Point-based Temporal Extension of SQL

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Abstract

Most of the common proposals for temporal extensions of SQL (e.g., ATSQL2 or SQL/Temporal) use explicit interval-based references to time (interval attributes). In this paper we propose a different approach: we use *point-based* references to time as a basis for a temporal extension of SQL. The proposed language—SQL/TP—extends the syntax and semantics of SQL/92 in a very natural way: by adding a single new data type that represents the universe of *individual time instants*. Such an extension allows the users to write temporal queries in a customary fashion and vastly simplifies the semantics of the proposed language: we can essentially use the common SQL semantics. This way SQL/TP also fixes many problems present in query languages that use explicit interval-based temporal attributes. In addition, SQL/TP queries can still be efficiently evaluated over a compact *interval-based* encoding of possibly infinite temporal relations. The query evaluation is based on a *compilation* technique that translates SQL/TP queries to SQL/92. In this way existing database systems can be used for managing temporal data. We substantiate this claim by proposing an experimental version of a SQL/TP compiler to serve as a front-end for DB2[1] [13].

1 Introduction: why another temporal extension of SQL?

The last decade of research in temporal databases has led to the development of several temporal query languages based on extensions of existing relational languages, e.g., TQUEL [16] or various temporal extensions of SQL, most prominent of which are TSQL2 [17] and its variants: ATSQL2 [5] and the current proposal of temporal extension of SQL3 to the ISO and ANSI standardization committees—SQL/Temporal [18]. All the above languages are based on the *timestamp* view of temporal databases: every tuple is timestamped with the time at which the fact represented by the tuple holds [9]. Moreover, all these proposals recognize that timestamping tuples with single time instants leads to enormous space requirements: a tuple would have to be *repeated* for every time instant at which the fact represented by the tuple holds. Instead, compact encodings of sets of time instants (often called *periods* of validity) associated with a tuple are *encoded* by intervals [16, 18], *bitemporal elements* [4, 14], or other fixed-dimensional products of intervals (hyper-rectangles). The chosen encoding then provides the domain for the temporal attributes.

1.1 Current Proposals

In the majority of practical approaches, the explicit use of encoding for the timestamps in temporal relations leads to a *tension* between the syntax and the intended semantics of the languages, specifically:

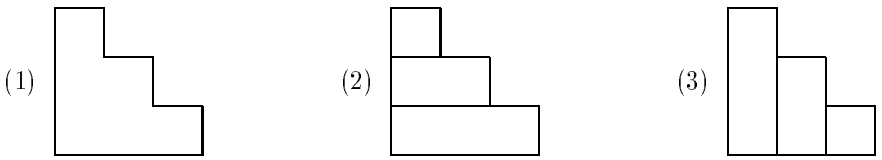
- References to time are realized using temporal attributes *explicitly referring to intervals* (or some other particular encoding of timestamps).

[1] DB2 is a trademark of IBM Corp.

- The data model and the semantics are *point-based* [4, 9]: the intervals are used merely as compact descriptions of large sets of time instants (even in cases when one of the various duplicate semantics is used).

This *conflict* between the point-based semantics and the direct use of interval-valued attributes leads to several unpleasant surprises, especially when multiple temporal dimensions are needed to evaluate a given query (e.g., when the query simultaneously references two distinct points in time in an essential way). Most importantly, is easy to show examples of queries where the answers depend on the choice of the particular encoding rather than on the underlying meaning (cf. Example 1.1 below). In addition, it is extremely hard to avoid such a behavior in an elegant way, and the actual semantics of such query languages tend to be very cumbersome. In many cases uniqueness of answers can only be guaranteed by operational means, e.g., by prescribing a particular evaluation order. In addition, the duplicate semantics and results of *aggregation* operations in such languages also inherently depend on the chosen encoding. Consider the following situation:

Example 1.1 Let D be a temporal relation (or an answer to a temporal query) that represents the region in the figure (1) below.



It is important to understand, that each of the figures *represents the same* set of points in a two-dimensional space. However, it is also clear, that we can distinguish (2) and (3) using a first-order query in, e.g., SQL/Temporal. We call such queries *representation dependent*. Moreover, even very simple queries, e.g., counting the number of regions along the axes, give different results depending on the particular representation.

In the rest of this section we argue that the situation in Example 1.1 naturally arises during evaluation of first-order temporal queries:

The common temporal query languages, in a hope to avoid representation dependency (among other reasons), try to mimic a point-based semantics using set operations on the encoded timestamps. Such an approach usually requires a *normalization* procedure on the encoding. Indeed, in a single-dimensional case, the representation dependency problem is successfully evaded using *coalescing* [6] that produces a unique representation of single-dimensional temporal relations. Note that the TSQL2's informal semantics, including many TSQL2 queries, implicitly rely on this assumption [3, 17].

However, a single temporal dimension is not sufficient to formulate general temporal queries. Consider the query "are there two distinct time instants when a given relation contains exactly the same tuples?" (Section 3.3, query 3). [1] and [20] have independently shown that this query cannot be formulated in first-order temporal logic. A direct corollary of this result is that this query cannot be expressed in *any* single-dimensional temporal relational algebra[2]. Moreover, [20] shows that the number of temporal dimensions cannot be bounded by any constant in order to express all first-order queries. Therefore, multiple temporal dimensions cannot be avoided during evaluation of temporal queries in general and therefore multidimensional temporal relations may be necessary *during query evaluation* as intermediate results, even if the result is a single-dimensional temporal relation. This fact combined with the use of explicit interval-valued temporal attributes leads directly to situations similar to the situation in Example 1.1.

There are other reasons for including multiple temporal dimensions in a temporal database system, e.g., the need for representing both valid and transaction time [14]. However, we would like to emphasize at this point that the need for an unbounded number of temporal dimensions originates from the inherent properties of first-order queries alone, even if the temporal database and the results of the queries are single-dimensional themselves.

[2] That is, a relational algebra over the universe of *single-dimensional temporal relations*.

Now it is also easy to see, why the interval-based approaches fail to guarantee representation independence for general temporal queries even when coalescing is used: To guarantee fixed size of tuples in a temporal relation, the region (1) in Example 1.1 has to be represented by a finite union of rectangles, e.g., using the representation in figures (2) or (3). While both (2) and (3) are coalesced, they can still be distinguished by a first-order query with interval-valued temporal attributes. Moreover, this problem cannot be avoided using a different normal form, as there is no unique coalescing-based normal form for dimension higher than one (for detailed discussion of coalescing see [6]).

In addition, in many cases the user has no control over the representation of the intermediate results since the coalescing is implicitly performed by the system. While the implicit coalescing in a single-dimensional system allows representation independent formulation of queries, with two or more temporal dimensions, it leads to serious problems: the user cannot be sure if the region (1) in Example 1.1 is going to be represented as (2) or as (3). However, the result of queries, the user tries to formulate, may depend on this information.

1.2 Our Proposal

The above problems are inherent to most of the proposals of temporal query languages where temporal attributes range over intervals. Therefore our approach follows a different path to avoids all of the above problems: we let the temporal attributes in our language range over *single time instants*. In this way our approach separates an abstract query language—SQL/TP—defined over a point-based linear model of time from the concrete interval-based encoding of timestamps which is mostly *hidden* from the user. The approach is based on several recent results in the area of temporal and constraint query languages [1, 15, 19, 20].

In addition, a meaningful duplicate semantics and aggregation can be naturally defined such a language independently from the particular encoding, e.g., using the results in [10, 11].

The two main design principles behind the new language are:

1. The syntax and semantics of standard SQL has to be extended in a *natural way*: by adding a new data type to represent the universe of time instants. This new type has to behave (almost) identically to the existing data types.
2. The syntax and semantics have to be *independent* of the chosen encoding of timestamps. In particular, the syntax cannot include any constructs that allow direct manipulation of the encoding of sets of time instants.

These two principles guarantee a declarative way of formulating queries and allow the current SQL experts to use SQL/TP without the need to learn new syntax and semantics. Note that most of the existing temporal query languages violate both of the above principles, mainly by introducing constructs for explicit manipulation of the actual timestamp representation: both ATSQL [5] and SQL/Temporal [18] use the `BEGIN` and `END` keywords to extract the endpoints of intervals, `PERIOD` keyword to construct new interval timestamps, and Allen's interval algebra [2] operators to compare the timestamps. This is only possible if the user *knows* that the timestamps are encoded by intervals.

In this paper we mostly concentrate on evaluation of temporal queries over the interval-based encoding of time. However, conforming to the above principles allows us to use different encoding for sets of time instants, e.g., the *linear repeating points* [22] for periodic events, *without* the need for new syntax and semantics. In addition our proposal meets the following requirements:

- SQL/TP can be efficiently implemented on top of an interval-based representation of temporal databases: the performance of a SQL/TP system should be comparable to performance of SQL/Temporal [18] based DBMS on a vast majority of representation independent queries.
- SQL/TP statements can be compiled to standard SQL/92 [12][3]; the translated queries can be evaluated using an off-shelf database system. This way we can build a SQL/TP front-end

[3] Other relational languages can be used as well, provided they have sufficient expressive power.

to an *existing* RDBMS and provide temporal capabilities *without* modifying the underlying database system itself.

- SQL/TP can express all representation independent SQL/Temporal queries. Moreover, SQL/TP is complete in the sense of [8]. The results in [1, 20] show that this is not the case for any of the temporal query languages based on a fixed-dimensional temporal relational algebra, e.g., [7].
- Migration requirements [18], that require several levels of *temporal upward compatibility* with SQL; while SQL/TP itself does not literally follow all the requirements, the compatibility can be easily achieved using a very simple syntactic manipulation of the source queries, and adding tags to distinguish the particular compatibility modes, cf. Section 3.5.

The three main results of this paper are: (1) the definition of a *representation-independent* temporal extension of SQL, (2) a *query compilation technique* for such an extension that allows SQL/TP queries to be evaluated using a *standard* RDBMS, and (3) the definition of a nouveau *normalization* technique that facilitates evaluation of temporal queries over an interval-based encoding of timestamps. In addition, this technique can be implemented by adding a *single* first-order definable operator to relational algebra: this way the changes to existing DBMS are localized, should a native implementation be undertaken.

Before we start the technical part of the paper, we would like to reiterate (to avoid any misunderstanding) that we are interested in intervals *as encodings of sets on time instants*. This is very different from the approaches taken in the various *interval logics* [2], where intervals represent *points* in a two-dimensional (half-)space. However, due to the natural multidimensionality of SQL/TP, we can represent and query this view of intervals using two temporal dimensions (which would naturally correspond to the semantics of intervals in such logics).

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 introduces the temporal data model: the abstract and concrete interval-based temporal databases (following the terminology introduced in [9]). Section 3 defines the syntax and semantics of SQL/TP and gives examples of interesting temporal queries. We also include a discussion of compatibility modes that allow the migration of SQL queries to SQL/TP (Section 3.5). Section 4 gives a sketch of the proposed compilation technique. Section 5 compares our proposal with the SQL/Temporal proposal to the ISO/ANSI SQL3 committee. The paper is concluded with several open questions and directions of future research. In addition Appendix A we include the BNF of SQL/TP.

2 The Data Model for Temporal Databases

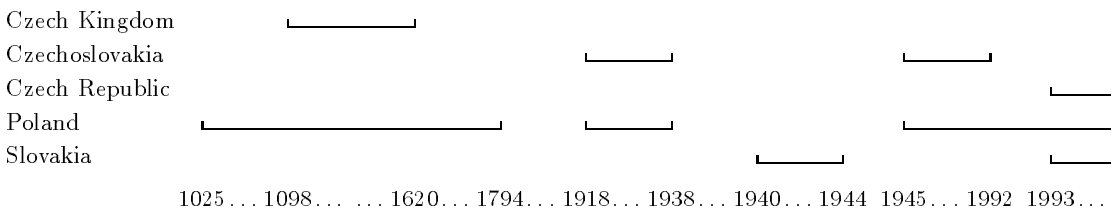
Before we introduce SQL/TP we need to define the underlying data model. We use a *point-based* view of time: the domain of time is viewed as a discrete[4] countably infinite linearly ordered set without endpoints (e.g., the integers). The individual elements of the set represent the actual time instants while the linear order represents the progression of time. The actual granularity of time is implementation-dependent[5]. Besides the additional data type for the time instants we also use all the other data types defined in standard SQL: strings, integers, floats, etc. As usual, these data types do not have an a-priori assigned interpretation (unlike the time instants). Thus we summarily refer to those data types as *the uninterpreted constants*.

The relationships between the time instants and the uninterpreted constants are captured in a finite set of temporal relations represented in a database. Following the terminology of [9] we distinguish the *abstract* temporal databases from the *concrete* temporal databases:

Definition 2.1 (Abstract Temporal Databases) A *signature* of a relational symbol R is a tuple $(a_1 : t_1, \ldots, a_k : t_k)$ where a_i are distinct attribute names, t_i the corresponding attribute types, and k the arity of R. Attributes of type `time` are *temporal attributes*, the remaining attributes are *data attributes*. A *database schema* is a finite set of relational symbols $R_1, \ldots, R_k$

[4] A dense linearly ordered time can be used with only a minor adjustments.

[5] For our purposes any fixed granularity will do.



This figure represents a graph of a independence relation for various European countries.

Figure 1: European History

paired with their signatures. An *abstract temporal database* is a set of tables defined by a database schema.

In general we do not restrict the cardinality of the abstract temporal tables: we allow infinite tables as well. However, in order to define meaningful operations on such tables we require that the number of occurrences (duplicates) in every table is finite for every distinct tuple.

Example 2.2 In the rest of the paper we use the following abstract temporal database as a running example. We use only a single relational symbol {`indep`(Name, Year)} in the schema. The particular instance of the `indep` relation we use in our examples represents independence of several countries in Central Europe (captured in Figure 1):

`indep`	
Name	Year
Poland	1025
...	...
Poland	1794
Poland	1918
...	...
Poland	1938
Poland	1945
...	...

...	
Czech Kingdom	1198
...	...
Czech Kingdom	1620
Czechoslovakia	1918
...	...
Czechoslovakia	1938
Czechoslovakia	1945
...	...
Czechoslovakia	1992

...	
Czech Republic	1995
...	...
...	...
Slovakia	1940
...	...
Slovakia	1944
Slovakia	1993
...	...
...	...

We do not impose any restrictions on the number of temporal attributes in the relations (unlike, e.g., TSQL2 [17]). Indeed, in general we may want to record relationships between different time instants as well as relationships between tuples of uninterpreted constants and a single time instant. While we may want to restrict users from creating such multi-dimensional tables themselves, we use this feature in the later sections to translate SQL/TP queries to SQL/92.

The abstract temporal databases provide a natural data model for modeling temporal relationships. However, it would be impractical (and often impossible) to store the temporal databases as plain bags of their tuples. The problem is that a particular tuple is often related to a large and possibly infinite set of time instants. Rather than storing all such tuples one by one, we use a *compact encoding* of sets of time instants. The choice of a particular encoding—in our case the *interval*-based encoding—defines the class of *concrete temporal databases*:

Definition 2.3 (Concrete Temporal Database) Let R be a relational symbol with signature E. A *concrete signature* corresponding to E is defined as a tuple of the attributes that contains (1) a for every data attribute $a \in E$ and (2) t`min` and t`max` for every temporal attribute $t \in E$. The attributes t`min` and t`max` denote the endpoints of intervals. We denote the concrete signature of R by $\overline{E}$. A *concrete temporal database schema* corresponding to a given abstract database schema is a set of relation symbols and their concrete signatures derived from the signatures in the abstract database schema[6]. A *concrete temporal database* is a set of finite relations defined by a concrete database schema.

To capture the relationship between an abstract and a concrete temporal database we define a *semantic mapping* that maps a concrete temporal database to its meaning—an abstract temporal

[6] We use the same names for both the abstract and concrete relations. The actual meaning of the symbol is always clear from the context.

database. First we define the meaning for a single concrete tuple $\mathbf{x} = (t\mathtt{min}, t\mathtt{max}, a_1, \ldots, a_k)$ as a bag of tuples $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \{(t, a_1, \ldots, a_k) : t\mathtt{min} \leq t \leq t\mathtt{max}\}$; analogously for tuples with multiple temporal attributes. Now we define the meaning of a concrete relation $\mathbf{R}$, $\|\mathbf{R}\|$, to be the duplicate preserving union of $\|\mathbf{x}\|$ for $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}$. We say that $\mathbf{R}$ *encodes* $\|\mathbf{R}\|$. We extend the $\|.\|$ to concrete temporal databases in a natural way.

The *encodes* relation defines a subset of the abstract temporal databases—the *finitary temporal databases*—that can be encoded using the concrete temporal databases. Note that the encoding is not unique and thus two distinct concrete temporal databases can encode the same abstract temporal database (cf. Example 1.1). We call such concrete temporal databases ($\|.\|$-)equivalent.

Example 2.4 The database instance from Example 2.2 is infinite. However, it is finitary: we can encode it using the following concrete temporal database:

`indep`		
Name	Year`min`	Year`max`
Czech Kingdom	1198	1620
Czechoslovakia	1918	1938
Czechoslovakia	1945	1992
Czech Republic	1993	∞

...

Slovakia	1940...1944
Slovakia	1993... ∞
Poland	1025...1794
Poland	1918...1938
Poland	1945... ∞

All queries in the rest of the paper are evaluated over this database while preserving answers with respect to the original relation in Example 2.2. At this point we would like to emphasize that the tables in Examples 2.2 and 2.4 are merely different representation of the same *binary* relation in Figure 1 and have the same meaning.

3 The Language SQL/TP

In this section we define the syntax and semantics of SQL/TP. This includes the data definition, data query, and data manipulation parts of the language. In all three cases we show that SQL/TP is a natural syntactic extension of SQL over the abstract temporal databases. Moreover, the proposed semantics of SQL/TP is essentially identical to the semantics of SQL (safely) extended to potentially infinite tables.

3.1 Data Definition Language

We start with the *Data Definition Language*: it is essentially identical to standard SQL/92:

```
create table <rid> ( <signat> )
create view  <rid> ( <query> )
```

where `<rid>` is a table identifier and `<signat>` is a signature of the new table. For views the signature is derived from the signature of the `<query>` expression (cf. Sections 3.2 and 4.2.2). The only *difference* is that the temporal attributes are declared using a new data type `time` that supports several *modifiers* to determine how the time instants are stored in the temporal table:

`using points`: The time instants are stored as atomic values similarly to all other data types. This choice is suitable for representing single atomic events that happen at a specific time instant, e.g., when a particular tuple was inserted into the database.

`using [bounded | unbounded] intervals`: Continuous sets of time instants associated with a particular data tuple are encoded using intervals. This encoding is suitable for representing durations of events, e.g., the valid time for a certain fact (which in reality is often an interval). The `bounded` and `unbounded` keywords specify if the $-\infty$ and ∞ may be used as endpoints of intervals or not. The choice affects, e.g., what aggregate operations are allowed for that particular attribute; cf. Section 3.2.2.

It is important to understand, that these modifiers affect only the way the table is stored, not the semantics of the queries (similarly to specifying, e.g., the sort order or the keys for a table).

In the future this list may grow to accommodate different encodings. The modifiers are the only place in SQL/TP where the syntax reflects the chosen encoding. The default modifier `unbounded time` is assumed for all temporal attributes unless explicitly stated otherwise.

The following table defines how the modifiers interact with standard relational operators ("p" is a shorthand for `points`, "b" for `bounded intervals`, and "u" for `unbounded intervals`):

op	p op p	p op b	p op u	b op p	b op b	b op u	u op p	u op b	u op u
$\cap$	p	p	p	p	b	b	p	b	u
$-$	p	p	p	b	b	b	u	u	u
$\cup$	p	b	u	b	b	u	u	u	u

The interaction of temporal attributes in joins and selections is captured by their behavior in the $\cap$ (intersection) operation, projection does not affect the remainders of the tuples.

Example 3.1 The table `indep` in Example 2.2 can be created using the SQL/TP statement

```
create table indep (name char(20), year time using unbounded intervals)
```

In the rest of the paper we discuss only the interval-based encodings; encoding time instants by points does not introduce any problems over the traditional data types. In addition we assume the time instants can be represented by integers (using a fixed granularity) and we allow integer-like operations on the new data type so we do not get lost in superfluous syntax.

3.2 The Query Language

For sake simplicity we discuss only a syntactic subset of full SQL/TP. This fact does not affect the generality of our proposal: we can show that the proposed fragment forms a (first-order) complete query language [8] and that all representation independent SQL/Temporal queries, including queries with aggregation, can be equivalently formulated in this fragment.

3.2.1 Syntax

The chosen syntactic subset of SQL/TP uses two basic syntactic constructs:

Select block. Similarly to the standard SQL the select block is the main building block of our query language. It has the usual form

```
select <s_list> [from <f_list>] [where <cond>] [group by <g_list>]
```

where

- `<s_list>` is a list of attribute identifiers, constants, and (aggregate) expressions with the possibility of renaming the output column using `<s_exp> as <id>`[7],
- `<f_list>` is a sequence of relation identifiers or subqueries, again with the possibility of assigning correlation names,
- `<cond>` is a selection condition built from atomic conditions using boolean connectives. The atomic conditions depend on the data types of the involved attributes: in the case of temporal attributes we allow conditions of the form `<id>` *op* `<id>` $+ C$ where *op* $\in \{<, \leq, =, \geq, >\}$, and C a constant denoting a *length* of a time period, and
- `<g_list>` is a list of attribute identifiers that specifies how the result of the select block is grouped. The usual SQL rules that govern the grouping operations apply here as well.

We extend the definition of signature to SQL/TP expressions: The *signature* of an expression is tuple of names of projected attributes paired with their data types (including the modifiers).

[7] The columns defined using expressions or aggregation have to be given a name this way.

Set Operations. Besides nesting queries in the `from` clause of the select block we can combine the individual select blocks using *set operations* as follows:

```
( <exp> ) <setop> ( <exp> )
```

where `<setop>` is one of the `union` (set union with duplicate elimination), `union all` (additive union), `except` (set difference with duplicate elimination), `except all` (monus), `intersect` (set intersection with duplicate elimination), `intersect all` (duplicate preserving intersection). We require the signatures of both the expressions to match[8]. The resulting signature is the common signature of the expressions involved in the operation.

The proposed syntax omits two common SQL constructs: subqueries nested in the `where` clause and the `having` clause. Both these constructs can be expressed in the presented fragment using nesting in the `from` clause of the select block and can be considered to be a syntactic sugar.

To achieve signature compatibility for temporal attributes we are allowed to introduce a special constant pseudo-relation `true(t: time)` true for all elements of the temporal domain. This relation allows us to pad the attribute lists involved in the set operations (cf. Section 3.3) and to express, e.g., the complementation over the temporal domain.

3.2.2 Semantics

SQL/TP is essentially SQL/92 extended with an additional data type `time`. The main *feature* of such an extension is, that we can use the familiar *SQL-like semantics* over the class of the *abstract temporal databases*. This way we completely avoid all the problems with representation dependent queries. Also, changes to the encoding do not affect the syntax and semantics of queries.

However, we have to be careful when extending relational operations to infinite tables: we have to ensure that we never produce tables with infinite duplication of a particular tuple. It is easy to see that all the relational operations, with the exception of duplicate preserving projection, meet this requirement. However, the duplicate-preserving projection can produce such tables, e.g.:

$$\{(\text{“Poland”}, [1945, \infty])\} \xrightarrow{\|\cdot\|} \{(\text{“Poland”}, n) : n \geq 1945\} \xrightarrow{\pi_1} \{(\text{“Poland”}), \ldots, (\text{“Poland”}), \ldots\}$$

The result of the projection contains infinite duplication of the tuple (“Poland”). This cannot be allowed as other relational operators, e.g., the bag difference, are not well defined over such tables. Therefore we restrict the use of duplicate-preserving projection to attributes of bounded types, i.e., bounded intervals, time points, and all data types.

3.2.3 Closure over Interval-based Concrete Databases

While the above restriction guarantees a well defined semantics, it is too weak to guarantee closure SQL/TP queries over the chosen class of concrete temporal databases. The main source of problems are the order dependencies among temporal attributes. Consider the following example:

Example 3.2 It is easy to write SQL/TP expressions that *do not* preserve closure over the class of finitary abstract temporal databases. Consider the expression:

```
Q: select  r1.name as name, r1.year as t1, r2.year as t2
   from    indep r1, indep r2
   where   r1.name = r2.name and r1.year < r2.year
```

The attributes `t1` and `t2` are *correlated* by an inequality `t1 < t2` *in the result of the query*:

$$\begin{aligned}\texttt{Q}(D) = \{\, &(\text{“Poland”}, 1945, 1946), (\text{“Poland”}, 1945, 1947), \ldots, (\text{“Poland”}, 1945, 1950), \ldots \\ &(\text{“Poland”}, 1946, 1947), \ldots, (\text{“Poland”}, 1946, 1950), \ldots \\ &\qquad\qquad \ddots \qquad\qquad \vdots \\ &\qquad\qquad\qquad (\text{“Poland”}, 1949, 1950), \ldots\}\end{aligned}$$

[8] SQL only requires the types to match. However, we require both the names of the attributes and their types to match. This is not a restriction as the renaming can be conveniently done within the `select` clauses.

Obviously the triangle-like region $\mathtt{Q}(D)$ can not be described by a finite product of intervals.

To avoid this problem we use the notion of *attribute independence*. Rather than a semantic definition of attribute independence [11] we use a syntactic inference system to detect attribute independence in a SQL/TP expression:

Definition 3.3 (Attribute Independence) Let t_1 and t_2 be two temporal attributes in the signature of a SQL/TP expression *exp*. We say that t_1 and t_2 are independent in *exp* if

1. *exp* is a base relation,
2. *exp* is a select block, t_1 and t_2 are names of t_1' and t_2' assigned in the select clause, and
   - t_1' and t_2' are independent in all expressions in the `from` list, and
   - an order relationship between t_1' and t_2' is not implied by the `where` clause.
3. *exp* is of the form (*e1*) setop (*e2*) and t_1 and t_2 are independent in both *e1* and *e2*.

In addition all data attributes (and point temporal attributes) are mutually independent.

The inference system is sufficient to infer *independence* of attributes. We could also analyze the compositions of the selection conditions on temporal attributes and check for tautologies. We have chosen not to persuade this direction in the current version of the proposal for sake of simplicity. However, the theory of linear order is decidable and thus such an extension is feasible; note that these tests are performed at *compile time* and thus do not affect the data complexity of the queries.

For similar reasons we restrict the use of aggregate operations: we require the aggregated attribute to be independent of the `group by` attributes [10]. Moreover, the aggregation has to obey the restrictions in Figure 2.

In addition we also restrict the use of duplicate-preserving projection on all temporal attributes encoded by intervals. We have already seen that duplicate-preserving projection is not possible for unbounded data types. On the other hand, for bounded data types we could implement the duplicate preserving projection by creating the appropriate number of copies of the remainder of a tuple. However, such an operation would make the query evaluation very inefficient and almost certainly unusable in practice. Consider the following example:

Example 3.4 Let $R(x,t) = \{(a,[0,2^n-1])\}$ be a concrete temporal relation where n is a large integer. Clearly the size of R (in bits) is $|a|+n$. However, the size of $\pi_x(R)$ is $2^n \cdot |a|$ as the result of duplicate preserving projection has to contain 2^n tuples (a).

Allowing such a projections would cause an exponential blowup in the (space) complexity of query evaluation. Note that the duplicate preserving projection is used in SQL for two main reasons: (1) to avoid duplicate elimination or (2) to facilitate correctness of aggregates. The first use does not apply to SQL/TP—we deal with redundant duplicate elimination in the optimization phase of our compilation procedure. The aggregates are handled using a rewriting technique that allows us to avoid the duplicate-preserving projections[9]. This way we can evaluate a vast majority of representation-independent aggregate queries even under the above restriction: note that all other relational operations preserve duplicates (cf. Section 3.3). Therefore we can exclude the duplicate-preserving projections of temporal attributes encoded by intervals and this way to maintain the polynomial complexity bound.

We define the SQL/TP queries as a subset of SQL/TP expressions obeying the following rules:

Definition 3.5 Let Q be a SQL/TP expression that obeys the following rules:

1. no temporal attribute encoded by intervals is projected out in a `select all` clause.
2. all attributes in the (top-level) signature of the expression are independent.
3. the attributes in the `group by` clause are independent of the remaining attributes, and
4. the attributes in the used in the aggregation operators follow the rules in Figure 2

Then we say that Q is a *SQL/TP query over the class of concrete interval-base temporal databases*.

Type of the `group by` Attribute	Type of the aggregated attribute		
	`data`	`bounded intervals`	`unbounded intervals`
`data`	`min, max, sum, count`	`min, max, count`	`min, max`
`bounded intervals`	`min, max, sum, count`	`min, max, count`	`min, max`
`unbounded intervals`	`min, max`	`min, max`	`min, max`

When the `group by` clause contains multiple attributes we take the intersection of the allowed aggregate operations. We have excluded the `sum` aggregate on the temporal attributes: while it is definable in our framework, it makes little sense from the semantics point of view.

Figure 2: Allowed aggregates.

It is easy to verify that all SQL/TP queries preserve closure over the class of finitary temporal databases:

Theorem 3.6 *Let D be a finitary database and Q a SQL/TP query. Then $Q(D)$ is finitary.*

The requirement of attribute independence seems like a rather severe restriction. However, the independence is required only for the temporal attributes present in the signature of the top-level query, not for all temporal attributes that appear in the query. All the representation-independent TSQL2 queries, and all first order queries with a single temporal attribute in their signature in general, can be expressed as SQL/TP queries.

Theorem 3.7 *The first-order fragment of SQL/TP is expressively equivalent to range restricted two-sorted first order logic (temporal relational calculus).*

Thus SQL/TP can express queries, shown not to be expressible in TRA [7] or any temporal query language that assumes a fixed number of temporal dimensions in its data model, e.g., the query "List all pairs of time instants, when exactly the same countries were independent" [1, 20].

3.3 Examples of Queries

In this section we provide illustrative examples of SQL/TP queries. The examples are chosen to highlight the ease and naturality of formulating queries in SQL/TP. In addition some of the examples, e.g., example 3, can *not* be easily (and correctly) be formulated in TSQL2 or its derivatives.

1. The first example is a simple PSJ query "List all countries, that were independent while Czech Kingdom was independent".

```
select  r1.name
from    indep r1, indep r2
where   r2.name = 'Czech Kingdom' and r1.year = r2.year
```

This query can is a simple PSJ query (a single select block). Note also, that the result is a standard non-temporal relation. The result of this query when evaluated over the database from Example 2.2 is:

```
name
--------------------
Czech Kingdom
Poland
```

2. Formulating more complicated queries in SQL/TP, e.g., the query "List all years when no country was independent", is easy and natural as well:

```
( select t as year from true ) except ( select year from indep )
```

The query is answered by complementation of the projection from the `indep` relation. Note the use of the `true` pseudo-relation to achieve signature compatibility. The result of the query is

[9] This technique is out of the scope of this paper and is not needed for any of our examples.

```
  yearmin      yearmax
----------------------
-infinity         1024
     1795         1917
     1939         1939
```

While the output—a concrete table containing all the periods when no country was independent—has two columns, it is essential to understand that it is only a convenient and compact representation of an abstract table with a single column `Year`.

3. Little bit harder query is "List all pairs of years, when exactly the same countries were independent" ($\{y_1, y_2 | \forall x . \texttt{indep(x,y_1)\iff \verb}indep"(x, y_2)\}$):

```
select  y1, y2 from (
  ( select r1.t as y1, r2.t as y2 from true r1, true r2 )
  except
  ( select y1, y2 from
      ( ( ( select name, year as y1, t as y2 from indep, true )
          except
          ( select name, t as y1, year as y2 from indep, true ) )
        union
        ( ( select name, t as y1, year as y2 from indep, true )
          except
          ( select name, year as y1, t as y2 from indep, true ) ) ) ) )
```

The fairly complex formulation of the query is caused by expressing the "if and only if" using conjunctions, disjunctions, and negation. The answer to this query is (the output shows only part of the answer):

```
     y1min     y1max         y2min     y2max
-----------------------------------------------
-infinity      1024     -infinity      1024
-infinity      1024          1795      1917
-infinity      1024          1938      1938
     ...       ...           ...       ...
     1918      1938          1918      1938
     1918      1938          1945      1992
     ...       ...           ...       ...
```

Again the output relation is just a representation of a binary relation with two columns `y1` and `y2`. The results in [1, 20] show that the two dimensionality is inherent to this query (this remains true even when we consider the existential closure of this query).

4. In addition to first-order queries, the aggregate operations in SQL/TP also naturally interact with the rest of the language, e.g., in the query "List all countries that became independent before Slovakia":

```
select  name
from    indep, ( select min(year) as y0 from indep where name = 'Slovakia' )
where   year < y0
```

The result is:

```
name
--------------------
Czech Kingdom
Czechoslovakia
Poland
```

5. SQL/TP also supports a natural way of aggregating over the temporal attributes: "For every country (that has been independent during the 20th century) list the number of years of independence within the 20th century"

```
select   name, count(year) as years
from     indep
where    1900  <=  year  <  2000
group by name
```

The aggregation is made possible by the `where` clause: it restricts the otherwise unbounded attribute `year`. The result is:

```
name                        years
-----------------------------
Czechoslovakia                67
Czech Republic                 7
Poland                        75
Slovakia                      11
```

Note that in query languages with interval-valued temporal attributes we would have to use a special syntactic construction to *measure* the size of the intervals explicitly.

6. Moreover, SQL/TP supports *grouping* by temporal attributes: "For every year list the number of independent countries (if any)":

```
select year, count(name) as numofc from indep group by year
```

The result is:

```
   yearmin      yearmax     numofc
---------------------------------
      1025         1197          1
      1198         1620          2
      1621         1794          1
      1918         1938          2
      1940         1944          1
      1945         1992          2
      1993     infinity          3
```

This query is quite hard to ask in temporal query languages that use coalescing implicitly: the input table is coalesced, and re-coalescing after the `name` column is eliminated leads to loosing the duplication we want to compute.

However, there are queries that exploit the *properties* of the interval-based encoding, e.g., queries about *maximal* periods of time. Such queries may often seem easier to formulate in the interval-based approaches. However, we would like to point out, that if the queries use multiple temporal dimensions, we cannot rely on the maximality properties of the encoding any longer (as discussed in the Introduction). Also, relying on particular properties of an encoding destroys the declarative character of the queries and may prevent the use of different encoding in the future. We have chosen to trade this particular feature for retaining the declarative nature of SQL/TP (similarly as we have chosen SQL over, e.g., IMS).

3.4 Database Updates

Besides considering the query language, in a truly practical approach we also need to address updates of temporal relations. We propose two constructs:

```
insert [all] into R ( <query> )
delete [all] from R ( <query> )
```

The updates have to preserve semantics with respect to the abstract temporal databases while manipulating only the concrete representation in a similar way queries do. The `delete` construction is more powerful, then the SQL/92 version (handles duplication properly).

3.5 Compatibility with SQL/92

To allow easy migration from SQL/92 to SQL/TP we introduce two *compatibility modes* [18] that allow standard SQL queries to be evaluated over a temporal database:

Temporal Upward Compatibility (TUC) mode. The first level of compatibility treats standard SQL queries as queries operating with respect to the *current* time instant. This goal can be easily achieved by a simple query transformation that replaces every reference to a base table R by the expression

$$Q[R_i \mapsto \pi_V \sigma_{t_i=N}(R_i)]$$

where V is the list of R_i's data attributes, t_i is R_i's temporal attribute, and N is a constant representing the *current* time instant (e.g., a `CURRENT DATE` in DB2). This transformation removes all temporal attributes and thus the original SQL query is evaluated on the current snapshot of the database.

Sequenced Queries. The second extension evaluates the standard SQL queries over the temporal database with respect to *every time instant* returning a temporal relation as a result[10] The application of a sequenced query is defined by a transformation

$$\{Q[R_i \mapsto \pi_V \sigma_{t_i=t}(R_i)] \times \{t\}\ \}.$$

The resulting query performs exactly the required operation.

We do not specify any explicit syntax for the compatibility modes: all queries that come from legacy applications use one of the compatibility modes (usually the TUC mode) by default, and thus we assume that they are preprocessed using the above definitions *before* they are submitted to the SQL/TP query processor.

For all practical purposes, such an arrangement is sufficient to provide the upward compatibility for SQL. However, it is easy to see that we could extend SQL/TP with keywords to tag queries in order to distinguish the compatibility modes from the full SQL/TP mode on the syntactic level (similarly to [18]). Such a tagging mechanism would guarantee a *syntactic* temporal upward compatibility, should it become necessary.

Note that in all the cases, the SQL/TP queries generated by the compatibility modes satisfy assumptions of Theorem 4.8 and thus can be efficiently translated to SQL/92 over the concrete temporal databases by our translation algorithm.

4 Evaluation of SQL/TP Statements

Starting in this section we focus on the second and third results of this paper: evaluation of temporal queries over interval-based concrete temporal databases. The main requirement on such an evaluation procedure, besides preserving the semantics, is that it is able to evaluate the queries while referring only to the *active domain of the given concrete database*. This is not completely trivial, as the semantics is defined with respect to abstract temporal databases and a naive query evaluation procedure would indeed refer to all points in the active domain of the corresponding abstract temporal database.

While most approaches to query evaluation in temporal databases take the path of adding specialized temporal operations to a standard relational system, we take an alternative approach: we define a *translation procedure* that allows us to *compile* SQL/TP statements to standard SQL/92 statements. This way:

- we guarantee that the query evaluation uses only the active domain of the concrete temporal database (the result is an ordinary SQL/92 query),

[10] The query evaluation algorithm defined in Section 4 executes such queries efficiently with respect to the interval encoding, rather than by separate evaluation for every time instant.

- we can implement a SQL/TP interface as a preprocessor on top of an ordinary relational system, e.g., DB2, and
- we isolate a single intrinsic operation needed for temporal query evaluation over an interval-based encoding. While the result of the translation can be defined using a SQL/92 query, we may decide to implement parts of it, e.g., the normalization operation; cf. Definition 4.3, natively to improve the efficiency of query evaluation.

The translation utilizes the *quantifier elimination procedure* for linear order [21] to replace references to individual time instants in the queries with references to interval endpoints. In the rest of this section we give a sketch of the SQL/TP to SQL/92 translation. The translation is based on an extension of results in [19] to duplicate semantics using a nouveau normalization technique. In the rest of this section we provide a high-level overview of the proposed translation. The description addresses all the major issues that need to be considered to make the translation work. However, we omit many of the (often tedious) details.

4.1 Data Definition Language

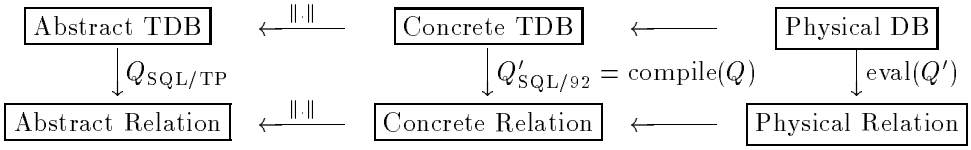
The translation of the data definition language is fairly simple: we merely convert the abstract signature to its concrete counterpart. The SQL/TP statement in Example 2.2 is translated to:

```
create table indep (name char(20), yearmin Time, yearmax Time)
```

where `Time` is a user defined type (UDT) for an integer like time. This statement produces the table from Example 2.4. The data type `Time` is equivalent to `INTEGER`[11] extended with two special elements, $-\infty$ and ∞. We define the successor and order for this new type by lifting the operations from the `INTEGER` type.

4.2 The SQL/TP Queries

The crux of our approach lies in the translation of SQL/TP queries. The natural correctness criterion is the preservation of query semantics. This requirement is captured by the following diagram:



We show that the proposed translation algorithm guarantees commutativity for the left part of the diagram. The commutativity of the right part is backed up by the reliability of the used relational system. The process also gives a proof to the following theorem:

Theorem 4.1 *Let D be a concrete temporal database and Q an arbitrary SQL/TP query. Then* $Q(\|D\|) = \|\,\mathrm{compile}(Q)(D)\|$.

Note that compile(Q) is executed at query compilation time—before the actual execution over the temporal database begins. Thus it does not affect the data complexity of the query evaluation algorithm. Before we present the steps of the translation itself, we introduce several auxiliary definitions.

Conditional Queries. Definition 3.5 requires the temporal attributes in the result of a SQL/TP query to be independent. However, it does not prevent us from writing queries whose subexpressions do not have this property. To deal with such attribute dependencies during the translation we introduce the notion of a *conditional query*:

[11] Often we can take advantage of a built-in data type provided by the RDBMS (e.g., `DATE` in DB/2).

Attribute	max(a)	min(a)	count(a)	sum(a)
data	max(a)	min(a)	sum(c)	sum($a \cdot c$)
temporal	max($a$max)	min($a$min)	sum(c)	N/A

For every concrete tuple $\mathbf{x}$ in the table that the aggregation is applied to we let $c = \text{CNT}_G^{\varphi}(\mathbf{x})$. Note that the value of c is different for every tuple in the original table.

Figure 3: Translation of Aggregate operations.

Definition 4.2 (Conditional Query) Let Q be a SQL/92 query and φ a quantifier-free formula in the language of linear order such that t is a free variable of φ if and only if $t$min and $t$max are temporal attributes in the signature of Q. We call $Q\{\varphi\}$ a *conditional query*.

While the translation algorithm uses the conditional queries to translate subqueries of a SQL/TP query, the attribute independence of the top-level attributes guarantees that no such dependencies remain in the result of the translation.

Normalization of SQL/TP Queries. Another challenge lies in the definition of relational operators that preserve semantics over the interval-based encoding. For this purpose we introduce a nouveau *normalization* technique. The idea behind the technique is quite simple:

Definition 4.3 Let $\{Q_1, \ldots, Q_k\}$ be a set of SQL/92 queries with compatible signatures such that X a subset of their data attributes and t a temporal attribute. We say that $Q_1, \ldots, Q_k$ are *t-compatible on X* if for all concrete temporal databases D and all $0 < i \leq j \leq k$ whenever two concrete tuples $\mathbf{a} \in Q_i(D)$ and $\mathbf{b} \in Q_j(D)$ such that $\pi_X(\mathbf{a}) = \pi_X(\mathbf{b})$ then the sets $\pi_{\{t\}}(\|\mathbf{a}\|)$ and $\pi_{\{t\}}(\|\mathbf{b}\|)$ are identical or disjoint.
We say that $Q_1, \ldots, Q_k$ are *time-compatible* on X if $Q_1, \ldots, Q_k$ are t-compatible on X for all temporal attributes t in the common signature.

The definition of a time-compatible set of queries essentially says that if the data portion of a tuple is related to an interval in $Q_i(D)$ and to another interval in Q_j(D), then it is always the case that these two intervals coincide or are disjoint. This way we can guarantee the intervals behave like points with respect to set/bag operations (cf. Figures 4 and 5). Note that the definition is non-trivial even for singleton sets of queries as the answers to queries are multisets of tuples.

It is also easy to see that we can define a *normalization operation* that transforms a set arbitrary queries to a t-compatible set of ($\|.\|$-)equivalent queries. Moreover, this operation can be defined using a first-order query[12]:

Lemma 4.4 Let $\{Q_1, \ldots, Q_k\}$ be a set of SQL/92 queries with compatible signatures such that X a subset of their data attributes and t a temporal attribute. Then there are first-order queries $\mathsf{N}_X^t[Q_i; Q_1, \ldots, Q_k]$ such that

1. $\|Q_i(D)\| = \|\, \mathsf{N}_X^t[Q_i; Q_1, \ldots, Q_k](D)\|$ for all concrete databases D and $0 < i \leq k$ and
2. $\{\mathsf{N}_X^t[Q_i; Q_1, \ldots, Q_k] : 0 < i \leq k\}$ are t-compatible on X.

To define a time-compatible set of queries we use this lemma for all temporal attributes in the common signature. It is also easy to see that the normalization operation can be performed in $O(n \log n)$ where n is the combined size of the results of $Q_i(D)$.

Aggregation. The last obstacle is the translation of aggregate operations. To translate the aggregation operators correctly we need to know how many tuples are encoded by every concrete tuple in the relation we aggregate over. We define a function CNT_G^{φ} for exactly this purpose: it tells us how many duplicates would be in the $\|.\|$-image of the result of projecting a given concrete tuple on a set of attributes G after applying the selection condition σ_φ. More formally:

Definition 4.5 Let E be an abstract signature, $G \subset E$, φ a quantifier free formula in the language of linear order over temporal variables in $E - G$, and $\mathbf{x}$ a concrete tuple in the signature $\overline{E}$. Then $\text{CNT}_G^{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}) = \text{card}(\sigma_\varphi \| \pi_{E-G}(\mathbf{x})\|)$.

[12] Similarly to coalescing; a native implementation of the normalization can often be made more efficient.

Note that $\textsc{cnt}_G^\varphi$ maps *concrete tuples* to natural numbers (counts). However, if we used a dense model of time, CNT would be a *measure* on sets and could return non-integral counts, e.g., 1.5 years. For details on aggregation and measures see [10].

Lemma 4.6 Given fixed E, $G \subset E$, and φ, the function $\textsc{cnt}_G^\varphi$ can be defined using an integer expression over the value of $\mathbf{x}$.

The CNT function operates on a single tuples and thus contributes only a constant to the overall data complexity of queries.

Now we are ready to proceed with the translation itself: every SQL/TP expression Q is translated to a set of conditional queries $Q_1\{\varphi_1\}, \ldots, Q_n\{\varphi_n\}$ while maintaining the following invariant:

$$Q(\|D\|) = \sigma_{\varphi_1}\|Q_1(D)\| \cup \ldots \cup \sigma_{\varphi_n}\|Q_n(D)\|.$$

The translation is defined inductively on the structure of the SQL/TP query.

4.2.1 Translation of the Select Block

Consider the SQL/TP statement:

$$\texttt{select [all}\ X\ \texttt{from}\ E_1, \ldots, E_n\ \texttt{where}\ \varphi\ \texttt{group by}\ G$$

where X is the set of attributes in the answer, E_i subqueries or base table references, φ the selection condition, and G the set of grouping attributes. In addition, let A be the set of all aggregate expressions in X and E be the set of all attributes in $E_1, \ldots, E_n$.

The translation works recursively on the structure of SQL/TP queries. We assume that we have already translated the subqueries[13] to $Q_1\{\varphi_1\} \in \text{compile}(E_1), \ldots, Q_n\{\varphi_n\} \in \text{compile}(E_n)$. We compose these partial results to get a set of conditional queries equivalent to the original select block as follows (we proceed by translating every clause of the original select block):

`from` $E_1, \ldots, E_n$: For every $Q_1\{\varphi_1\}, \ldots, Q_n\{\varphi_n\}$ the `from` clause gives us a SQL/92 query

$$\texttt{select}\ \overline{E}\ \texttt{from}\ Q_1, \ldots, Q_n\{\psi\}$$

where $\psi = \varphi_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge \varphi_n$.

`where` φ: To apply the selection condition φ we need to determine the relationships between the endpoints of intervals, the corresponding point-valued attributes, and the selection formulas. We use the quantifier elimination procedure for linear order to achieve this goal. Let $Q(E)\{\psi\}$ be the result of the previous step. We define

$$\psi_1 := \text{QE}(\exists T(\psi \wedge \varphi \wedge \bigwedge_{t \in T}(t\texttt{min} \leq t \leq t\texttt{max})))$$
$$\psi_2 := \text{QE}(\exists \overline{T}(\psi \wedge \varphi \wedge \bigwedge_{t \in T}(t\texttt{min} \leq t \leq t\texttt{max})))$$

where T is the set of all temporal attributes in E (encoded by intervals), $\overline{T}$ is the set of all attributes except those in T and constants, and QE is the quantifier elimination procedure. Now we define

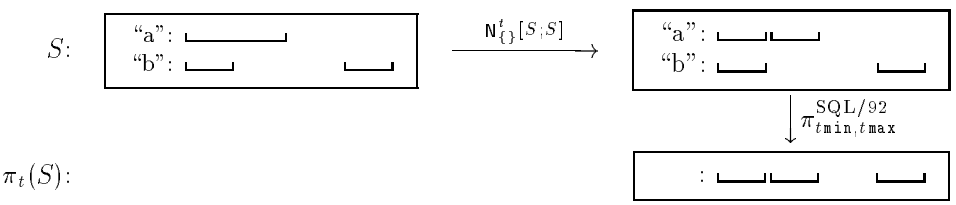
$$\texttt{select}\ \overline{E}\ \texttt{from}\ Q\ \texttt{where}\ \psi_1\{\psi_2\}$$

to be the result of applying the original `where` clause on $Q\{\psi\}$.

`group by` G: To apply grouping we first normalize the result of the previous step with respect to the attributes in G. Then we use the standard SQL/92 grouping construction (cf. Figure 4). Let $Q(E)\{\psi\}$ be the result from the previous step. As the attributes in G and $E - G$ are independent we can split ψ to ψ_1 involving only attributes in G and ψ_2 involving only attributes in $E - G$. We generate

$$\texttt{select}\ \overline{G}, \overline{A}\ \texttt{from}\ \mathsf{N}_G[Q; Q]\ \texttt{group by}\ \overline{G}\{\psi_1\}$$

[13] for the base tables we merely add a trivial condition *true*.



S has data attribute x and a temporal attribute t. The boxes in the figure represent the t-x graphs of the involved tables. Similar technique is used for aggregation: it is easy to see, that we could easily count duplicates on the normalized relation (cf. Section 3.3, query 6).

Figure 4: Projection with Duplicate Elimination

Note that the aggregates in A have to be transformed according to the rules in Figure 2 and Lemma 4.6 applied on E, G, and ψ_2.

`select` X**:** The translation of the final projection depends on the use of duplicate preserving vs. duplicate-eliminating projection. Let $Q(E)\{\psi\}$ be the result from the previous step.

- for `select` queries we get `select distinct` $\overline{X}$ `from` $\mathtt{N}_X[Q;Q]\{\psi\}$ and
- for `select all` queries we get `select` $\overline{X}$ `from` $Q\{\psi\}$

Note that only queries that use aggregation or duplicate elimination use the $\mathtt{N}$ operation.

For each of these steps we can easily verify that the transformation invariant is preserved. Moreover, in the actual implementation the subqueries generated by the above four steps are merged into as few nested blocks as possible, e.g., the first two steps can be always merged into a single select block, etc.

4.2.2 Translation of the Set Operations

The translation of the set operations follows similar pattern to the translation of the duplicate elimination: we need to find conditions under which the set operations on the encoding are equivalent to set operations on the abstract relations. Clearly a direct use of SQL/92 set operations does not preserve the semantics of SQL/TP queries.

Lemma 4.7 Let Q_1, Q_2 be two SQL/92 queries with common signature and time-compatible on the set of all their data attributes. Then $\|Q_1\| \mathit{op} \|Q_2\| = \|Q_1 \mathit{op} Q_2\|$ where *op* is a operation `union` [`all`], `except` [`all`], or `intersect` [`all`].

The lemma is extended to the conditional queries as follows: Let $Q_i\{\varphi_i\} \in \mathrm{compile}(Q)$ for $i \in I$, $R_j\{\psi_j\} \in \mathrm{compile}(R)$ for $j \in J$, and X the set of data attributes in the common signature. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q\ \mathtt{union}\ R &\mapsto \{Q_i\{\varphi_i \wedge \neg \textstyle\bigvee_{j\in J} \psi_j\}, R_j\{\psi_j \wedge \neg \bigvee_{i\in I} \varphi_i\}, Q'_i\ \mathtt{union}\ R'_j\{\varphi_i \wedge \psi_j\}\}_{i\in I, J\in J}\\
Q\ \mathtt{except}\ R &\mapsto \{Q_i\{\varphi_i \wedge \neg \textstyle\bigvee_{j\in J} \psi_j\}, Q'_i\ \mathtt{except}\ R'_j\{\varphi_i \wedge \psi_j\}\}_{i\in I, J\in J}\\
Q\ \mathtt{intersect}\ R &\mapsto \{Q'_i\ \mathtt{intersect}\ R'_j\{\varphi_i \wedge \psi_j\}\}_{i\in I, J\in J}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $Q'_i = \mathtt{N}_X[Q_i; Q_i, R_j]$ and $R'_i = \mathtt{N}_X[R_j; Q_i, R_j]$. We can often omit the normalization for the `union` operation. The duplicate-preserving operations are transformed analogously.

The result of the translation can unfortunately be exponential in the depth of nesting of the original query. Note, that this does *not* affect the data complexity of the query evaluation as the translation is performed at compile time. Moreover, for large class of queries we can show:

Theorem 4.8 *Let Q be a query composed of attribute independent subqueries with size at most k for a fixed constant $k \in N$. Then* $|\mathrm{compile}(Q)| \in O(|Q|)$.

Thus allowing *small* subqueries to violate the attribute independence requirement does not matter. Using this result we can shoe that, e.g., the first-order temporal logic queries can be efficiently translated to SQL/TP: all the temporal operators can be translated into small fixed-size subqueries and views with exactly one temporal attribute [3]. Similar conclusion can be made about all TRA [7] based languages.

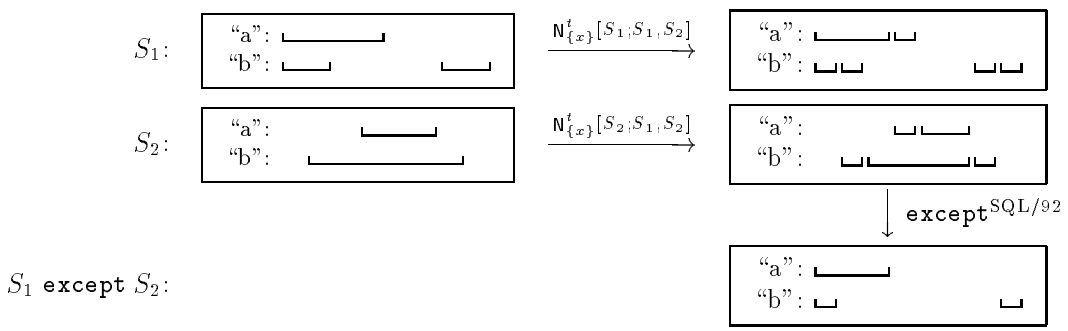


Figure 5: Set Difference using Normalization.

View Definitions in SQL/TP. A side effect this observation is a natural definition of *views* in the SQL/TP. Again, we use the familiar SQL/92 syntax:

```
create view <rid> ( <query> )
```

where `<rid>` is a view name and `<query>` an SQL/TP query. According to Theorem 4.8 queries that can be expressed using views can be translated with only linear increase in size.

4.3 Optimization of the Translation

It is easy to see that the normalization operation N is idempotent in a similar way as projection:

$$Q_i(D) = \mathtt{N}^t_X[Q_i; Q_1, \ldots, Q_k](D)$$

for any queries $Q_1, \ldots, Q_k$ that are t-compatible on X. Note that in this case we are comparing the concrete representations rather than the images under $\|.\|$. The optimization are based on the following two lemmas:

Lemma 4.9 Let S be a set of SQL/92 queries t-compatible on X. Then all queries in the closure of S under π_V, σ_φ, and op are also t-compatible on X where $X \cup \{t\} \subset V$, op is a set operation, and φ is a selection condition.

Lemma 4.10 If $Q_1, \ldots, Q_k$ are t-compatible on X then they are t-compatible on Y for all $Y \supseteq X$.

Thus these rules can be used to push and eliminate superfluous normalization steps. In addition, during the optimization phase we flatten nested simple select blocks created during the translation (using trivial attribute renaming), merge their `where` conditions (and check for satisfiability), and perform a "general" clean-up of the resulting query.

4.4 Updates

A naive implementation of the update operations is straightforward. However, an efficient execution model of database updates over the concrete databases is a topic for further research (cf. Section 6). A major step towards efficient updates *in place* would be development of an in place normalization technique for temporal relations. This way we could solve the update problem by normalizing (cf. Section 4) the updated relation with respect to the update query and then process the actual update the same way SQL does. However, the normalization operation is costly; the hope is that the cost would amortize over time as the normalization is idempotent; cf. Section 4.3.

5 Comparison with SQL/Temporal

Now we are ready to compare SQL/TP with the most current proposal of temporal extensions to the SQL-3 ISO/ANSI committees—SQL/Temporal [18]. The comparison is slightly complicated as SQL/Temporal comes with three separate semantics. These three variants—the temporal upward compatibility, the sequenced semantics, and the nonsequenced semantics—originate from the

migration requirements stated informally in Section 3.5 (for full definition of SQL/Temporal and examples of queries see [18]).

Informally, the sequenced semantics is defined with respect to the individual time instants (similarly to SQL/TP) and the manipulation of the temporal part of the relations is managed by the system, while the nonsequenced semantics is defined with respect to the encoding of sets of time instants—intervals—and the user is asked to manipulate the the representation of timestamps on her own: this can be clearly seen by formulating queries 2 and 3 from Section 3.3 in SQL/Temporal.

From our point of view the *sequenced* semantics is the most promising part of SQL/Temporal: the temporal information is handled correctly with respect to the underlying *point-based* semantics. This is also the *only* part of SQL/Temporal, where the temporal dimension in queries is truly managed by the database system. Unfortunately, the class of queries to which this semantics applies is very restricted: only plain SQL queries applied point-wise to the whole database are allowed.

In order to formulate *general temporal queries*, SQL/Temporal has chosen a language with *explicit* interval-valued temporal attributes as the basis for the *nonsequenced semantics*. This semantics is indeed first-order complete. However, the completeness comes with a high price tag: the semantics is essentially based on a first-order logic over the *interval-based temporal domain* [19], rather than over the domain of the individual time instants, and thus is plagued by all the problems discussed in the Introduction. Moreover, the separate semantic layers in SQL/Temporal may cause quite a bit of confusion to the users: many operations on temporal relations, e.g., the set difference or aggregation, behave completely differently in the sequenced semantics than in the nonsequenced semantics.

As the encoding-dependent part of SQL/Temporal is solely connected with the nonsequenced semantics, we propose to replace this part of the language with SQL/TP: this change would lead to a natural extension of the sequenced semantics to all temporal queries: we consider SQL/TP a fully expressive temporal extension of the sequenced semantics. Section 3.5 supports this claim by showing how the *sequenced semantics* can be naturally embedded into SQL/TP.

6 Conclusion

We have shown that a high-level point-based approach to temporal extensions of SQL has many advantages over the common models with interval-based attributes: simple syntax and semantics, meaningful aggregation, and possibilities of advanced query optimization. All this is achieved while maintaining efficient query evaluation over temporal databases based on interval encoding of timestamps. In addition, all representation independent SQL/Temporal queries are expressible in SQL/TP (follows from [19]).

Future Work. Our proposal is only a first step towards an implementations of SQL/TP on top of an ordinary RDBMS systems. However, there are still many open questions:

- Can we use more complex temporal domains? In our proposal we used a discrete linear order with a limited way of counting. Is it possible to use richer temporal domains while maintaining the properties of the proposed language? What are the tradeoffs?
- We have chosen an interval-based encoding of sets of time instants in the concrete data model. While this encoding can compactly describe periods of time, it fails, e.g., for periodic events. Is it possible to extend the encoding scheme and this way to enlarge the class of finitary temporal databases? Note that we have to be careful here: we still need to perform complementation and projection in a data-independent way during the translation of queries. Choosing too rich encoding can prevent us from achieving this goal.
- What other optimizations can be used in conjunction with our query translation procedure? We have provided only a high-level description of the compilation technique that allows SQL/TP queries to be evaluated over an interval-based temporal database. We also sketched several optimization techniques specific to this translation. However, we need to analyze

how the resulting queries interact with the existing database optimizer and the underlying representation. This leads to questions of proper index selection, the use of spatial operations (spatial joins), etc.

- How do we perform updates efficiently? The area of updates presents a completely new set of problems, the main problem being the in-place updates of the encoded temporal relations. This problem goes hand in hand with defining various normal forms [6, 19] of temporal relations and enforcing them over updates[14].
- Can the standard indices built-in relational systems aid the query evaluation based on the proposed compilation technique? What are the tradeoffs comparing to specialized indices?

Note that there are few answers to these questions even for the established temporal query languages like TSQL2 or SQL/Temporal. Note also that our technique allows us to reuse most of the efforts aimed towards boosting performance of temporal DBMS, e.g., the development of efficient temporal and spatial joins, and sophisticated access methods.

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A Syntax of SQL/TP

We summarize the syntax of SQL/TP by the following BNF grammar:

```
<exp>     ::= <ddl_exp> | <dql_exp> | <dml_exp>

<ddl_exp> ::= create table <rid> ( <signat> ) |
              create view  <rid> ( <dql_exp> )

<dql_exp> ::= select [all] <s_list> [from <f_list>]
                                    [where <cond>] [group by <g_list>] |
              ( <dql_exp> ) union [all] ( <dql exp> ) |
              ( <dql_exp> ) except [all] ( <dql exp> ) |
              ( <dql_exp> ) intersect [all] ( <dql exp> )

<dml_exp> ::= insert [all] into <rid> ( <dql_exp> ) |
              delete [all] from <rid> ( <dql_exp> )

<signat>  ::= <id> <type> [, <signat>]

<s_list>  ::= <expr> [as <id>] [,<s_list>]

<f_list>  ::= { <rid> [<rid>] | ( <dql_exp> ) [<rid>] } [,<f_list>]

<cond>    ::= [<rid>.]<id> <rel> [<rid>.]<id> [+ <const>] |
              [<rid>.]<id> <rel> <const> |
              <cond> and <cond> | ...

<g_list>  ::= [<rid>.]<id> [, <g_list>]

<type>    ::= time [using <enc>] | integer | real | char(N) | ...

<expr>    ::= [<rid>.]<id> | <aggr> ( [<rid>.]<id> ) | ...

<enc>     ::= points | bounded intervals | unbounded intervals

<aggr>    ::= min | max | count | sum
```

where `<rid>` is a valid relation identifier, `<id>` a valid attribute identifier, and `<rel>` a valid relational symbol (type-compatible with the involved attributes).