(x_3) \vee T(y_3)$$

Inclusion/Exclusion is Insufficient

$$\begin{array}{llll}
 Q_W = [R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0) & \vee & S_2(x_2, y_2), S_3(x_2, y_2)] & \wedge \quad /* \text{Q1} */ \\
 [R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0) & \vee & S_3(x_3, y_3), T(y_3)] & \wedge \quad /* \text{Q2} */ \\
 [S_1(x_1, y_1), S_2(x_1, y_1) & \vee & S_3(x_3, y_3), T(y_3)] & \quad /* \text{Q3} */
 \end{array}$$

Inclusion/Exclusion is Insufficient

$$Q_W = [R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0) \vee S_2(x_2, y_2), S_3(x_2, y_2)] \wedge \text{ /* Q1 */}$$

$$[R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0) \vee S_3(x_3, y_3), T(y_3)] \wedge \text{ /* Q2 */}$$

$$[S_1(x_1, y_1), S_2(x_1, y_1) \vee S_3(x_3, y_3), T(y_3)] \text{ /* Q3 */}$$

$$P(Q_W) = P(Q_1) + P(Q_2) + P(Q_3) +$$

$$- P(Q_1 \vee Q_2) - P(Q_2 \vee Q_3) - P(Q_1 \vee Q_3)$$

$$+ P(Q_1 \vee Q_2 \vee Q_3)$$

= H_3 (hard !)

Also = H_3

Inclusion/Exclusion is Insufficient

$$Q_W = [R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0) \vee S_2(x_2, y_2), S_3(x_2, y_2)] \wedge \text{ /* Q1 */ } \\ [R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0) \vee S_3(x_3, y_3), T(y_3)] \wedge \text{ /* Q2 */ } \\ [S_1(x_1, y_1), S_2(x_1, y_1) \vee S_3(x_3, y_3), T(y_3)] \wedge \text{ /* Q3 */ }$$

PTIME

$$P(Q_W) = P(Q_1) + P(Q_2) + P(Q_3) + \\ - P(Q_1 \vee Q_2) - P(Q_2 \vee Q_3) - P(Q_1 \vee Q_3) \\ + P(Q_1 \vee Q_2 \vee Q_3)$$

= H_3 (hard !)Also = H_3

#P-hard

Inclusion/Exclusion is Insufficient

$$Q_W = [R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0) \vee S_2(x_2, y_2), S_3(x_2, y_2)] \wedge /* Q1 */$$

$$[R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0) \vee S_3(x_3, y_3), T(y_3)] \wedge /* Q2 */$$

$$[S_1(x_1, y_1), S_2(x_1, y_1) \vee S_3(x_3, y_3), T(y_3)] /* Q3 */$$

PTIME

$$P(Q_W) = P(Q_1) + P(Q_2) + P(Q_3) +$$

$$- P(Q_1 \vee Q_2) - P(Q_2 \vee Q_3) - P(Q_1 \vee Q_3)$$

$$+ P(Q_1 \vee Q_2 \vee Q_3)$$

PTIME

= H_3 (hard !)Also = H_3

#P-hard

August Ferdinand Möbius 1790-1868

- Möbius strip
- Möbius function μ in number theory
- Generalized to lattices [Stanley'97,Rota'09]
- And now to queries !



The CNF Lattice

See formal definition in the book.

Definition. The CNF lattice of $Q = Q_1 \wedge Q_2 \wedge \dots$ is:

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Example

$$Q_w = \begin{array}{llll} [R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0)] & \vee & [S_2(x_2, y_2), S_3(x_2, y_2)] & \wedge \quad /* \text{ } Q_1 \text{ } */ \\ [R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0)] & \vee & [S_3(x_3, y_3), T(y_3)] & \wedge \quad /* \text{ } Q_2 \text{ } */ \\ [S_1(x_1, y_1), S_2(x_1, y_1)] & \vee & [S_3(x_3, y_3), T(y_3)] & \quad /* \text{ } Q_3 \text{ } */ \end{array}$$

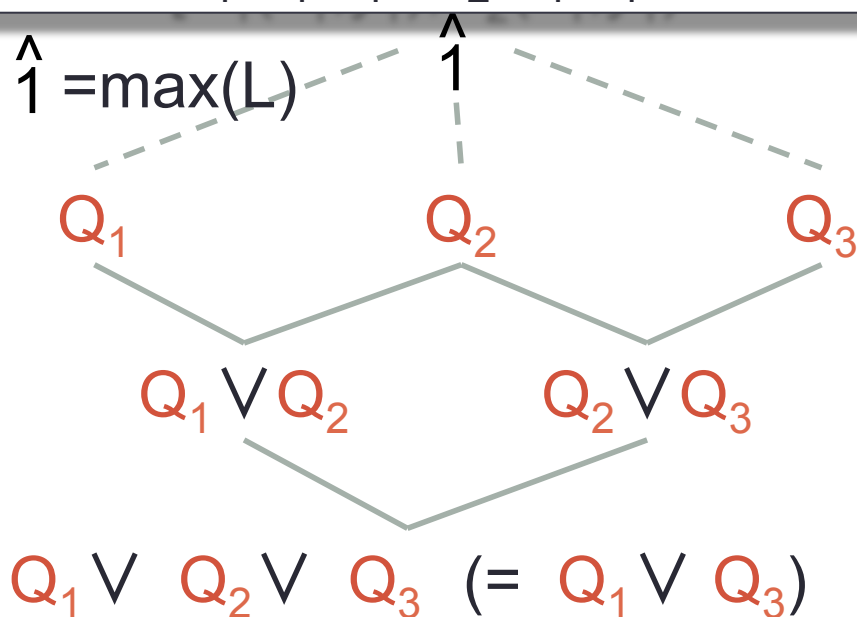
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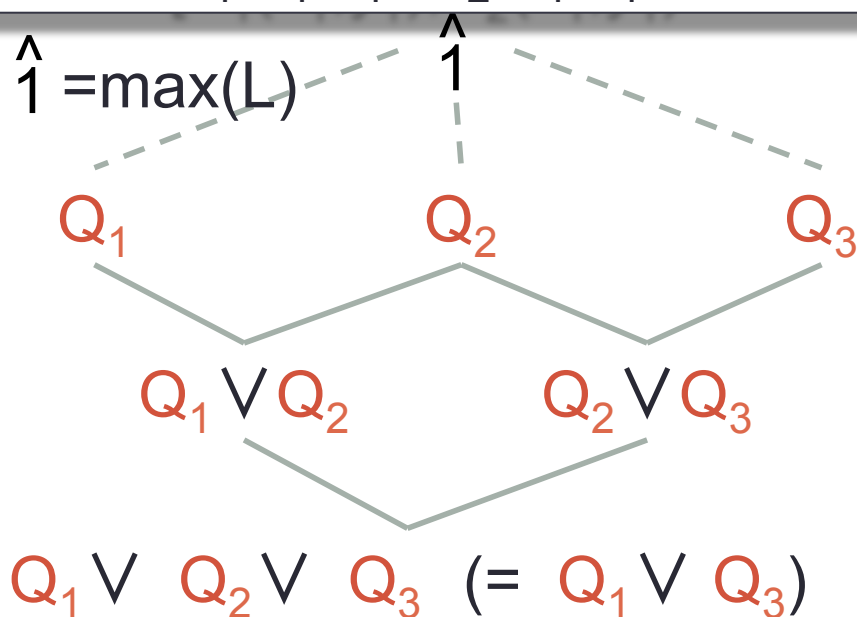
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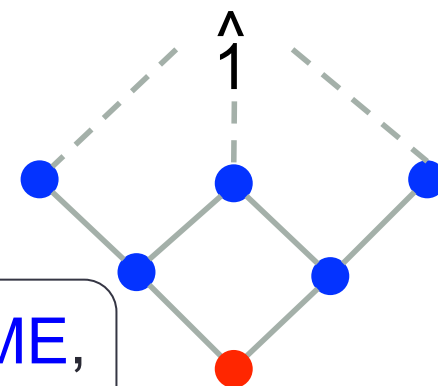
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Nodes • in **PTIME**,
Nodes • **#P hard**.





The Möbius' Function

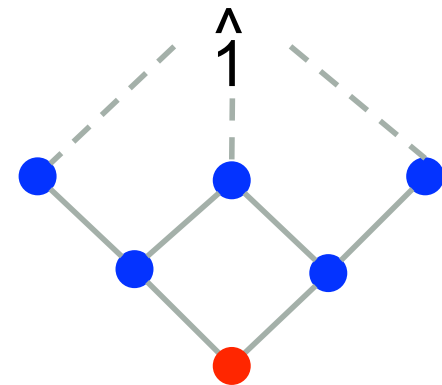
Def. The Möbius function:

$$\mu(\hat{1}, \hat{1}) = 1$$

$$\mu(u, \hat{1}) = - \sum_{u < v \leq \hat{1}} \mu(v, \hat{1})$$

Möbius' Inversion Formula:

$$P(Q) = - \sum_{Q_i < \hat{1}} \mu(Q_i, \hat{1}) P(Q_i)$$





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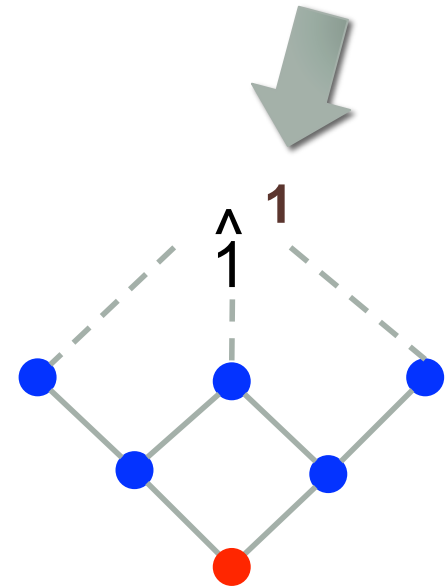
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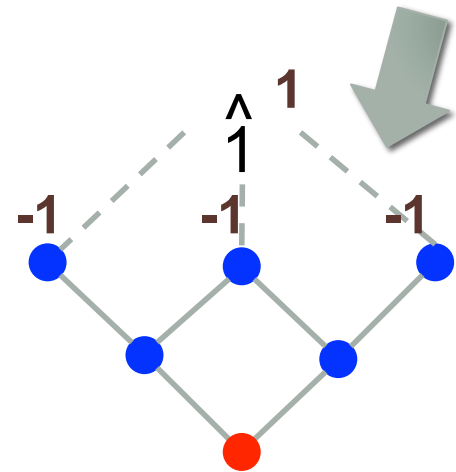
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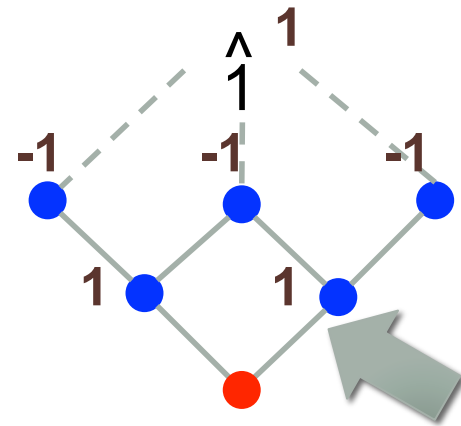
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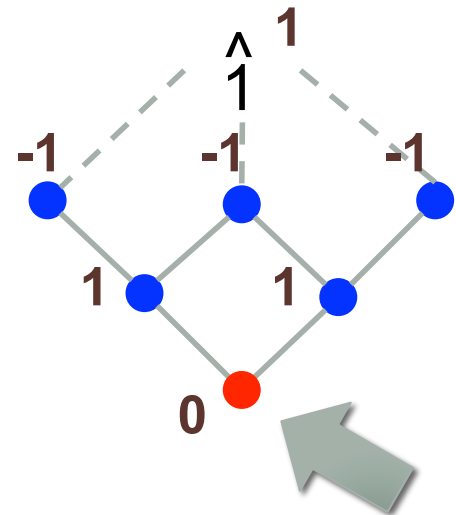
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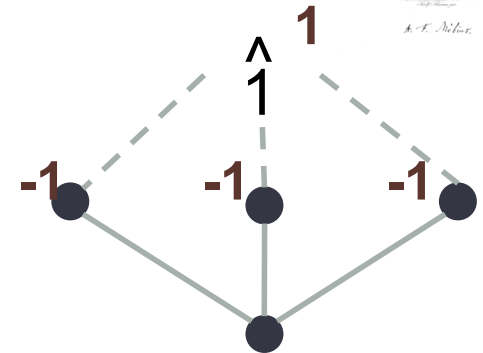


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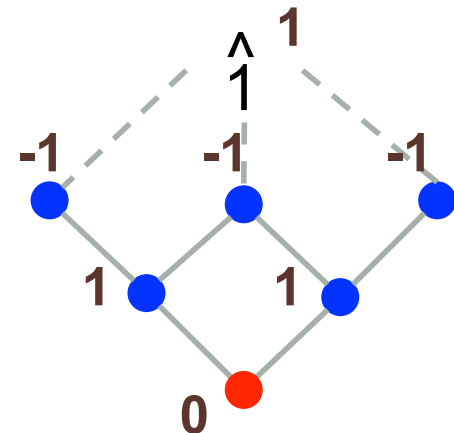
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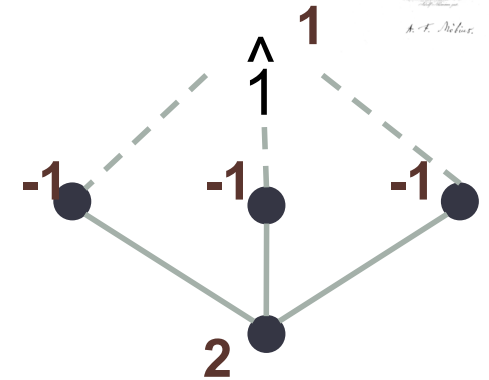


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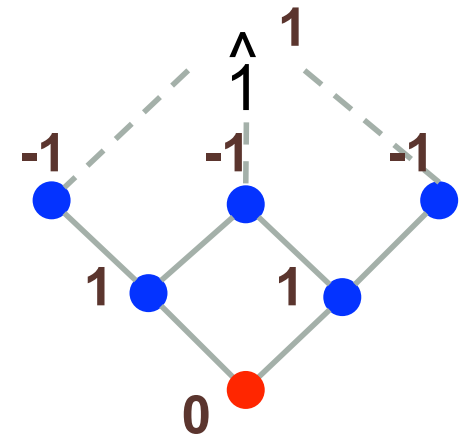
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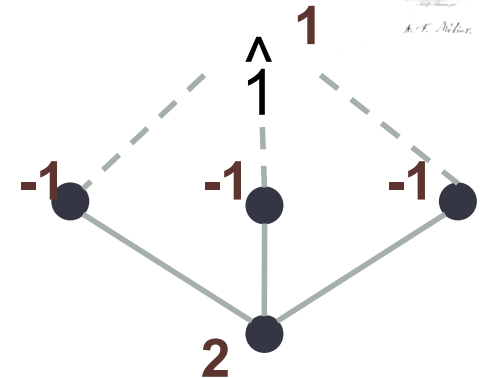


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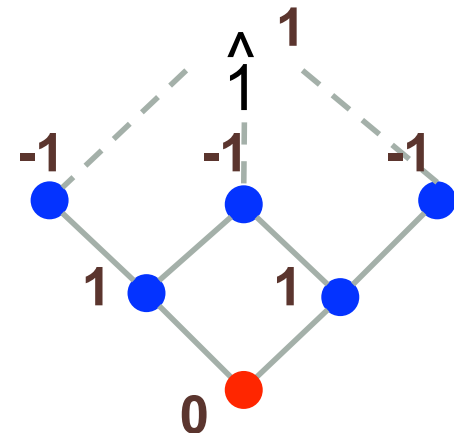
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New Rule

Inclusion/Exclusion

→ Möbius' Inversion Formula





The Big Dichotomy Theorem

Dichotomy Theorem Fix a UCQ query Q .

1. If rules terminates, then $P(Q)$ is in **PTIME**
2. If rules fail, then $P(Q)$ is **#P**-complete

The proof is in [Dalvi&S, JACM'2012]

Dichotomy into PTIME/#P-complete based on “syntax”
where “syntax” includes the Mobius function !

Lesson 5

- Four simple rules are all we need to compute query probabilities in PTIME:
 - Independent join
 - Independent project
 - Independent union
 - ~~Inclusion/Exclusion~~ → Mobius inversion formula
- Inclusion/exclusion is not used in modern model counting systems! It is specific to probabilistic databases

Representation Theorem

Do we really need the lattice and Mobius function?

Yes! For every lattice one can construct a query Q s.t.:

- Q is in PTIME if $\mu=0$
- Q is #P-complete if $\mu \neq 0$
- This suggests that using the Mobius function is unavoidable in Probabilistic Databases

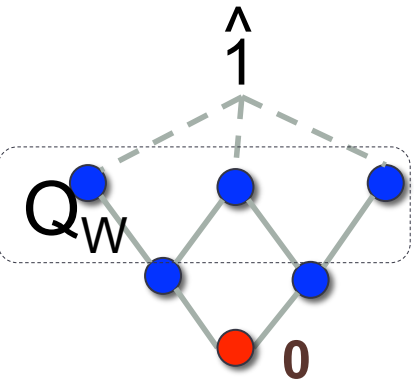
Representation Theorem

THEOREM Every lattice L is the CNF lattice of a query Q , s.t.

- The query at $\hat{0}$ ($= \min(L)$) is **hard for #P**
- All other queries are in **PTIME**

Q is in PTIME iff $\mu(\hat{0}, \hat{1}) = 0$!

Examples: **PTIME !**



Representation Theorem

THEOREM Every lattice L is the CNF lattice of a query Q , s.t.

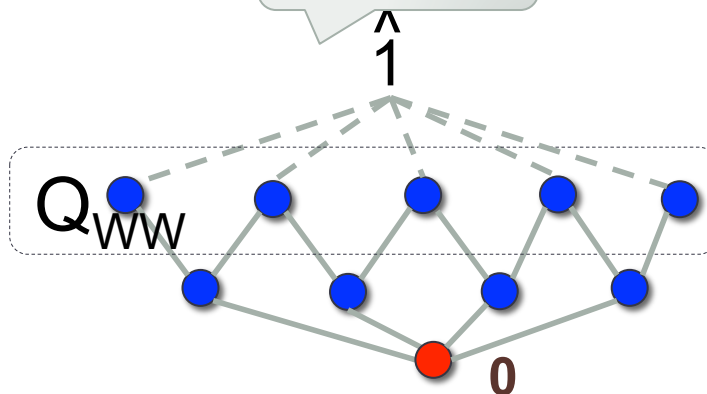
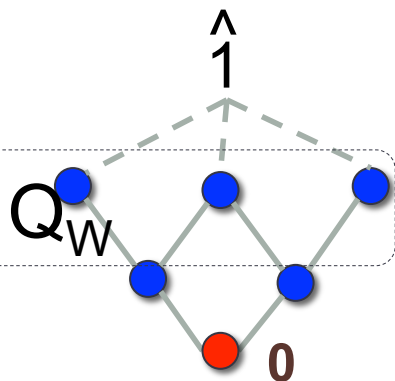
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Examples:

PTIME

PTIME !



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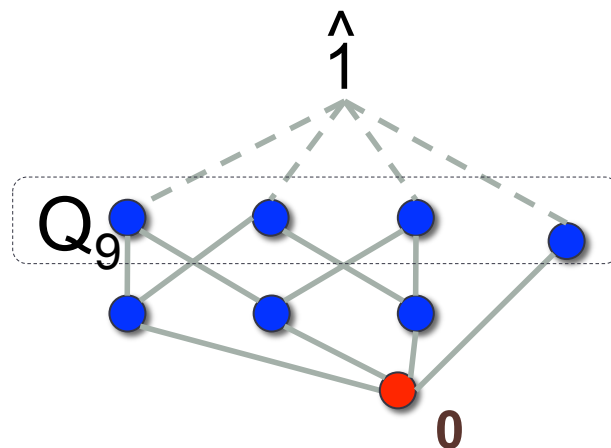
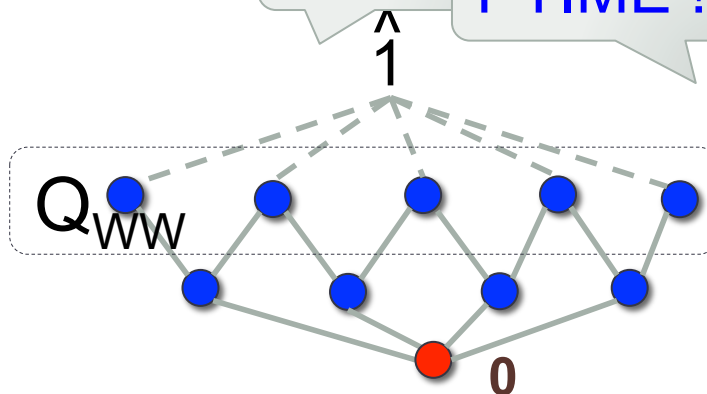
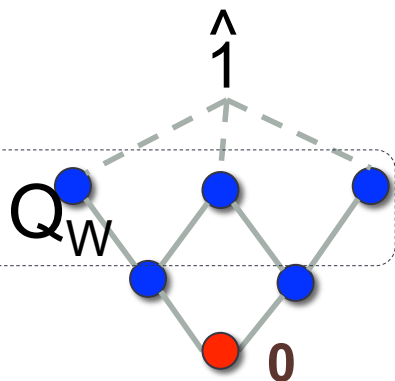
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Examples:

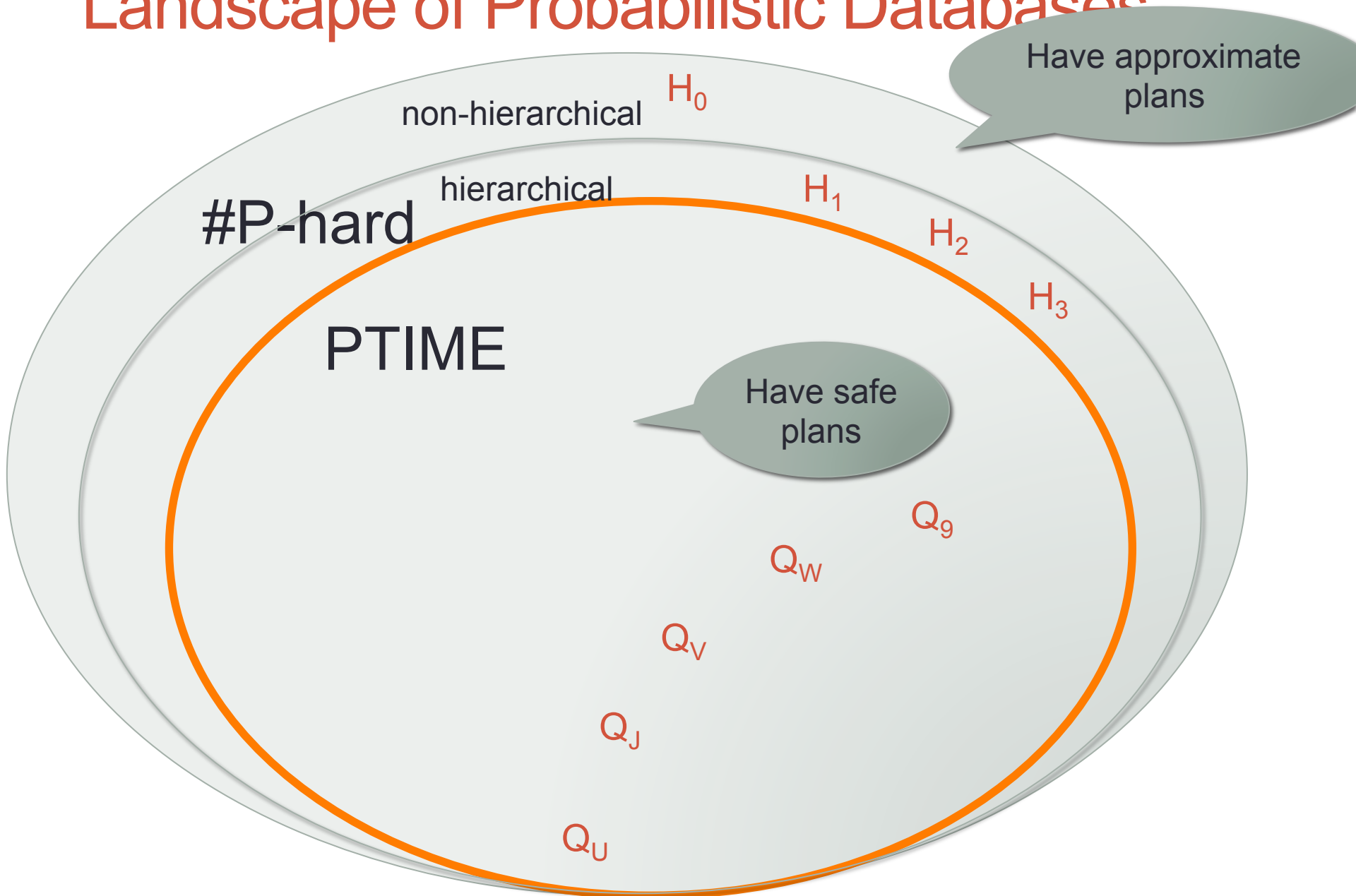
PTIME

PTIME

PTIME !



Landscape of Probabilistic Databases



Extensional Plans for UCQ

- Recall extensional operators for Conjunctive Queries w/o self-joins
 - Independent join: $\bowtie$
 - Independent projection Π
 - Selection σ
- Now we need two more operators:
 - Independent union: $\cup^i$
 - Mobius sum: $\Sigma^{\mu_1, \mu_2, \mu_3}$

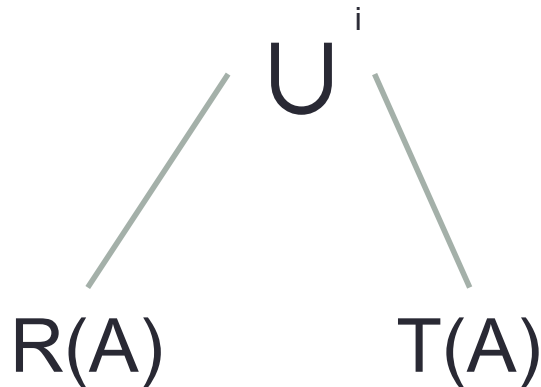
Independent-Union and Mobius-Sum

A	P
a1	p1
a2	$1-(1-p_2)(1-q_2)$
a3	$1-(1-p_3)(1-q_3)$
a4	q4

```

SELECT 1.0 -
  (1.0 - (CASE
    WHEN R.p IS null THEN 0
    ELSE R.p END))*
  (1.0 - (CASE
    WHEN S.p IS null THEN 0
    ELSE S.p END))
FROM R full outer join S on r.x=s.x;

```



A	P
a1	p1
a2	p2
a3	p3

A	P
a2	q2
a3	q3
a4	q4

Independent-Union and Mobius-Sum

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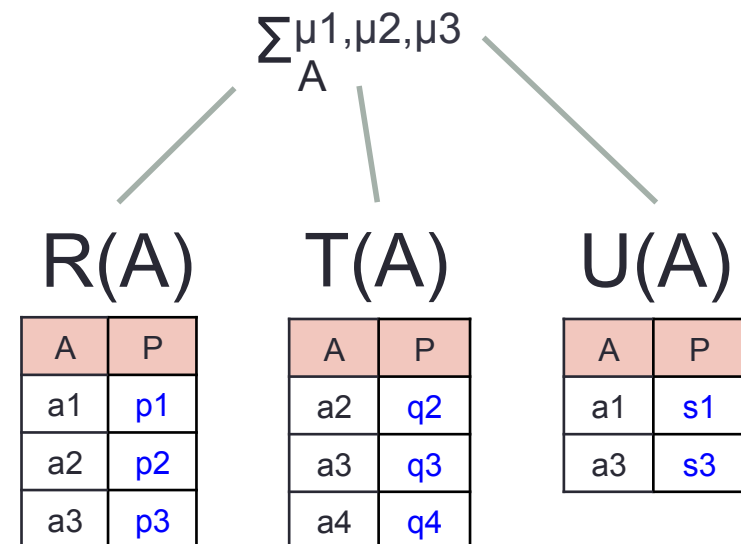
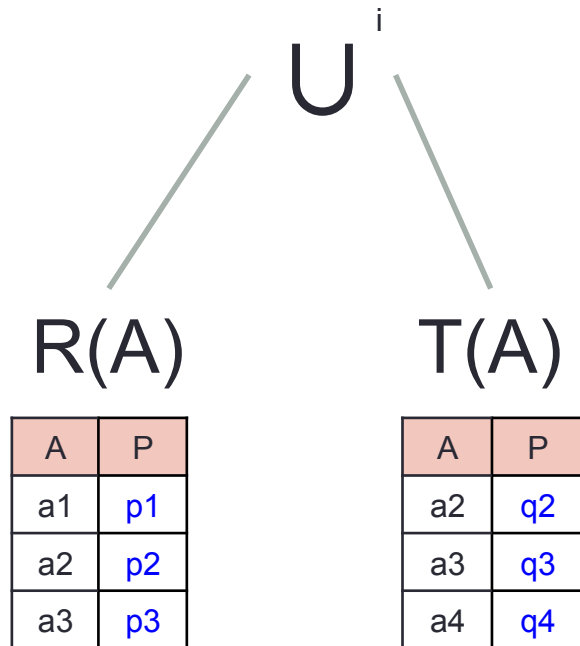
```

A	P
a1	$\mu_1 \cdot p_1 + \mu_3 \cdot s_1$
a2	$\mu_1 \cdot p_2 + \mu_3 \cdot q_2 + \mu_3 \cdot s_2$
a3	$\mu_1 \cdot p_3 + \mu_3 \cdot q_2 + \mu_3 \cdot s_3$
a4	$\mu_3 \cdot q_4$

```

SELECT ...
-- long query
-- here

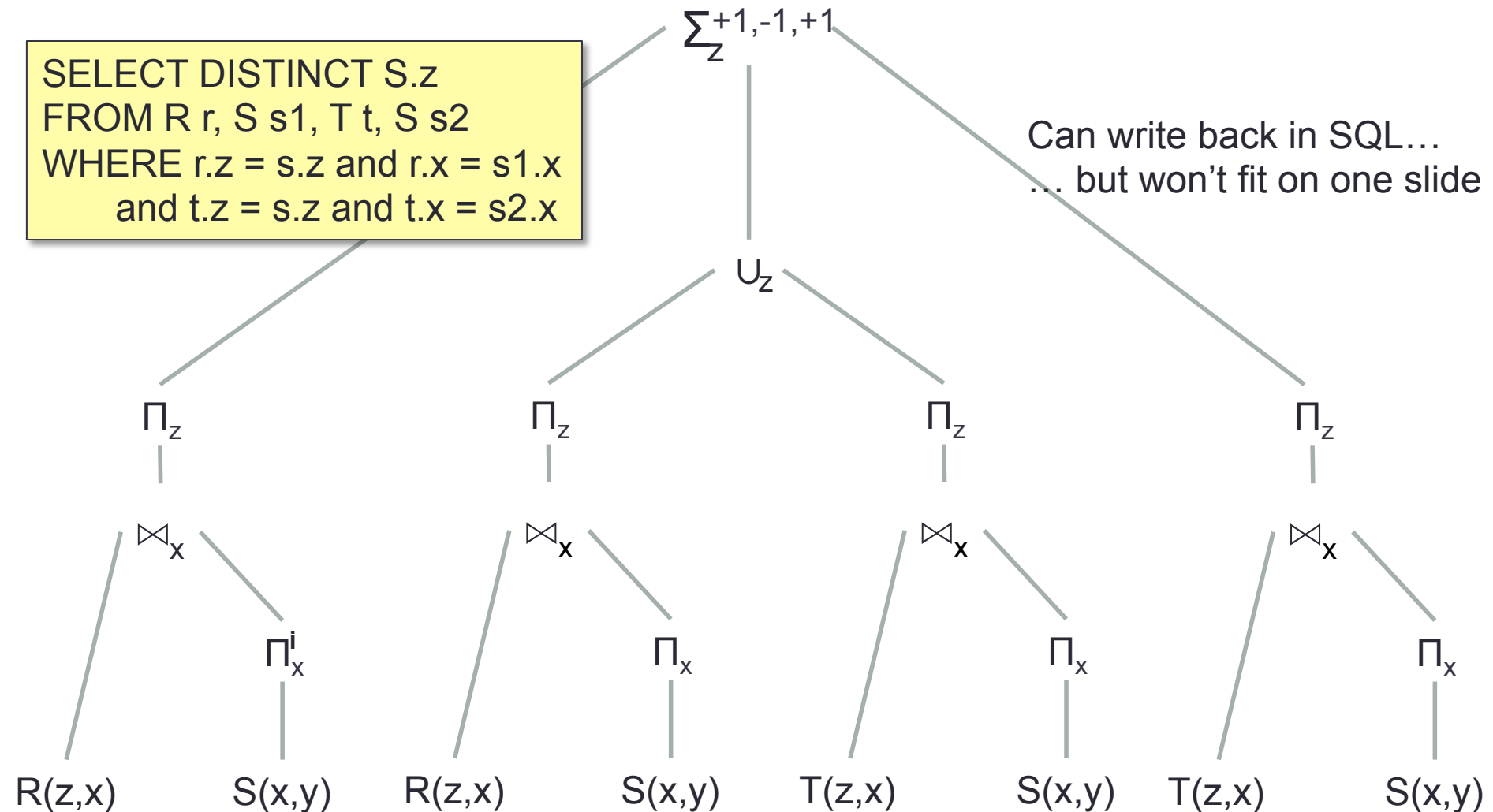
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Extensional Plans for UCQ

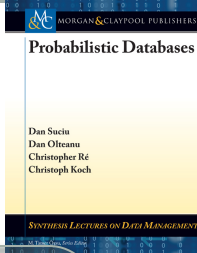
SELECT DISTINCT S.z
FROM R r, S s1, T t, S s2
WHERE r.z = s.z and r.x = s1.x
and t.z = s.z and t.x = s2.x

Can write back in SQL...
... but won't fit on one slide



Summary: Extensional Query Evaluation

- Four rules can evaluate all queries that are in PTIME
- Actually, a fifth rule is needed (ranking), see book
- **Big Dichotomy Theorem:**
 - If the rules succeed $\rightarrow$ query is safe $\rightarrow$ in PTIME
 - If the rules fail $\rightarrow$ query is unsafe $\rightarrow$ #P-complete
- **Inclusion/exclusion** is specific to probabilistic databases, not used by modern model counters: will discuss next.



Outline

- | | | |
|--------|---------------------------------------|-------------|
| Part 1 | 1. Motivating Applications | |
| | 2. The Probabilistic Data Model | Chapter 2 |
| Part 2 | 3. Extensional Query Plans | Chapter 4.2 |
| | 4. The Complexity of Query Evaluation | Chapter 3 |
| Part 3 | 5. Extensional Evaluation | Chapter 4.1 |
| Part 4 | 6. Intensional Evaluation | Chapter 5 |
| | 7. Conclusions | |

Review: Model Counting

- **Model Counting Problem**: given F , compute $\#F$
- **Probability Computation Problem**: given F , compute $P(F)$
- **#P**-complete
- Exact solvers – based on the DPLL procedure
- Approximate solvers – will not discuss in this tutorial
- **Question**: what performance guarantees offer DPLL-based algorithm for query evaluating on probabilistic databases?

Background: DPLL

// basic DPLL:

Function $P(F)$:

if $F = \text{false}$ then return 0

if $F = \text{true}$ then return 1

select a variable X , return $(1 - P(X)) \times P(F_{X=0}) + P(X) \times P(F_{X=1})$

Based on Davis, Putnam, Logemann, Loveland, from the 60s; [Gomes et al., 2009]

Modern model counting systems are based on DPLL

- c2d [Huang and Darwiche, 2007], Dsharp [Muisse et al., 2012]

Usually F is in CNF, then, add this simple heuristics:
favor a variable X that occurs only (un-)negated.

We will apply DPLL to positive DNF formulas F

The trace of DPLL

- **The trace** of a DPLL algorithm on a Boolean function **F** is a Read-Once-Branching-Program (RBOC), also called a Free Binary Decision Diagram (FBDD)
- The trace is used in:
 - **Knowledge compilation**: constructs the trace explicitly
 - **Lower bounds** for DPLL-based algorithms: we do this next

The trace of DPLL

// basic DPLL:

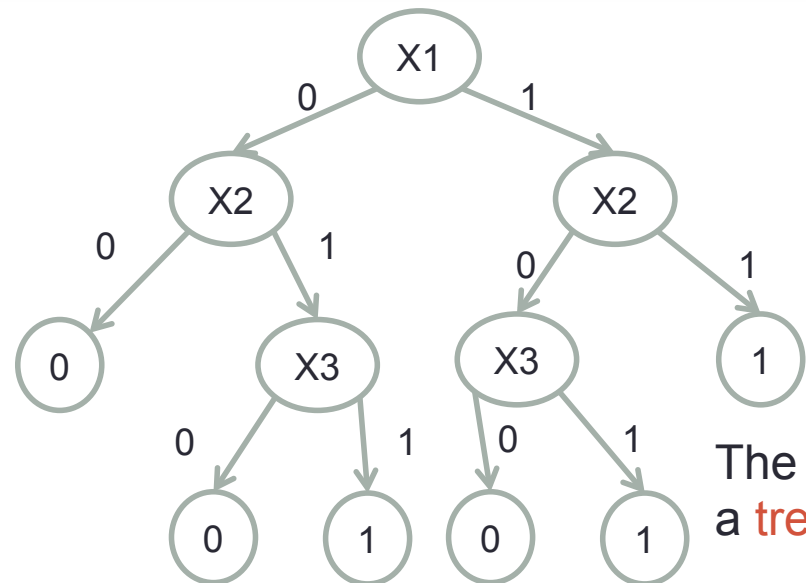
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$$F = X_1 X_2 \vee X_1 X_3 \vee X_2 X_3$$



The trace is
a **tree FBDD**

Background: DPLL with Caching

// basic DPLL:

Function $P(F)$:

if $F = \text{false}$ then return 0

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select a variable X , return $(1 - P(X)) \times P(F_{X=0}) + P(X) \times P(F_{X=1})$

// DPLL with caching:

Cache F and $P(F)$;

look it up before computing

All modern model counting systems extend DPLL with Caching

The trace of DPLL with Caching

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Function $P(F)$:

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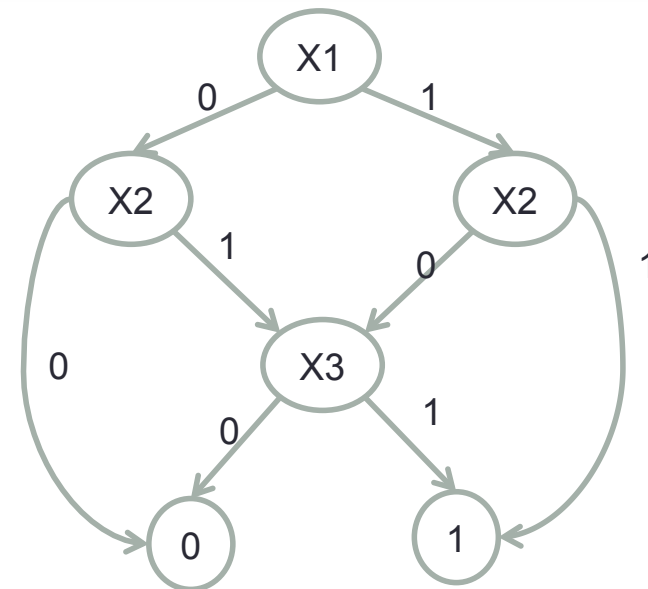
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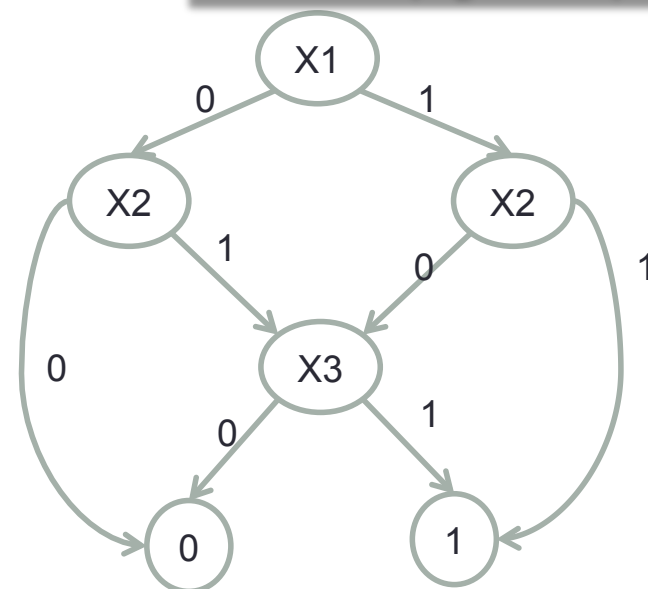


The trace is an **FBDD**

Background: FBDD

- An **FBDD** (Free Binary Decision Diagram) is a graph s.t.:
 - Sink nodes are labeled 0 or 1
 - Internal nodes are labeled with a variable X_i , and have two outgoing edges, labeled 0 and 1
 - Every root-to-sink path visits each variable X_i at most once

$$F = X_1X_2 \vee X_1X_3 \vee X_2X_3$$



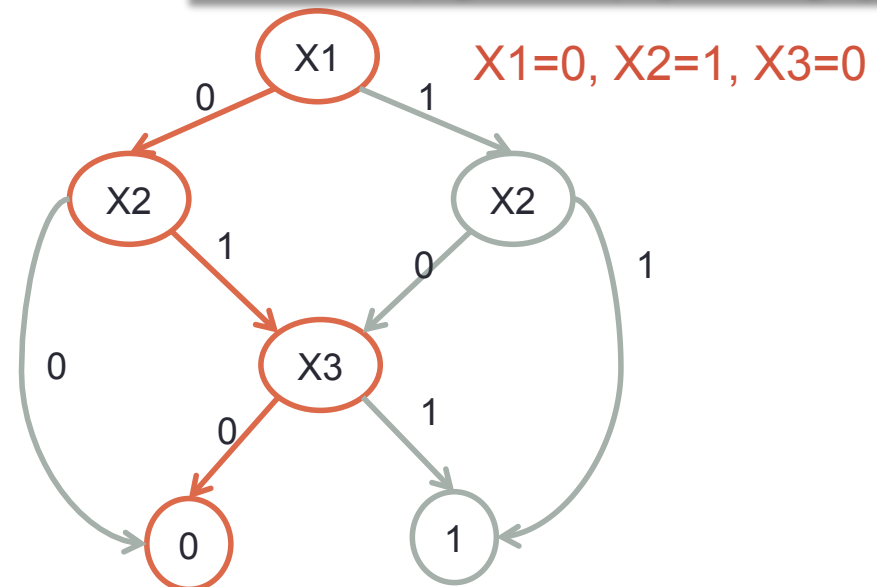
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- Computing **F** with the FBDD:

- If $X_i = 0$ follow the 0 edge
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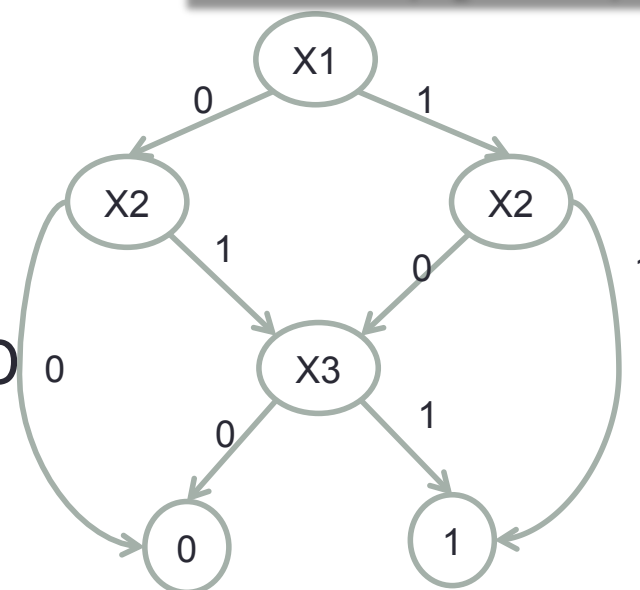
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- Computing **P(F)** with the FBDD

- Dynamic programming bottom-up



$$\begin{aligned}
 P(X1) &= 0.1 \\
 P(X2) &= 0.2 \\
 P(X3) &= 0.3
 \end{aligned}$$

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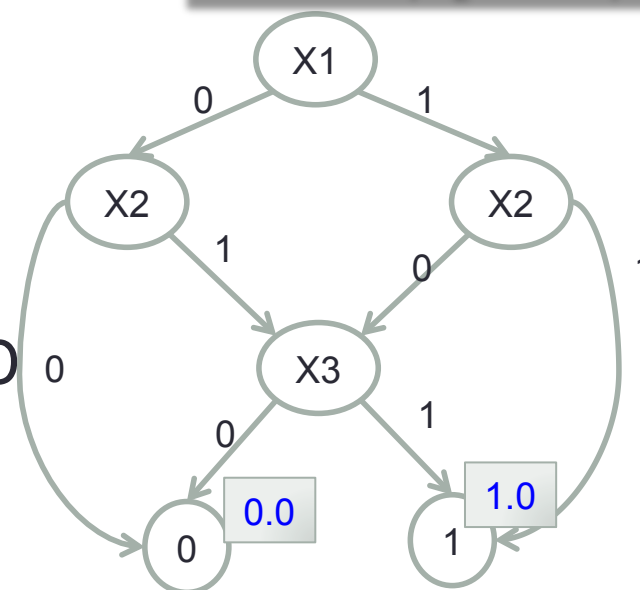
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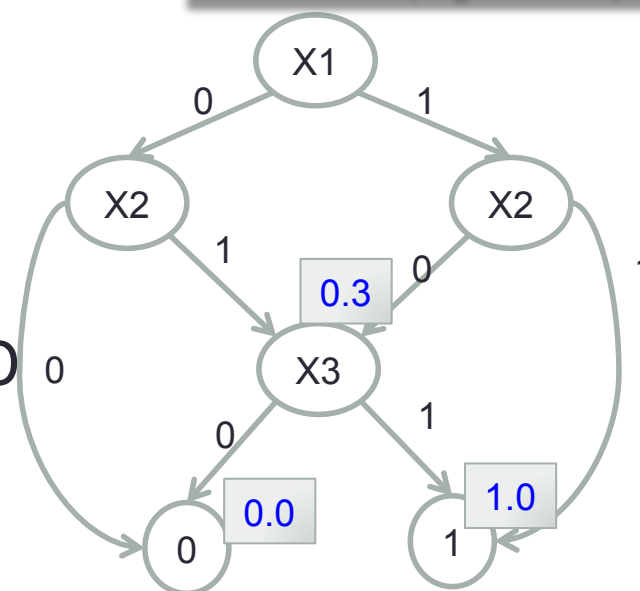
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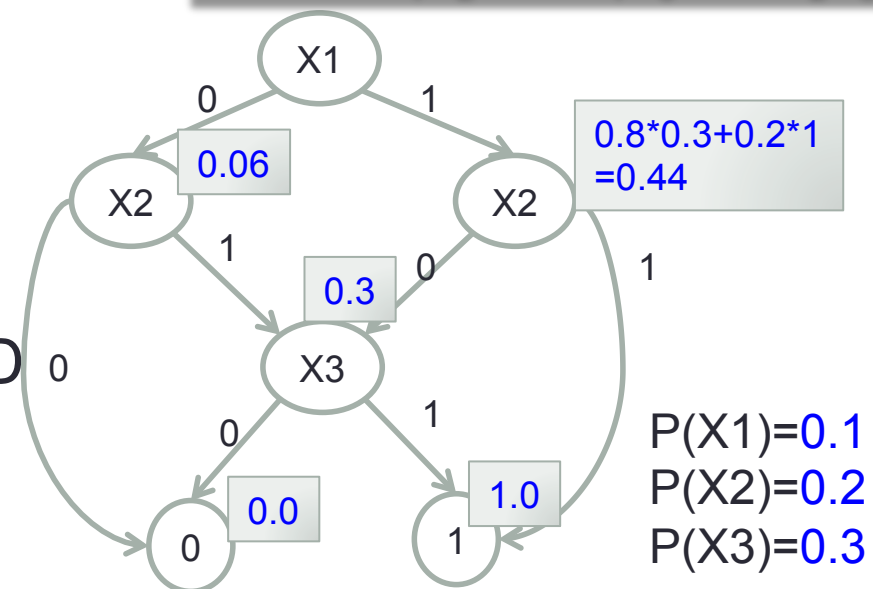
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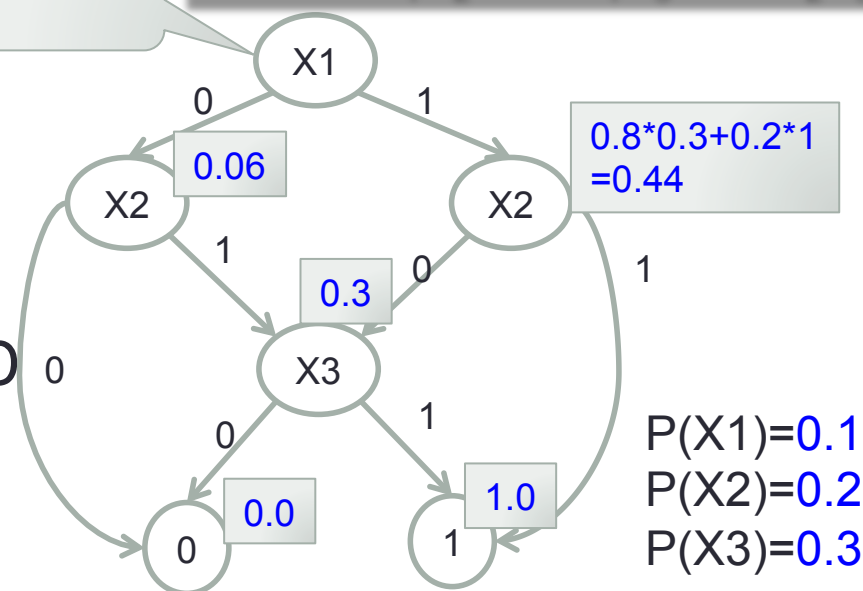
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- Computing **P(F)** with the FBDD

- Dynamic programming bottom-up

$$0.9 \cdot 0.06 + 0.1 \cdot 0.44 = 0.098$$

$$F = X_1 X_2 \vee X_1 X_3 \vee X_2 X_3$$



Background: DPLL w Fixed Variable Order

- The order in which the DPLL procedure processes the Boolean variables X has dramatic impact on performance
- Heuristics: choose a fixed variable order $\Pi: X_1, X_2, \dots$; process variables always in this order
- An **OBDD** (Ordered Binary Decision Diagram) is an **FBDD** where every path from the root to a leaf node visits the variables in the same order Π

Background: DPLL w Fixed Variable Order

// basic DPLL:

Function $P(F)$:

if $F = \text{false}$ then return 0

if $F = \text{true}$ then return 1

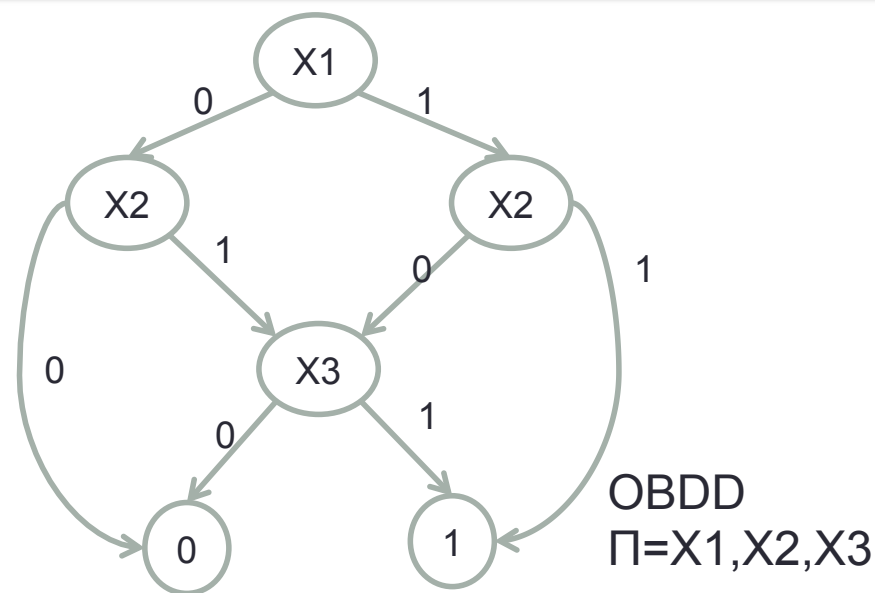
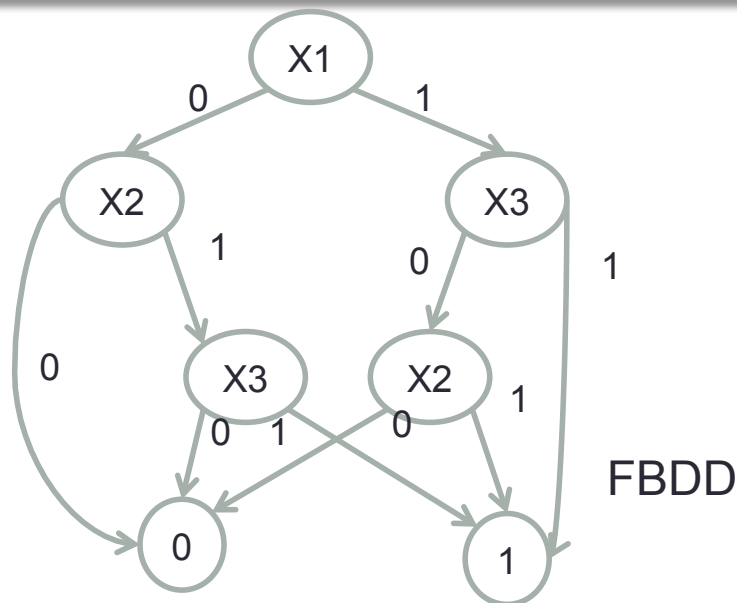
select a variable X , return $(1 - P(X)) \times P(F_{X=0}) + P(X) \times P(F_{X=1})$

Process variables
in predefined order
 $X_1, X_2, \dots$

// DPLL with caching:

Cache F and $P(F)$;

look it up before computing



Background: DPLL w/ Components

// basic DPLL:

Function $P(F)$:

if $F = \text{false}$ then return 0

if $F = \text{true}$ then return 1

select a variable X , return $(1 - P(X)) \times P(F_{X=0}) + P(X) \times P(F_{X=1})$

// DPLL with caching:

Cache F and $P(F)$;

look it up before computing

// DPLL with components:

if $F = F_1 \wedge F_2$

and F_1, F_2 have no common variables

then return $P(F_1) \times P(F_2)$

Most modern model counting systems implement components

The trace of a DPLL w/ caching and components is called a “decision-DNNF”.

Theorem: [Beame'13] Every decision-DNNF for a positive k -DNF formula can be converted into an FBDD of size $O(N^k)$

Summary of DPLL

DPLL Variant	Trace
DPLL with caching and fixed variable order	OBDD
DPLL with caching	FBDD
DPLL with caching and components	FBDD (for queries)
... a different model counting formalism	d-DNNF

Intentional Query Evaluation

Query Q + database $D \rightarrow$ lineage expression F_Q

Compute $P(F)$ using a general model counting system

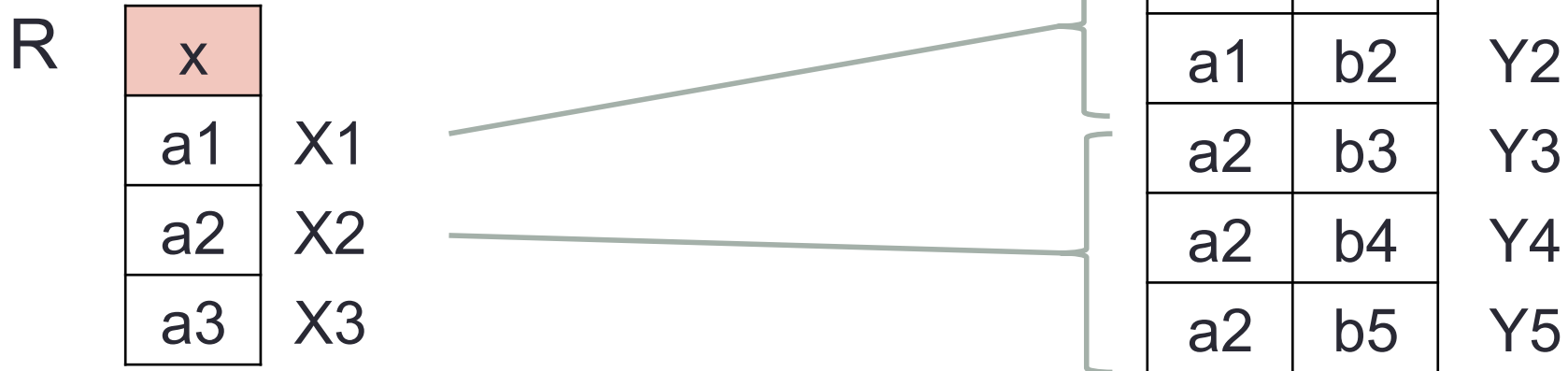
Question: for which Q does the system run in PTIME?

- The size of the trace gives a lower bound on the running time of DPLL-based algorithm

Example

SELECT DISTINCT 'true'
FROM R, S
WHERE R.x = S.x

$Q = R(x), S(x,y)$



$F_Q = X1 \ Y1 \ \vee \ X1 \ Y2 \ \vee \ X2 \ Y3 \ \vee \ X2 \ Y4 \ \vee \ X2 \ Y5$

Study the size of OBDD, FBDD, etc for the formula F_Q

1. Read-Once Boolean Formulas

A Boolean formula F is called **read-once** if it can be written such that every Boolean variable occurs only once

$$(X \vee Z) \wedge (Y \vee U)$$

1. Read-Once Boolean Formulas

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- $P(F)$ can be computed in linear time: $(X \vee Z) \wedge (Y \vee U)$

$$P(F_1 \wedge F_2) = P(F_1) \times P(F_2)$$

$$P(F_1 \vee F_2) = 1 - (1 - P(F_1)) \times (1 - P(F_2))$$

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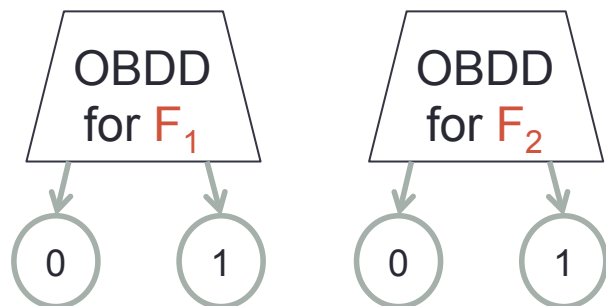
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$$\begin{aligned} P(F_1 \wedge F_2) &= P(F_1) \times P(F_2) \\ P(F_1 \vee F_2) &= 1 - (1 - P(F_1)) \times (1 - P(F_2)) \end{aligned}$$

- F has an **OBDD** with n nodes, where $n = \#$ of variables

$$F_1 \wedge F_2$$

$$F_1 \vee F_2$$



1. Read-Once Boolean Formulas

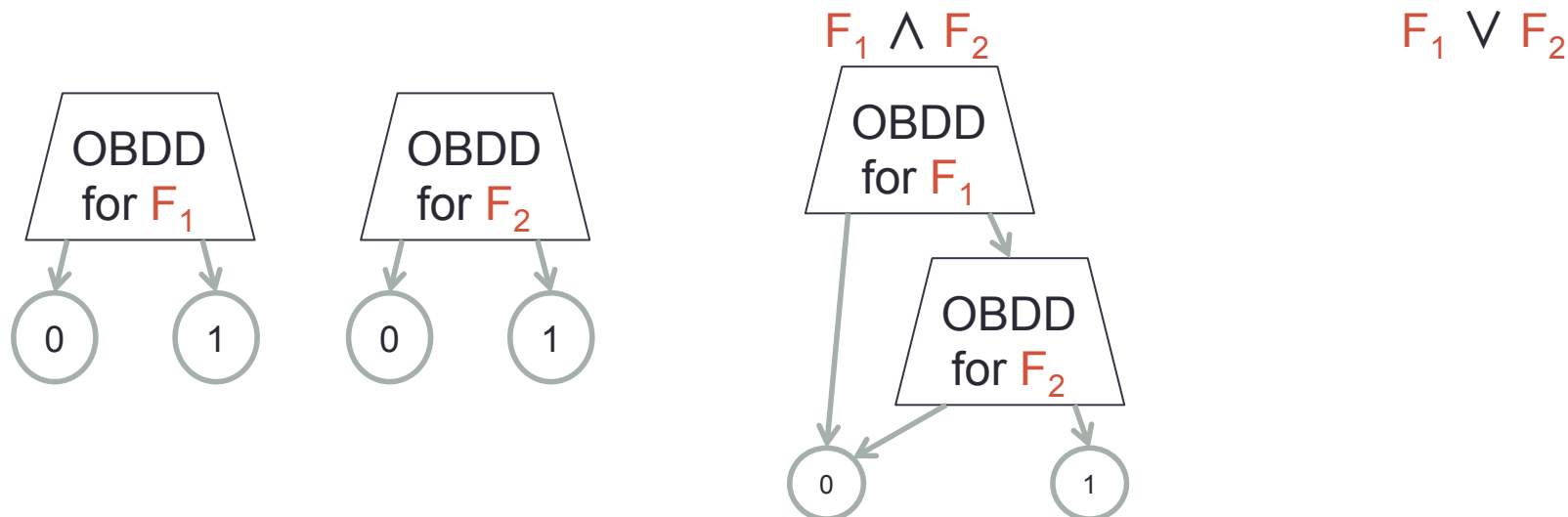
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1. Read-Once Boolean Formulas

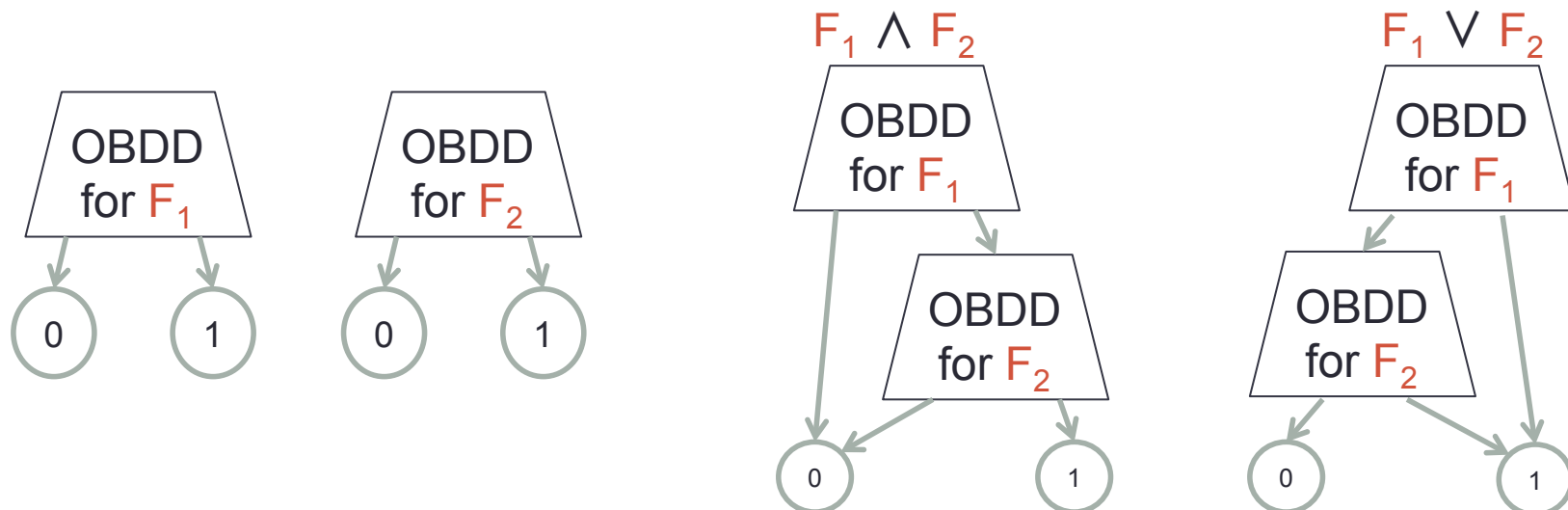
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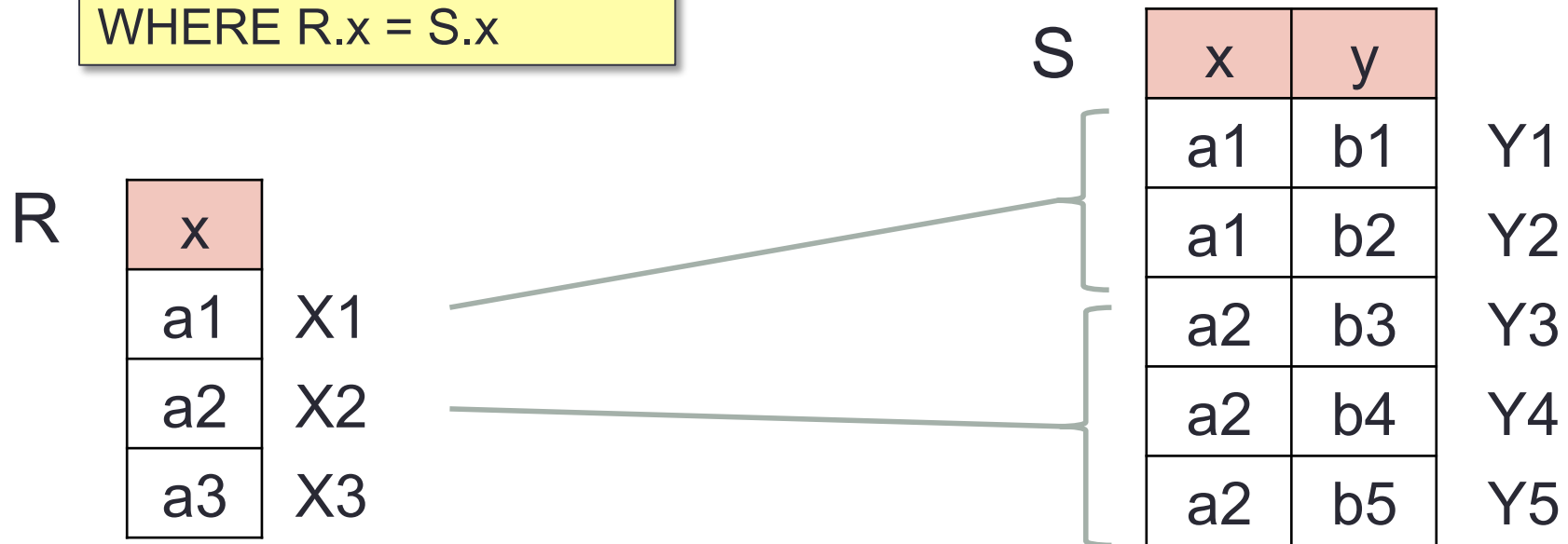
- F has an **OBDD** with n nodes, where $n = \#$ of variables



1. Read-Once Example

```
SELECT DISTINCT 'true'
FROM R, S
WHERE R.x = S.x
```

$Q = R(x), S(x,y)$



$F_Q = X1 Y1 \vee X1 Y2 \vee X2 Y3 \vee X2 Y4 \vee X2 Y5$

$= X1 (Y1 \vee Y2) \vee X2 (Y3 \vee Y4 \vee Y5)$

Read-once

1. Read-Once Example

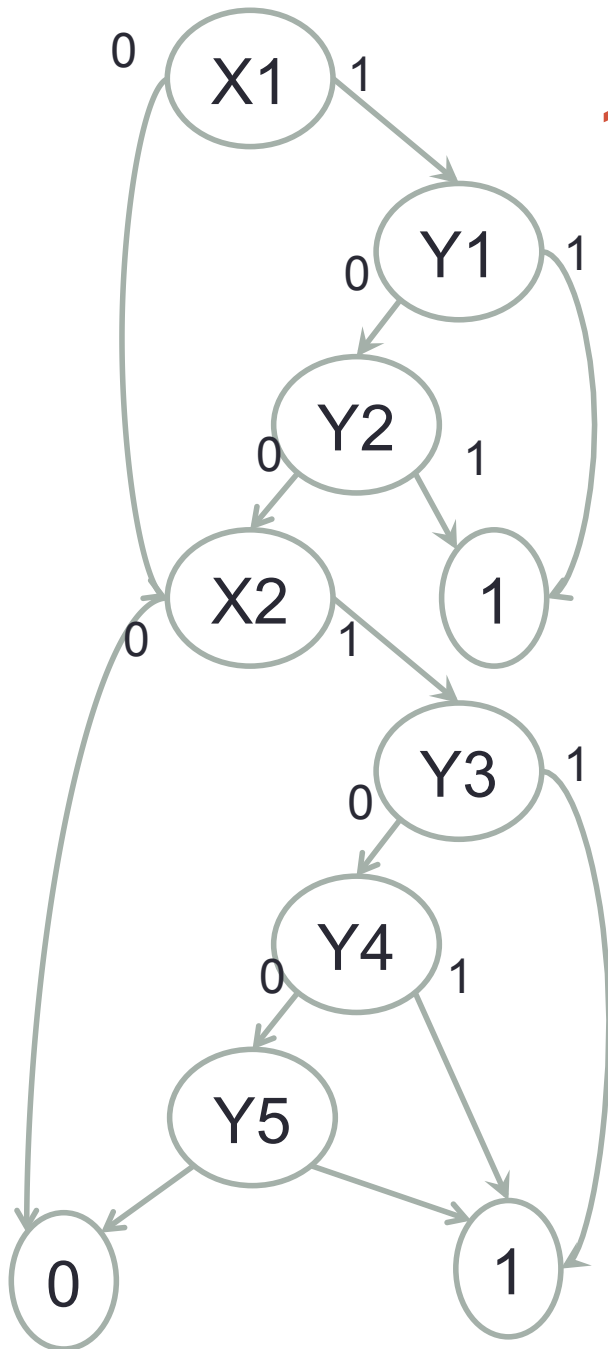
$$Q = R(x), S(x,y)$$

$$F_Q = X1 (Y1 \vee Y2) \vee X2 (Y3 \vee Y4 \vee Y5)$$

Read-once to OBDD

Note: every Boolean variable occurs only once in the OBDD

The size of the OBDD is linear in the size of the database D



1. Read-Once Queries

Theorem For any query Q , the following are equivalent:

- $\forall D$, the lineage F_Q is read-once
- Q can be written such that it is both hierarchical, and every symbols occurs once.

Read-once:

$$Q = R(x), S(x,y)$$

... all hierarchical, conjunctive queries w/o self-joins

$$\begin{aligned} Q_U &= R(x_1), S(x_1,y_1) \vee T(x_2), S(x_2,y_2) \\ &= \exists x (R(x) \vee T(x)) \wedge \exists y S(x,y) \end{aligned}$$

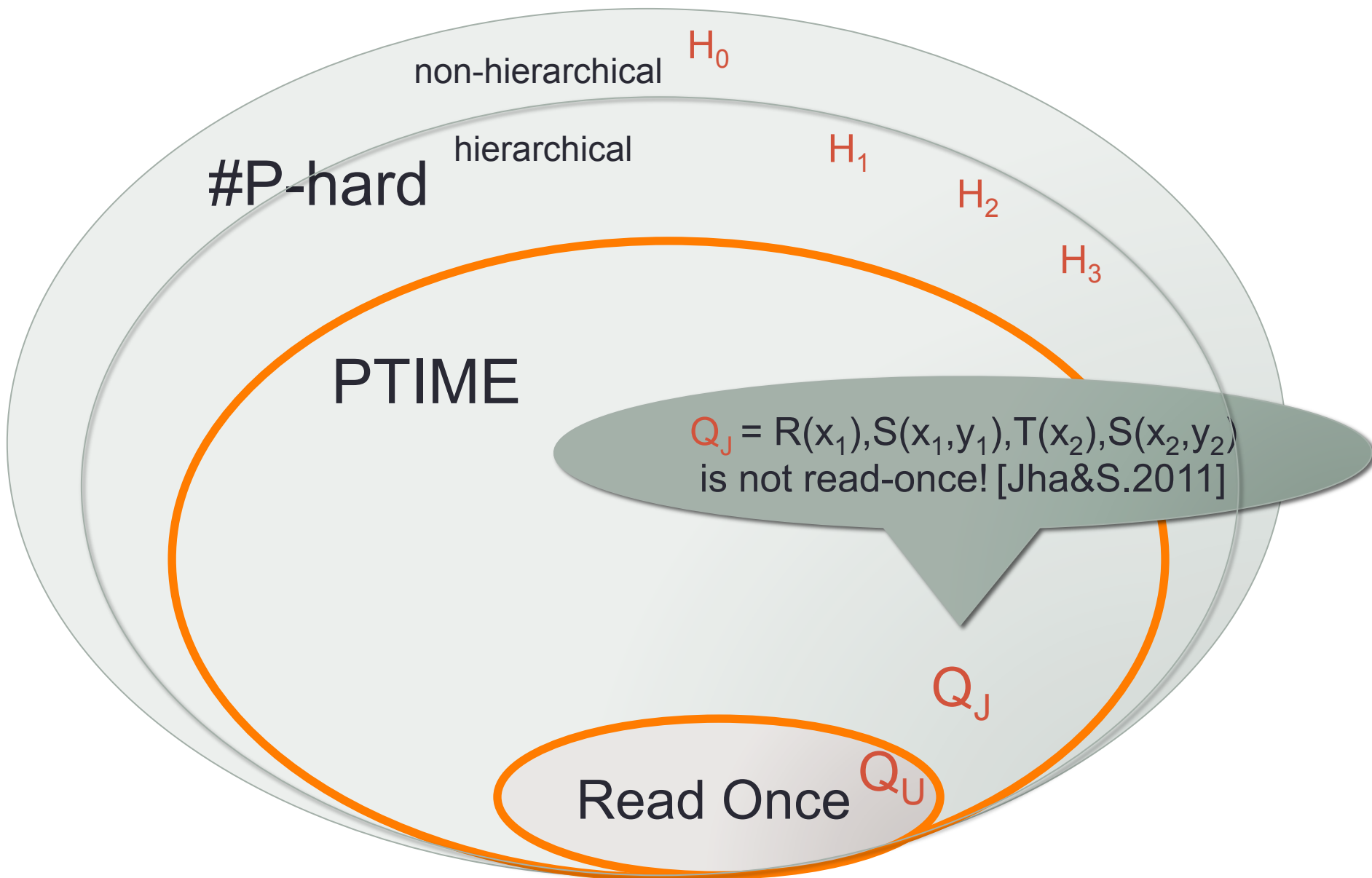
Not read-once (but still PTIME):

$$Q_J = R(x_1), S(x_1,y_1), T(x_2), S(x_2,y_2)$$

...

...

Landscape of Probabilistic Databases



2. OBDD

OBDD Synthesis [Wegener'2000]

Let Π be an order of the Boolean variables: $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k, \dots, X_n$.

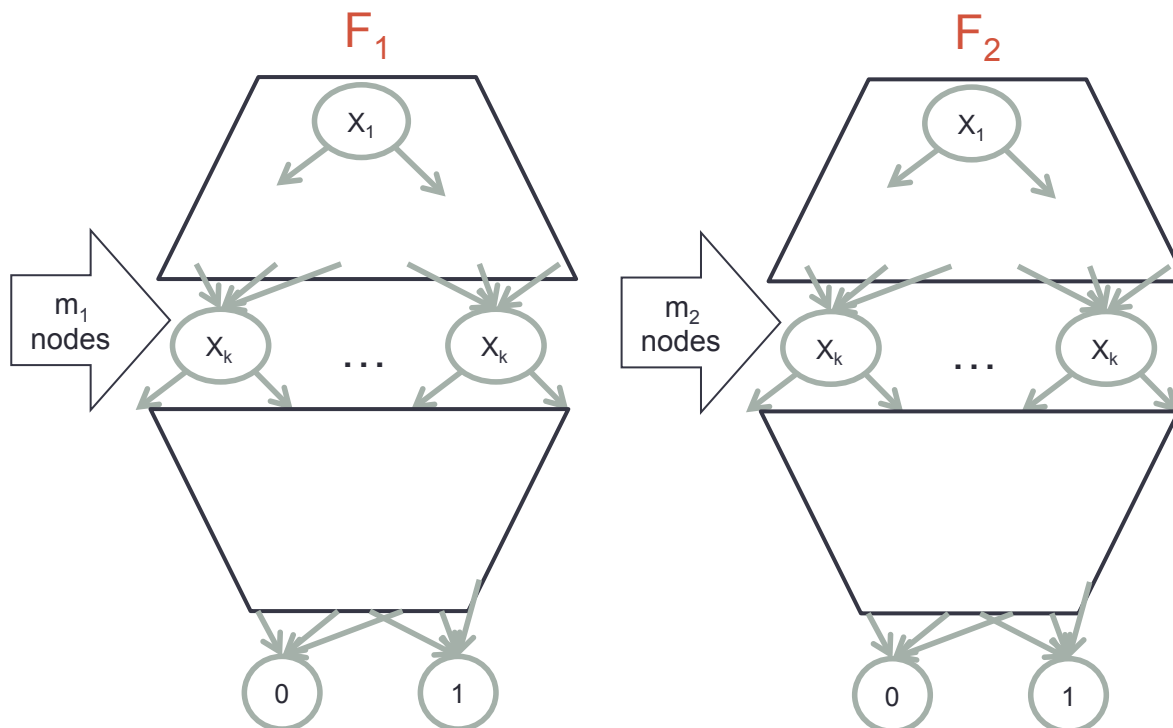
- If the Π -OBDD for F_1 has size N_1 , and the Π -OBDD for F_2 has size N_2 then Π -OBDD for $F_1 \wedge F_2$ and for $F_1 \vee F_2$ has size $\leq N_1 N_2$

2. OBDD

OBDD Synthesis [Wegener'2000]

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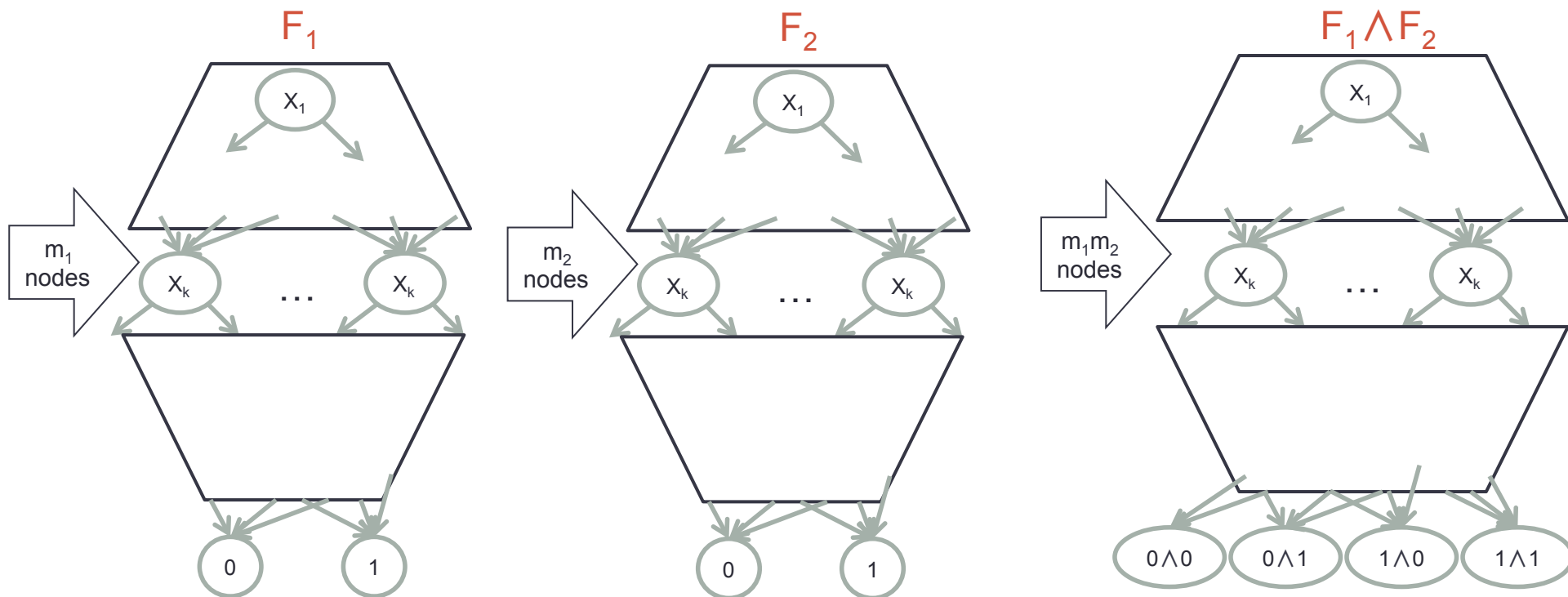


2. OBDD

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$$Q_J = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1), T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

2. OBDD Example

$$Q_1 = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1) \wedge Q_2 = T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2) = Q_J = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1), T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

2. OBDD Example

$$Q_1 = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1)$$

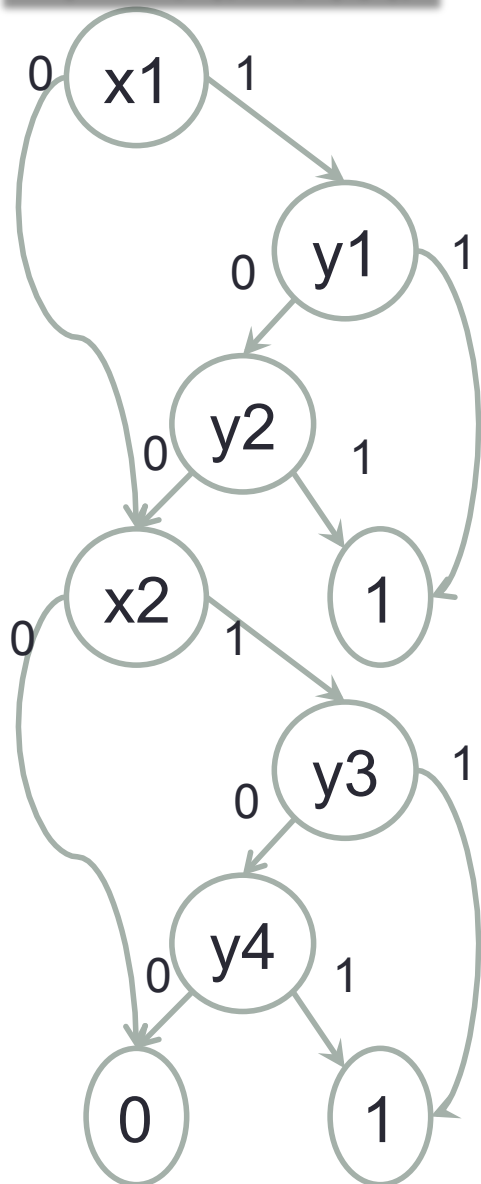
 $\wedge$

$$Q_2 = T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

 $=$

$$Q_J = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1), T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

2. OBDD Example



$$F_1 = X_1Y_1 \vee X_1Y_2 \vee X_2Y_3 \vee X_2Y_4$$

$$Q_1 = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1)$$

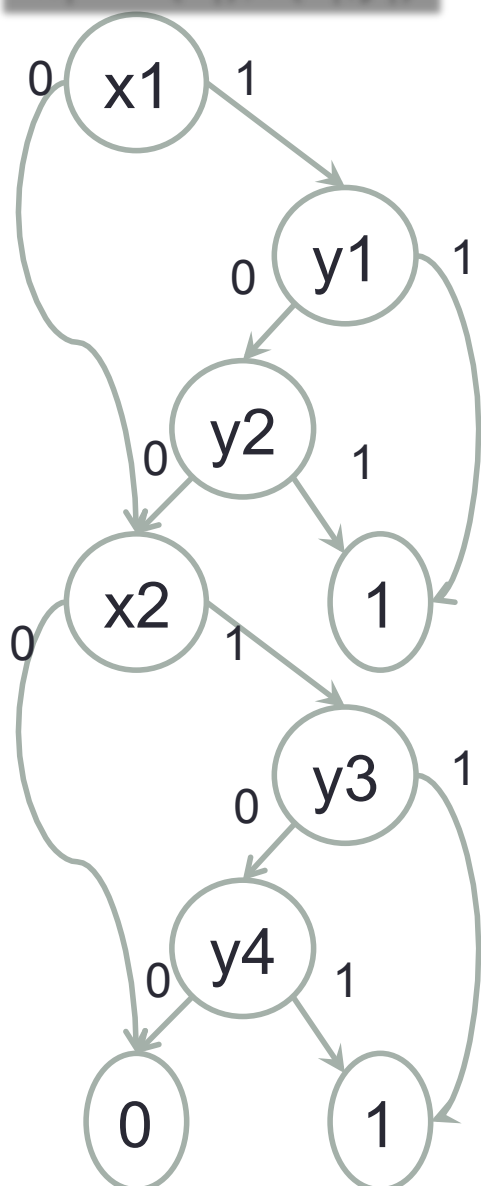
 $\wedge$

$$Q_2 = T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

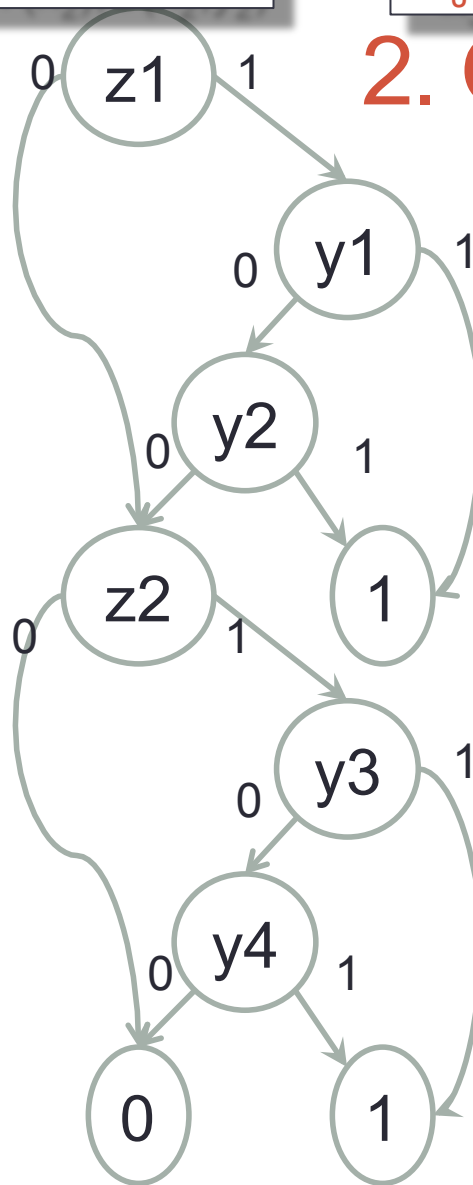
 $=$

$$Q_J = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1), T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

2. OBDD Example



$$F_1 = x_1 y_1 \vee x_1 y_2 \vee x_2 y_3 \vee x_2 y_4$$



$$F_2 = z_1 y_1 \vee z_1 y_2 \vee z_2 y_3 \vee z_2 y_4$$

$$Q_1 = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1)$$

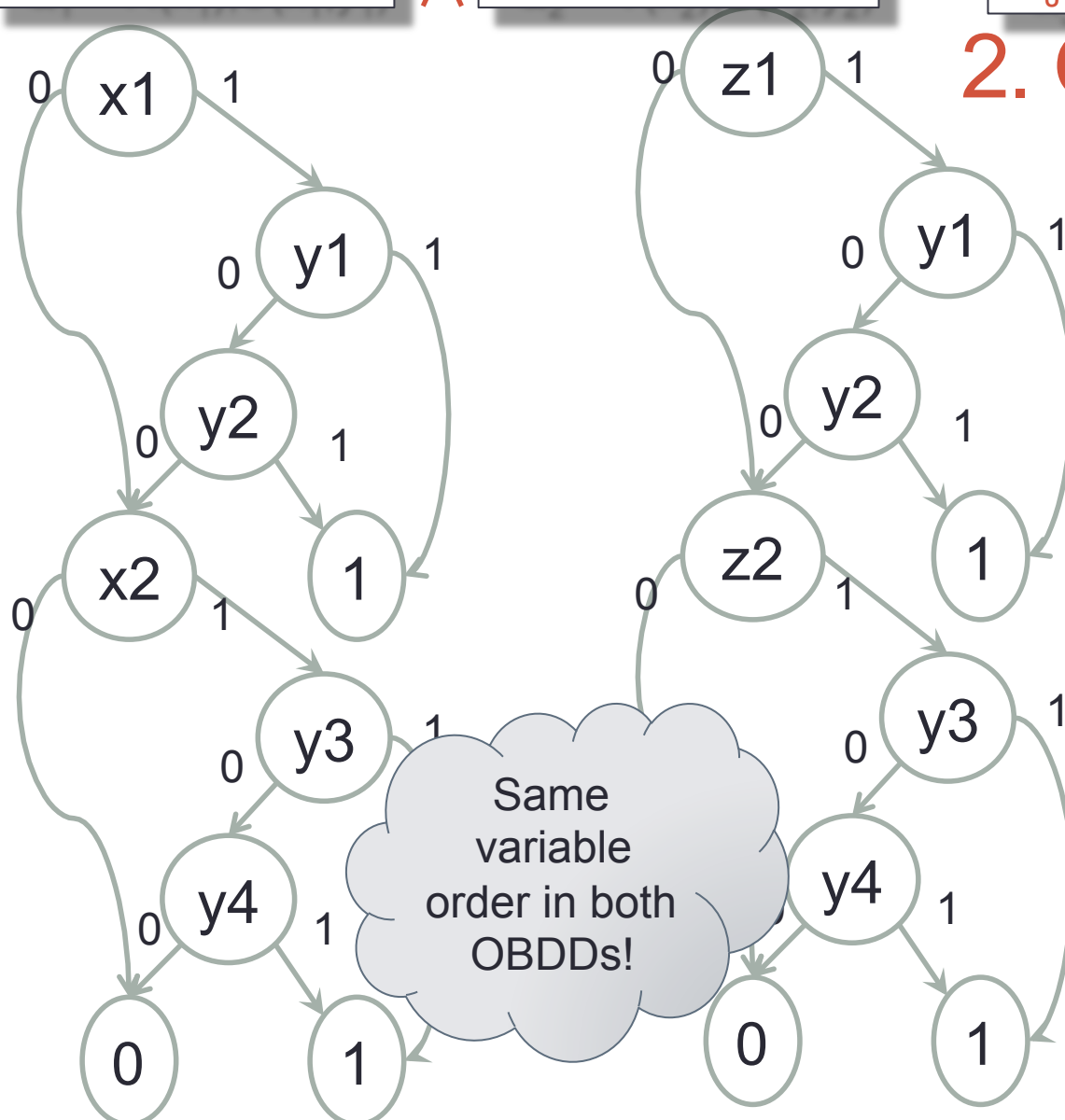
 $\wedge$

$$Q_2 = T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

 $=$

$$Q_J = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1), T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

2. OBDD Example



$$F_1 = X_1Y_1 \vee X_1Y_2 \vee X_2Y_3 \vee X_2Y_4$$

$$F_2 = Z_1Y_1 \vee Z_1Y_2 \vee Z_2Y_3 \vee Z_2Y_4$$

$$Q_1 = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1)$$

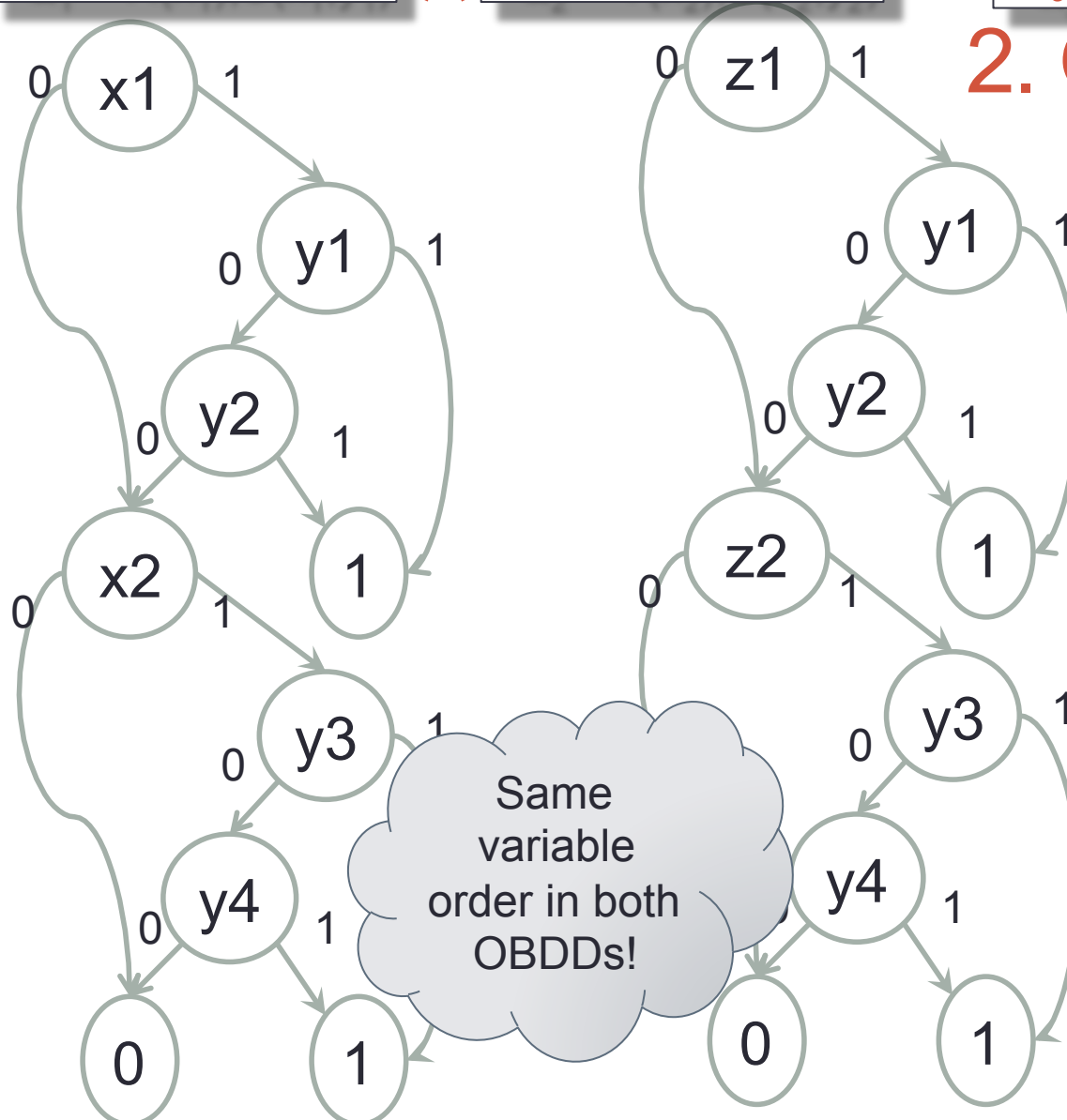
 $\wedge$

$$Q_2 = T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

 $=$

$$Q_J = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1), T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

2. OBDD Example



= Efficient OBDD
for $Q_J = Q_1 \wedge Q_2$

$$F_1 = x_1 y_1 \vee x_1 y_2 \vee x_2 y_3 \vee x_2 y_4$$

$$F_2 = z_1 y_1 \vee z_1 y_2 \vee z_2 y_3 \vee z_2 y_4$$

2. Queries with Efficient OBDD

Theorem For any query Q the following are equivalent:

- $\forall D$, the lineage F_Q has an OBDD of size $|D|^{O(1)}$
- Q is inversion-free (hierarchical + same hierarchy order for each symbol; see book)

Inversion-free

$$Q_J = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1), T(x_2), S(x_2, y_2)$$

Same order in both S :
 $at(x_1) \subset at(y_1)$
 $at(x_2) \subset at(y_2)$

...

Has inversion (but still PTIME):

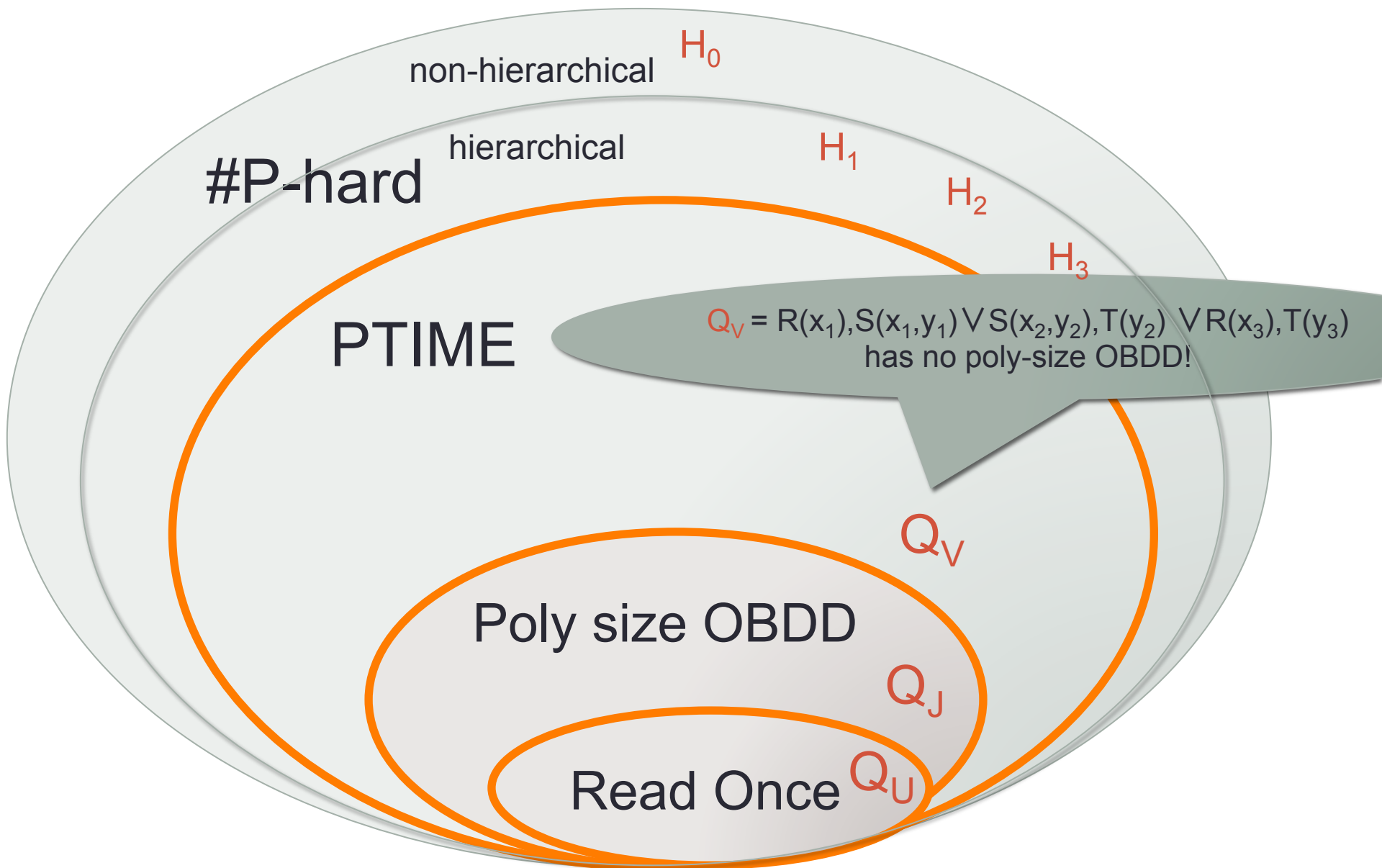
$$Q_V = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1) \vee S(x_2, y_2), T(y_2) \vee R(x_3), T(y_3)$$

In S : $at(x_1) \supset at(y_1)$

In S : $at(x_2) \subset at(y_2)$

...

Landscape of Probabilistic Databases



3. FBDD

- Some queries have inversion (hence no efficient OBDD), but have an efficient FBDD
- We only know of examples of such queries, no complete characterization

3. FBDD

$$Q_V = R(x_1), S(x_1, y_1) \vee S(x_2, y_2), T(y_2) \vee R(x_3), T(y_3)$$

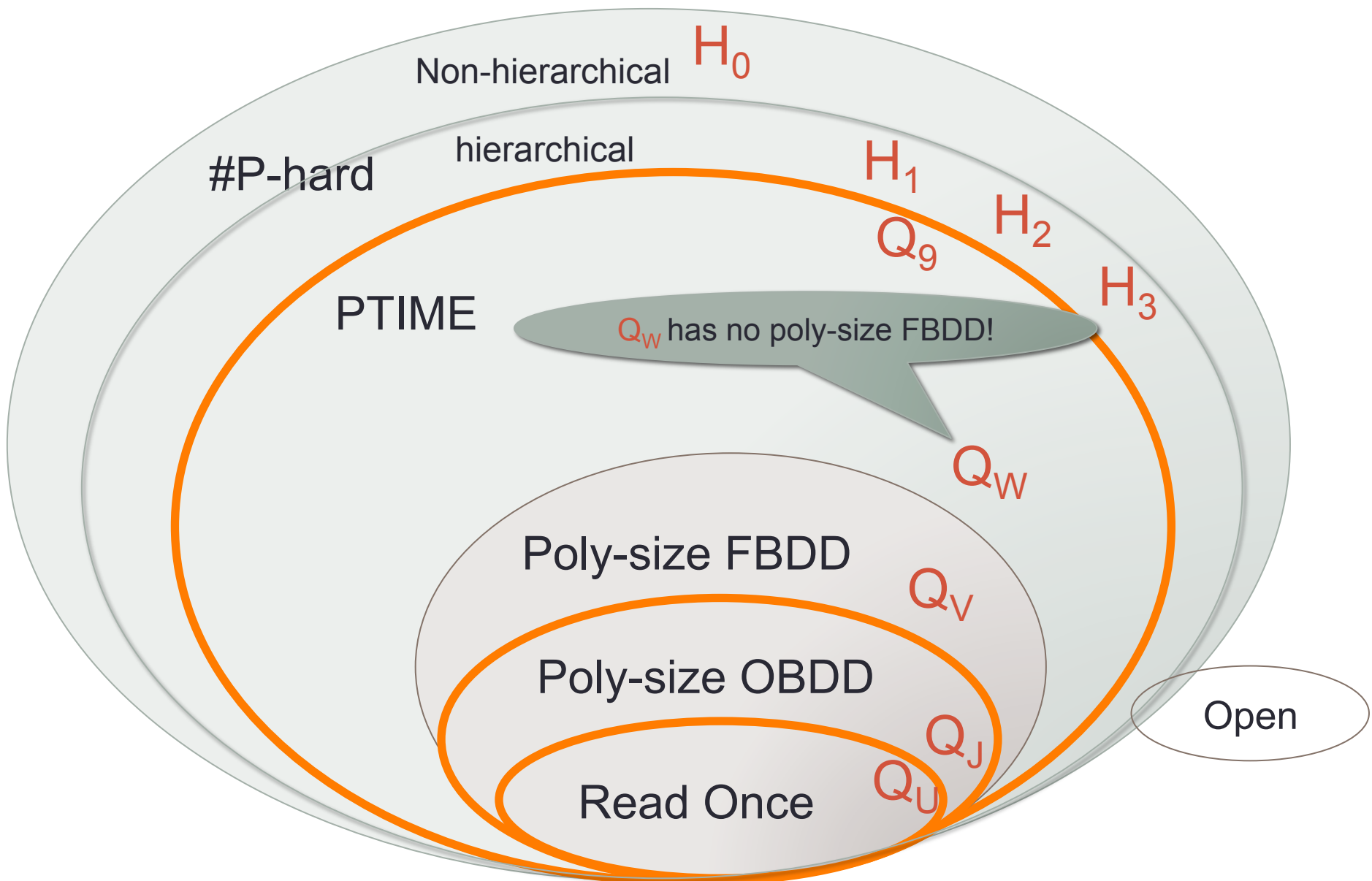
Fact: (The lineage of) Q_V has an FBDD whose size is linear in $|D|$

$$Q_W = \begin{array}{llll} [R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0) & \vee & S_2(x_2, y_2), S_3(x_2, y_2)] \wedge & /* \textcolor{red}{Q1} */ \\ [R(x_0), S_1(x_0, y_0) & \vee & S_3(x_3, y_3), T(y_3)] & \wedge /* \textcolor{red}{Q2} */ \\ [S_1(x_1, y_1), S_2(x_1, y_1) & \vee & S_3(x_3, y_3), T(y_3)] & /* \textcolor{red}{Q3} */ \end{array}$$

Theorem: Any FBDD for (the lineage of) Q_W has size exponential in $|D|$

See the book for both results.

Landscape of Probabilistic Databases



4. d-DNNF

[Darwiche'2000]

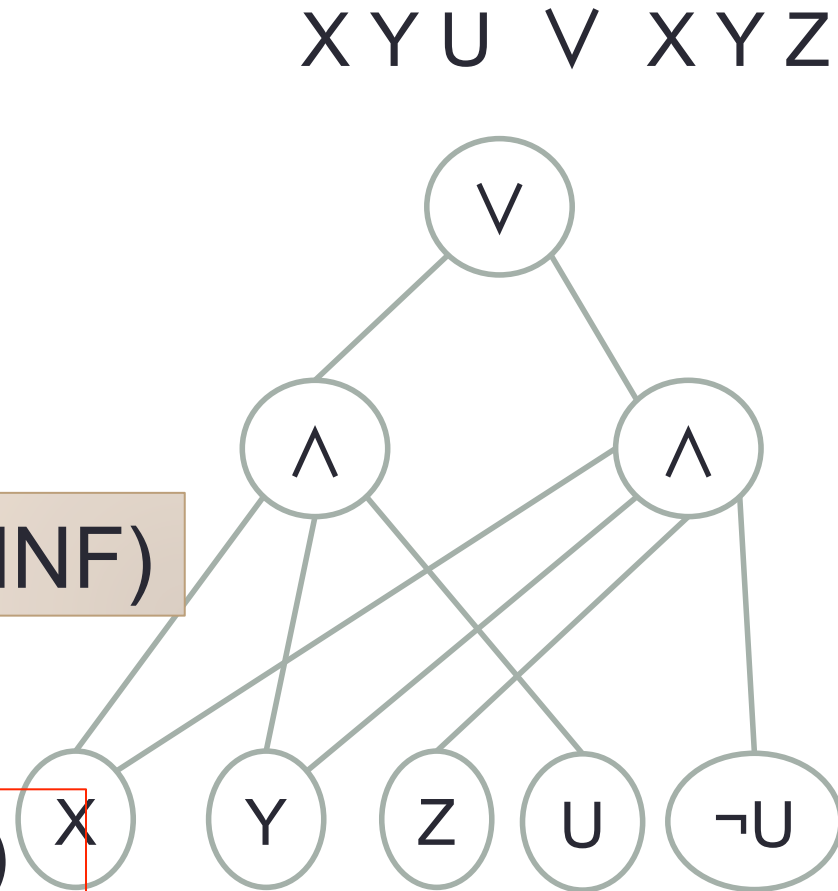
d-DNNF = expression DAG where
 $\wedge$ are “Decomposable”
 $\vee$ are “Deterministic”
 All negations at the leaves

$P(F)$ in PTIME in $\text{size}(\text{d-DNNF})$



$$P(F_1 \wedge F_2) = P(F_1) * P(F_2)$$

$$P(F_1 \vee F_2) = P(F_1) + P(F_2)$$



4. d-DNNF

[Darwiche'2000]

Fact 1. Q_W has an efficient d-DNNF

Proof. Condition on h_{30} :

$$\begin{aligned}
 Q_W &= (h_{30} \vee h_{32}) \wedge (h_{30} \vee h_{33}) \wedge (h_{31} \vee h_{33}) \\
 &= [(\neg h_{30}) \wedge h_{32} \wedge h_{33} \wedge (h_{31} \vee h_{33})] \vee [h_{30} \wedge (h_{31} \vee h_{33})] \\
 &= \underbrace{[(\neg h_{30}) \wedge h_{32} \wedge h_{33}]}_{\text{Inversion-free}} \vee \underbrace{[h_{30} \wedge (h_{31} \vee h_{33})]}_{\text{Inversion-free}}
 \end{aligned}$$

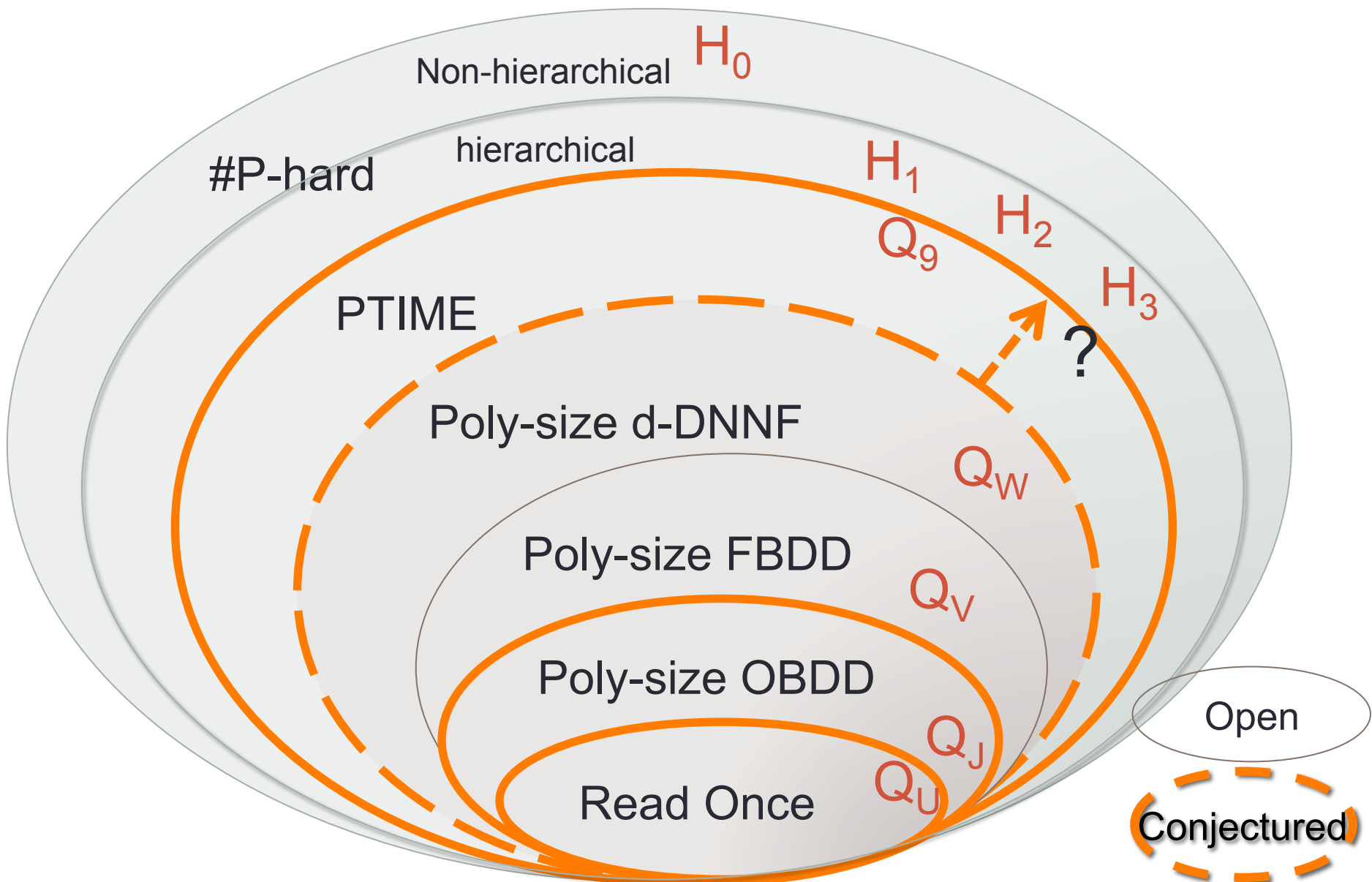
Deterministic

Fact 2. $\neg Q_W$ has an efficient d-DNNF

See book

Conjecture. Q_g has as no efficient d-DNNF

Landscape of Probabilistic Databases



Outline

- | | | |
|--------|---------------------------------------|-------------|
| Part 1 | 1. Motivating Applications | |
| | 2. The Probabilistic Data Model | Chapter 2 |
| Part 2 | 3. Extensional Query Plans | Chapter 4.2 |
| | 4. The Complexity of Query Evaluation | Chapter 3 |
| Part 3 | 5. Extensional Evaluation | Chapter 4.1 |
| Part 4 | 6. Intensional Evaluation | Chapter 5 |
| | 7. Conclusions | |

Summary (1/2)

- There are many applications that require storage/management of uncertain data
 - Retain data that is not absolutely certain
 - Retain more than one alternative way to clean
- Probabilities are application specific
 - All we care about is that “bigger is better”
- Queries have precise semantics
 - Important for query optimization
 - “Bigger probability” means “more certain answer”
- “Stop worrying about probabilities and start asking queries”

Summary (2/2)

- Extensional query evaluation:
 - Advantage: can use out of the box DBMS
 - Disadvantage: can't handle unsafe queries (but can still give upper/lower bounds on probabilities)
 - *“You don't need a probabilistic database management system to manage probabilistic data”*
- Intensional query evaluation:
 - Advantage: can use out of the box model counting system
 - Disadvantage: requires expensive “lineage computation” step; none of the model counting approaches seems complete for SPJU queries.

Open Problems

- How do we compute the “hard” queries ?
- Extensions to:
 - Full FO: $\neg \forall$
 - Independent AND disjoint tuples
 - Uniform probabilistic structures (MLNs)
- Which queries admit efficient FBDDs? Efficient d-DNNFs?

Thank You !



<http://www.cs.washington.edu/homes/suciu/>

