

DATABASE THEORY

Lecture 3: Complexity of Query Answering

Markus Krötzsch Knowledge-Based Systems

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More recent versions of this slide deck might be available. For the most current version of this course, see https://iccl.inf.tu-dresden.de/web/Database_Theory/e

Review: The Relational Calculus

What we have learned so far:

- There are many ways to describe databases:
 - → named perspective, unnamed perspective, interpretations, ground facts, (hyper)graphs
- There are many ways to describe query languages:
 - → relational algebra, domain independent FO queries, safe-range FO queries, active domain FO queries, Codd's tuple calculus
 - → either under named or under unnamed perspective

All of these are largely equivalent: The Relational Calculus

Next question: How hard is it to answer such queries?

How to Measure Complexity of Queries?

- Complexity classes often for decision problems (yes/no answer)

 → database queries return many results (no decision problem)
- The size of a query result can be very large
 → it would not be fair to measure this as "complexity"

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Query Answering as Decision Problem

We consider the following decision problems:

- Boolean query entailment: given a Boolean query q and a database instance I, does I ⊨ q hold?
- Query of tuple problem: given an n-ary query q, a database instance I and a tuple $\langle c_1, \ldots, c_n \rangle$, does $\langle c_1, \ldots, c_n \rangle \in M[q](I)$ hold?
- Query emptiness problem: given a query q and a database instance I, does $M[q](I) \neq \emptyset$ hold?
- → Computationally equivalent problems (exercise)

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The Size of the Input

Combined Complexity

Input: Boolean query q and database instance I

Output: Does $I \models q$ hold?

→ estimates complexity in terms of overall input size

→ "2KB query/2TB database" = "2TB query/2KB database"

→ study worst-case complexity of algorithms for fixed queries:

Data Complexity

Input: database instance I

Output: Does $I \models q$ hold? (for fixed q)

 \rightarrow we can also fix the database and vary the query:

Query Complexity

Input: Boolean query q

Output: Does $I \models q$ hold? (for fixed I)

Review: Computation and Complexity Theory

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The Turing Machine (1)

Computation is usually modelled with Turing Machines (TMs)

→ "algorithm" = "something implemented on a TM"

A TM is an automaton with (unlimited) working memory:

- It has a finite set of states Q
- Q includes a start state q_{start} and an accept state q_{acc}
- The memory is a tape with numbered cells $0, 1, 2, \dots$
- Each tape cell holds one symbol from the set of tape symbols Γ
- There is a special symbol

 for empty tape cells
- The TM has a transition relation $\Delta \subseteq (Q \times \Gamma) \times (Q \times \Gamma \times \{l, r, s\})$
- Δ might be a partial function (Q × Γ) → (Q × Γ × {l, r, s})
 → deterministic TM (DTM); otherwise nondeterministic TM

There are many different but equivalent ways of defining TMs.

The Turing Machine (2)

TMs operate step-by-step:

- At every moment, the TM is in one state q ∈ Q with its read/write head at a certain tape position p ∈ N, and the tape has a certain contents σ₀σ₁σ₂··· with all σ_i ∈ Γ

 ~ current configuration of the TM
- The TM starts in state q_{start} and at tape position 0.
- Transition ⟨q, σ, q', σ', d⟩ ∈ Δ means:
 if in state q and the tape symbol at its current position is σ,
 then change to state q', write symbol σ' to tape, move head by d (left/right/stay)
- If there is more than one possible transition, the TM picks one nondeterministically
- The TM halts when there is no possible transition for the current configuration (possibly never)

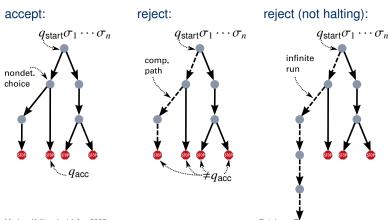
A computation path (or run) of a TM is a sequence of configurations that can be obtained by some choice of transition.

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Languages Accepted by TMs

The (nondeterministic) TM accepts an input $\sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n \in (\Gamma \setminus \{ \omega \})^*$ if, when started on the tape $\sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n \omega \omega \cdots$,

- (1) the TM halts on every computation path and
- (2) there is at least one computation path that halts in the accepting state $q_{\rm acc} \in Q$.



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Solving Computation Problems with TMs

A decision problem is a language \mathcal{L} of words over $\Sigma = \Gamma \setminus \{ \Box \}$ \rightarrow the set of all inputs for which the answer is "yes"

A TM decides a decision problem $\mathcal L$ if it halts on all inputs and accepts exactly the words in $\mathcal L$

TMs take time (number of steps) and space (number of cells):

- Time(f(n)): Problems that can be decided by a DTM in O(f(n)) steps, where f is a function of the input length n
- Space(f(n)): Problems that can be decided by a DTM using O(f(n)) tape cells, where f is a function of the input length n
- NTime(f(n)): Problems that can be decided by a TM in at most O(f(n)) steps on any of its computation paths
- NSpace(f(n)): Problems that can be decided by a TM using at most O(f(n)) tape cells **on any of its computation paths**

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Some Common Complexity Classes

$$P = PTime = \bigcup_{k \ge 1} Time(n^k)$$

$$Exp = ExpTime = \bigcup_{k \ge 1} Time(2^{n^k})$$

$$2Exp = 2ExpTime = \bigcup_{k \ge 1} Time(2^{2^{n^k}})$$

$$ETime = \bigcup_{k \ge 1} Time(2^{n^k})$$

$$N2Exp = N2ExpTime = \bigcup_{k \ge 1} NTime(2^{2^{n^k}})$$

$$ETime = \bigcup_{k \ge 1} Time(2^{n^k})$$

$$NL = NLogSpace = NSpace(log n)$$

$$PSpace = \bigcup_{k \ge 1} Space(n^k)$$

$$ExpSpace = \bigcup_{k \ge 1} Space(2^{n^k})$$

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NP

NP = Problems for which a possible solution can be verified in P:

- for every $w \in \mathcal{L}$, there is a certificate $c_w \in \Sigma^*$, such that
- the length of c_w is polynomial in the length of w, and
- the language $\{w \# \# c_w \mid w \in \mathcal{L}\}$ is in P

Equivalent to definition with nondeterministic TMs:

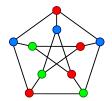
- ⇒ nondeterministically guess certificate; then run verifier DTM
- ← use accepting polynomial run as certificate; verify TM steps

NP Examples

Examples:

- Sudoku solvability (certificate: filled-out grid)
- Composite (non-prime) number (certificate: factorization)
- Prime number (certificate: see Wikipedia "Primality certificate")
- Propositional logic satisfiability (certificate: satisfying assignment)
- Graph colourability (certificate: coloured graph)

5		3				7		
			8					6
	7			6			4	
	4		1					
7		8		5		3		9
					9		6 7	
	5			1			7	
6					4			
		2				5		3



p	q	r	$p \rightarrow q$
f	f	f	W
f	w	f	w
w	f	f	f
W	w	f	w
f	f	w	W
f	w	w	W
W	f	w	f
w	w	w	w

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NP and coNP

Note: Definition of NP is not symmetric

- there does not seem to be any polynomial certificate for Sudoku unsolvability or logic unsatisfiability
- converse of an NP problem is coNP
- similar for NExpTime and N2ExpTime

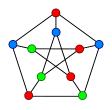
Other classes are symmetric:

- Deterministic classes (coP = P etc.)
- Space classes mentioned above (esp. coNL = NL)

Reductions

Observation: some problems can be reduced to others

Example: 3-colouring can be reduced to propositional satisfiability



Encoding colours in propositions:

- r_i means "'vertex i is red"'
- g_i means "'vertex i is green"'
- b_i means "'vertex i is blue"'

Colouring conditions on vertices: $(\mathbf{r_1} \land \neg g_1 \land \neg b_1) \lor (\neg \mathbf{r_1} \land g_1 \land \neg b_1) \lor (\neg \mathbf{r_1} \land \neg g_1 \land b_1)$ (and so on for all vertices)

Colouring conditions for edges:

$$\neg (\mathbf{r_1} \wedge \mathbf{r_2}) \wedge \neg (\mathbf{g_1} \wedge \mathbf{g_2}) \wedge \neg (\mathbf{b_1} \wedge \mathbf{b_2})$$

(and so on for all edges)

Satisfying truth assignment ⇔ valid colouring

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Defining Reductions

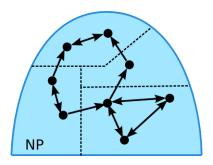
Definition 3.1: Consider languages $\mathcal{L}_1, \mathcal{L}_2 \subseteq \Sigma^*$. A computable function $f: \Sigma^* \to \Sigma^*$ is a many-one reduction from \mathcal{L}_1 to \mathcal{L}_2 if:

$$w \in \mathcal{L}_1$$
 if and only if $f(w) \in \mathcal{L}_2$

- \rightarrow we can solve problem \mathcal{L}_1 by reducing it to problem \mathcal{L}_2
- \rightarrow only useful if the reduction is much easier than solving \mathcal{L}_1 directly
- → polynomial many-one reductions

The Structure of NP

Idea: polynomial many-one reductions define an order on problems



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NP-Hardness und NP-Completeness

Theorem 3.2 (Cook 1971; Levin 1973): All problems in NP can be polynomially many-one reduced to the propositional satisfiability problem (SAT).



- If SAT can be solved in P, all problems in NP can
- Karp discovered 21 further such problems shortly after (1972)
- Thousands such problems have been discovered since . . .

Definition 3.3: A language is

- NP-hard if every language in NP is polynomially many-one reducible to it
- NP-complete if it is NP-hard and in NP



Stephen Cook



Leonid Levin



Richard Karp

Comparing Complexity Classes

Is any NP-complete problem in P?

- If yes, then P = NP
- Nobody knows → biggest open problem in computer science
- Similar situations for many complexity classes

Some things that are known:

$$L \subseteq NL \subseteq P \subseteq NP \subseteq PSpace \subseteq ExpTime \subseteq NExpTime$$

- None of these is known to be strict
- But we know that P ⊆ ExpTime and NL ⊆ PSpace
- Moreover PSpace = NPSpace (by Savitch's Theorem)

(see TU Dresden course Complexity Theory (link) for many more details)

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Comparing Tractable Problems

Polynomial-time many-one reductions work well for (presumably) super-polynomial problems \rightsquigarrow what to use for P and below?

Definition 3.4: A LogSpace transducer is a deterministic TM with three tapes:

- · a read-only input tape
- a read/write working tape of size $O(\log n)$
- a write-only, write-once output tape

Such a TM needs a slightly different form of transitions:

- transition function input: state, input tape symbol, working tape symbol
- transition function output: state, working tape write symbol, input tape move, working tape move, output tape symbol or _ to not write anything to the output

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The Power of LogSpace

LogSpace transducers can still do a few things:

- store a constant number of counters and increment/decrement the counters
- store a constant number of pointers to the input tape, and locate/read items that start at this address from the input tape
- access/process/compare items from the input tape bit by bit

Example 3.5: Adding and subtracting binary numbers, detecting palindromes, comparing lists, searching items in a list, sorting lists, . . . can all be done in L.

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Joining Two Tables in LogSpace

Input: two relations *R* and *S*, represented as a list of tuples

- Use two pointers p_R and p_S pointing to tuples in R and S, respectively
- Outer loop: iterate p_R over all tuples of R
- Inner loop for each position of p_R : iterate p_S over all tuples of S
- For each combination of p_R and p_S , compare the tuples:
 - Use another two loops that iterate over the columns of R and S
 - Compare attribute names bit by bit
 - For matching attribute names, compare the respective tuple values bit by bit
- If all joined columns agree, copy the relevant parts of tuples p_R and p_S to the output (bit by bit)

Output: $R \bowtie S$

→ Fixed number of pointers and counters (making this fully formal is still a bit of work; e.g., an additional counter is needed to move the input read head to the target of a pointer (seek))

LogSpace reductions

LogSpace functions: The output of a LogSpace transducer is the contents of its output tape when it halts \rightsquigarrow a partial function $\Sigma^* \to \Sigma^*$

Note: the composition of two LogSpace functions is LogSpace (exercise)

Definition 3.6: A many-one reduction f from \mathcal{L}_1 to \mathcal{L}_2 is a LogSpace reduction if it is implemented by some LogSpace transducer.

→ can be used to define hardness for classes P and NL

From L to NL

NL: Problems whose solution can be verified in L

Example: Reachability

- Input: a directed graph G and two nodes s and t of G
- Output: accept if there is a directed path from s to t in G

Algorithm sketch:

- Store the id of the current node and a counter for the path length
- Start with s as current node
- In each step, increment the counter and move from the current node to one of its direct successors (nondeterministic)
- When reaching t, accept
- When the step counter is larger than the total number of nodes, reject

Beyond Logarithmic Space

Propositional satisfiability can be solved in linear space:

ightarrow iterate over possible truth assignments and check each in turn

More generally: all problems in NP can be solved in PSpace

→ try all conceivable polynomial certificates and verify each in turn

What is a "typical" (that is, hard) problem in PSpace?

→ Simple two-player games, and other uses of alternating quantifiers

Example: Playing "Geography"

A children's game:

- Two players are taking turns naming cities.
- Each city must start with the last letter of the previous.
- · Repetitions are not allowed.
- The first player who cannot name a new city looses.

A mathematicians' game:

- Two players are marking nodes on a directed graph.
- Each node must be a successor of the previous one.
- · Repetitions are not allowed.
- The first player who cannot mark a new node looses.

Question: given a certain graph and start node, can Player 1 enforce a win (i.e., does he have a winning strategy)?

→ PSpace-complete problem

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Example: Quantified Boolean Formulae (QBF)

We consider formulae of the following form:

$$Q_1X_1.Q_2X_2.\cdots Q_nX_n.\varphi[X_1,\ldots,X_n]$$

where $Q_i \in \{\exists, \forall\}$ are quantifiers, X_i are propositional logic variables, and φ is a propositional logic formula with variables X_1, \ldots, X_n and constants \top (true) and \bot (false)

Semantics:

- Propositional formulae without variables (only constants ⊤ and ⊥) are evaluated as usual
- $\exists X_1.\varphi[X_1]$ is true if either $\varphi[X_1/\top]$ or $\varphi[X_1/\bot]$ are
- $\forall X_1.\varphi[X_1]$ is true if both $\varphi[X_1/\top]$ and $\varphi[X_1/\bot]$ are

Question: Is a given QBF formula true?

→ PSpace-complete problem

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A Note on Space and Time

How many different configurations does a TM have in space (f(n))?

$$|Q| \cdot f(n) \cdot |\Gamma|^{f(n)}$$

- → No halting run can be longer than this
- → A time-bounded TM can explore all configurations in time proportional to this

Applications:

- $L \subseteq P$
- PSpace ⊆ ExpTime

Summary and Outlook

The complexity of query languages can be measured in different ways

Relevant complexity classes are based on restricting space and time:

$$L \subseteq NL \subseteq P \subseteq NP \subseteq PSpace \subseteq ExpTime$$

Problems are compared using many-one reductions

→ see TU Dresden course Complexity Theory for further details and deeper insights

Open questions:

- Now how hard is it to answer FO gueries? (next lecture)
- We saw that joins are in LogSpace is this tight?
- How can we study the expressiveness of query languages?

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