Polymorphic Type Inference for the Named Nested Relational Calculus

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The named nested relational calculus is the canonical query language for the complex object database model and is equipped with a natural static type system. Given an expression in the language, without type declarations for the input variables, there is the problem of whether there are any input type declarations under which the expression is well-typed. Moreover, if there are, then which are they, and what is the corresponding output type for each of these? This problem is solved by a logic-based approach, and the decision problem is shown to be NP-complete.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The named nested relational calculus (NNRC for short) is the canonical query language for the nested relational or complex object data model [Abiteboul et al. 1995; Buneman et al. 1995; Wong 1994]. It is the natural extension to nested relations of the relational algebra and calculus, which form the basis of all contemporary database query languages [Abiteboul et al. 1995].

Expressions in the NNRC are not always defined on every input. For example, the semantics of the expression \( x . A \), which inspects the \( A \) attribute of variable \( x \), is only well-defined if \( x \) holds a record with an attribute \( A \). For this reason, the NNRC comes equipped with a static type system, which ensures type safety in the sense that every expression which passes the type system’s tests is guaranteed to be well-defined.

The basic operators of the NNRC are polymorphic. We can inspect the \( A \) attribute of any record, as long as it has an attribute \( A \). We can take the cartesian product of any two records whose attribute sets are disjoint. We can take the union
of any two sets of the same type. Similar typing conditions can be formulated
for the other operators of the NNRC. When combining operators into expres-
sions, these typing conditions become more evolved. For example, for the expression

\{ (x \times y).A \mid x \in R \}

to be well-typed, R must have a set type containing the type of x; x and y must
have record types whose attribute sets are disjoint; and one of these attribute sets
must contain A.

A natural question thus arises: given an NNRC expression e, under which as-
signments of free variables in e to types is e well-typed? And what is the resulting
output type of e under these assignments? In particular, can we give an explicit
description of the typically infinite collection of these typings? This is nothing but
the NNRC version of the classical type inference problem. Type inference is an
extensively studied topic in the theory of programming languages [Mitchell 1996;
Pierce 2002], and is used in industrial-strength functional programming languages
such as Standard ML [Ullman 1998] and Haskell [Jones 2003].

Some expressions, for example ∅.A, are inherently untypable (i.e., these expres-
sions do not admit any typing). Checking typability of an NNRC expression is
the analog in NNRC of type-checking in implicitly typed programming languages
with polymorphic type systems, such as ML. It is therefore interesting to see if
typability is a decidable problem for the NNRC. If so, what is its complexity? It is
already known for instance that typability for the particular case of the relational
algebra is NP-complete [Van den Bussche and Waller 2002; Vansummeren 2005].
Also, it is P-complete for the simply typed lambda calculus [Dwork et al. 1984] and
EXPTIME-complete for ML [Kanellakis et al. 1991; Mairson 1990].

In this paper, we propose an explicit description of the set of all possible typings
of an NNRC expression e by means of a conjunctive logical formula \( \varphi_e \), which
is interpreted in the universe of all possible types. The formula \( \varphi_e \) is efficiently
computable from e. We proceed to show that the satisfiability problem of such
conjunctive formulas belongs to NP. Consequently, typability for the NNRC is
also in NP. Since the NNRC is an extension of the relational algebra, for which
typability is already NP-complete, this thus shows that typability for the NNRC is
not more difficult than for the special case of the relational algebra.

In the theory of programming languages one also finds type inference and type-
checking algorithms for languages with sets and records, often in the presence of
even more powerful features such as higher order functions [Buneman and Ohori
1996; Ohori 1995; Rémy 1993; Sulzmann 2000; 2001; Wand 1991]. Indeed, the
polymorphic type system of the NNRC can be encoded in the very general type
inference framework of HM(\( X \)) [Sulzmann 2000; 2001]. To our knowledge, however,
we are the first to study the complexity of the typability problem for the specific
type system of the NNRC.

Our motivations for this work are largely the same as for the previous work by one
of us and Waller on the relational algebra [Van den Bussche and Waller 2002]. We
repeat some of these here. The main motivation is foundational and theoretical;
after all, query languages are specialized programming languages, so important
ideas from programming languages should be applied and adapted to the query
language context as much as possible. However, we also believe that type inference

for database query languages is tied to the familiar database principle of “logical data independence”. By this principle, a query formulated on the logical level must not only be insensitive to changes on the physical level, but also to changes to the database schema, as long as these changes are to parts of the schema on which the query does not depend. To give a trivial example, the SQL query \texttt{select * from R where A < 5} still works if we drop from \texttt{R} some column \texttt{B} different from \texttt{A}, but not if we drop column \texttt{A} itself. Turning this around, it is thus useful to infer, given a query, under exactly which schemas (i.e., which types) it works, so that the programmer sees to which schema changes the query is sensitive.

Some features of modern database systems seem to add weight to the above motivation. \textsl{Stored procedures} [Melton 1998] are 4GL and SQL code fragments stored in database dictionary tables. Whenever the schema changes, some of the stored procedures may become ill-typed, while others that were ill-typed may become well-typed. Having an explicit logical description of all typings of each stored procedure may be helpful in this regard. Models of \textsl{semi-structured data} [Buneman et al. 1996; García-Molina et al. 1997] loosen (or completely abandon) the assumption of a given fixed schema. Query languages for these models are essentially schema-independent. Nevertheless, as argued by Buneman et al. [Buneman et al. 1997], querying is more effective if at least some form of schema is available, computed from the particular instance. Type inference can be helpful in telling for which schema a given query is suitable.

A second motivation for this work stems from the area of database programming languages. A database programming language is a general-purpose programming language featuring an integrated database query language. The NNRC is, by design [Breazu-Tannen et al. 1992], a natural candidate for integration in a functional programming language such as the simply typed lambda calculus or ML. It is then an interesting question how this integration would affect the complexity of type-checking. Our results imply for example that adding the NNRC to the simply typed lambda calculus changes the complexity from \textsc{P}-complete to at least \textsc{NP}-hard. We further discuss this issue in Section 5.

A final goal of our paper is to provide an elementary, self-contained presentation of polymorphic type inference for the NNRC, accessible for researchers in database query languages who may not be familiar with type theory. For other work on database query languages related to typing issues, see the references [Alagic 1999; Balsters et al. 1993; Beeri and Milo 1995; Fernández et al. 2001].

\textbf{Organization.} We introduce the named nested relational calculus and its static type system in Section 2. In Section 3 we show that the set of all typings of an expression can be described by a logical formula. We show in Section 4 that satisfiability of such formulas is in \textsc{NP}, and provide concluding discussions in Section 5.

2. NAMED NESTED RELATIONAL CALCULUS

In this section we introduce the named nested relational calculus: its data model, its syntax, its semantics, and its type system. We start with the set-theoretic background used throughout this paper.
2.1 Set-theoretic background

We assume the reader to be familiar with the notions of union, intersection, difference, and cartesian product of sets (denoted by $X \cup Y$, $X \cap Y$, $X \setminus Y$, and $X \times Y$ respectively). We recall that two sets are considered to be equal if they contain precisely the same elements, and that a set $X$ is a subset of a set $Y$ ($X \subseteq Y$) if every element of $X$ is also in $Y$.

We also recall that a mapping $f$ from a set $X$ to a set $Y$ is a subset of $X \times Y$ such that for every $x \in X$ there exists exactly one $y \in Y$ for which $(x, y) \in f$. When there is no pair $(x, y) \in f$ for some $x \in X$, then $f$ is said to be a partial mapping on $X$. Finally, recall that the restriction of $f$ to a set $X' \subseteq X$ is the mapping from $X'$ to $Y$ that equals $f$ on all $x \in X'$ (i.e., it is the mapping $f \cap X' \times Y$). In the following, we write $f : X \to Y$ to denote that $f$ is a mapping from $X$ to $Y$ and we write $f(x)$ for the unique $y$ assigned to $x$ by $f$. The set $X$ is called the domain of $f$, which we will also denote by $\text{dom}(f)$.

Note that, since mappings are sets, all notions about sets (such as union, intersection, and set equality) apply to mappings as well.

2.2 Data Model

We assume given a sufficiently large set $\{A, B, \ldots\}$ of attribute names. A row over a set $S$ is a mapping $r$ from a finite set of attribute names to $S$. So, a row is a finite set of pairs. We write $\tilde{r}_A(r)$ for the restriction of $r$ to $\text{dom}(r) \setminus \{A\}$. We use an intuitive notation for rows, which we illustrate with an example. If $r$ is the row with domain $\{A, B, C\}$ and $r(A) = a$, $r(B) = b$, and $r(C) = c$, then we write $r$ as $\{A : a, B : b, C : c\}$.

We also assume given a recursively enumerable set $A = \{a, b, \ldots\}$ of atoms, which in practice will contain the usual data values such as integers, strings, and so on. A value $v$ is either an atom, a record $[r]$ with $r$ a row over values, or a finite set of values. We will denote values by $v$ and $w$, rows over values by $r$ and $s$, and finite sets of values by $V$ and $W$. The natural join $[r] \bowtie [s]$ of two records is defined as follows:

$$[r] \bowtie [s] := \begin{cases} \{[r \cup s] \} & \text{if } r(A) = s(A) \text{ for all } A \in \text{dom}(r) \cap \text{dom}(s) \\ \emptyset & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Note that, since $r$ and $s$ agree on their common attributes, $r \cup s$ is again a mapping; hence $r \cup s$ is again a row and $[r \cup s]$ is indeed a record.

2.3 Syntax

We assume given a sufficiently large set $X = \{x, y, \ldots\}$ of variables. The named nested relational calculus (NNRC for short) is the set of all expressions generated by the following grammar:

$$e ::= x \\
\quad | \emptyset | [e] | [A : e] | e.A | e \times e | e \bowtie e | \tilde{r}_A(e) \\
\quad | \emptyset | \{e\} | e \cup e | \bigcup e \mid \{e \mid x \in e\} \\
\quad | e = e \mid e : e$$
Here, \( e \) ranges over expressions, \( x \) ranges over variables, and \( A \) ranges over attribute names. We view expressions as abstract syntax trees and omit parentheses. The set \( FV(e) \) of free variables of an expression \( e \) is defined as usual. That is, \( FV(\emptyset) := \emptyset \), \( FV(\{v_2 \mid x \in e_1\}) := FV(e_1) \cup (FV(e_2) \setminus \{x\}) \), and \( FV(e) \) is the union of the free variables of \( e \)’s immediate subexpressions otherwise.

### 2.4 Semantics

Given values for its free variables, an expression evaluates to a new value. That is, expressions denote partial mappings from contexts to values, where a context is defined as follows.

**Definition 2.1 Contexts.** A context \( \sigma \) is a mapping from a finite set of variables to values. If \( e \) is an expression and \( \text{dom}(\sigma) \) is a superset of \( FV(e) \), then we say that \( \sigma \) is a context on \( e \). We will denote by \( x : v, \sigma \) the context \( \sigma' \) with domain \( \text{dom}(\sigma) \cup \{x\} \) such that \( \sigma'(x) = v \) and \( \sigma'(y) = \sigma(y) \) for \( y \neq x \).

The formal semantics of NNRC expressions is described by means of the evaluation relation, as defined in Figure 1. Here, we write \( \sigma \models e \Rightarrow v \) to denote that \( e \) evaluates to value \( v \) under context \( \sigma \) on \( e \). In the rule for \( e_1 \cup e_2 \), note that \( \text{dom}(r_1) \) and \( \text{dom}(r_2) \) are required to be disjoint. This implies that \( r_1 \cup r_2 \) is again a record and that \( [r_1 \cup r_2] \) is a record. It is easy to see that the evaluation relation is functional: an expression evaluates to at most one value under a given context. The evaluation relation is not total however. For example, if \( \sigma(e) \) is an atom, then \( x.A \) does not evaluate to any value under \( \sigma \), since we can only inspect the attributes of records. Likewise, we can only concatenate disjoint records, join records, project out attributes of records, take the union of sets, flatten a set of sets, and iterate over sets. We will write \( e(\sigma) \) for the unique value \( v \) for which \( \sigma \models e \Rightarrow v \). If no such value exists, then we say that \( e(\sigma) \) is undefined.

We note that the semantics of an expression only depends on its free variables: if two contexts \( \sigma \) and \( \sigma' \) on \( e \) are equal on \( FV(e) \), then \( \sigma \models e \Rightarrow v \) if, and only if, \( \sigma' \models e \Rightarrow v \).

**Example 2.2.** Let friends and John be two variables. Let Name and Friend be attributes. Suppose that the value of friends is a set of pairs of friends, as a set of records of the form \([[\text{Name}: a, \text{Friend}: b]]\). Suppose also that the value of John is a name (an atom). The following expression computes the set of all of John’s friends:

\[
\bigcup \{x.\text{Name} = \text{John} \mid \{x.\text{Friend} \} \setminus \emptyset \mid x \in \text{friends}\}.
\]

**Note 2.3.** Although we have not included the analog of the relational algebra renaming operation \( \rho_{A/B} \), which renames the attribute \( A \) of a record to the attribute \( B \), such an operation is expressible in the NNRC. Indeed, \( \rho_{A/B}(x) \) can be expressed as \( \pi_{\{x.A\}}(x.B) \).

### 2.5 Type System

In order to ensure that an expression evaluates to a value for every input context in a desired set of contexts, the NNRC comes equipped with a static type system, which is defined as follows.
Variables

\( \sigma \vdash x \Rightarrow \sigma(x) \)

Record operations

\[\begin{align*}
\sigma \models e \Rightarrow v & \quad r = \{A: v\} \\
\sigma \models [A: e] \Rightarrow [r] & \quad \sigma \models e \Rightarrow [r] \quad A \in \text{dom}(r) \\
\sigma \models e.A \Rightarrow r(A) & \\
\sigma \models [\ ] \Rightarrow [\emptyset] & \\
\sigma \models [A: e] \Rightarrow [r] & \quad \text{if } \tau \text{ object, i.e., } \tau \text{ is a type, then } \text{is a row over types, then } \sigma \models e \Rightarrow [r] \\
\sigma \models e \Rightarrow [r_1] & \quad \sigma \models e \Rightarrow [r_2] \\
\text{dom}(r_1) \cap \text{dom}(r_2) = \emptyset & \\
\sigma \models e_1 \times e_2 \Rightarrow [r_1 \cup r_2] & \quad \sigma \models e_1 \Rightarrow [r_1] \quad \sigma \models e_2 \Rightarrow [r_2] \\
\sigma \models e_1 \sqcap e_2 \Rightarrow [r_1 \sqcap r_2] & \\
\sigma \models e \Rightarrow [r] \quad A \in \text{dom}(r) & \quad \sigma \models \prod_A(e) \Rightarrow [\prod_A(r)]
\end{align*}\]

Set operations

\[\begin{align*}
\sigma \models \emptyset \Rightarrow \emptyset & \\
\sigma \models \{e\} \Rightarrow \{v\} & \\
\sigma \models e_1 \cup e_2 \Rightarrow V_1 \cup V_2 & \\
\sigma \models e \Rightarrow \{V_1, \ldots, V_n\} & \\
\sigma \models \bigcup e \Rightarrow V_1 \cup \cdots \cup V_n & \quad \sigma \models e_1 \Rightarrow V \quad \forall v \in V : (x : v, \sigma) \models e_2 \Rightarrow w_v \\
\sigma \models e \Rightarrow \{x \in e_1\} \Rightarrow \{w_v \mid v \in V\} & \\
\end{align*}\]

Conditional test

\[\begin{align*}
\sigma \models e_1 \Rightarrow v_1 & \\
\sigma \models e_2 \Rightarrow v_2 & \\
\sigma \models e_1 \Rightarrow v & \quad v_1 = v_2 & \quad \sigma \models e_1 \Rightarrow v & \quad v_1 \neq v_2 \\
\sigma \models e_1 = e_2 \quad ? \quad e_3 : e_4 \Rightarrow v & \\
\sigma \models e_1 = e_2 \quad ? \quad e_3 : e_4 \Rightarrow v & \\
\end{align*}\]

Fig. 1. The evaluation relation for NNRC expressions.

**Definition 2.4 Types.** We assume given a finite set of base types. A type is a finite mathematical object, inductively defined as follows:

—every base type is a type;
—if \( \rho \) is a row over types, then \( \text{Record}(\rho) \) is a type; and
—if \( \tau \) is a type, then \( \text{Set}(\tau) \) is a type.

(Recall that the notion of “row”, used in the second item above, was introduced in Section 2.2). Two types \( \tau \) and \( \tau' \) are equal if they are the same mathematical object, i.e.,

—if \( \tau \) and \( \tau' \) are the same base type; or

—if \( \tau = \text{Record}(\rho) \) and \( \tau' = \text{Record}(\rho') \) with \( \text{dom}(\rho) = \text{dom}(\rho') \) and \( \rho(A) \) equal to \( \rho'(A) \) for every \( A \in \text{dom}(\rho) \); or
—if \( \tau = \text{Set}(\tau_1) \) and \( \tau' = \text{Set}(\tau'_1) \) with \( \tau_1 \) equal to \( \tau'_1 \).

**Definition 2.5** Denotation of types. Every type \( \tau \) denotes a set of values \([\tau]\), which is inductively defined as follows:

—for each base type, \([\tau]\) is a set of atoms, which we assume given;
—for types of the form \( \text{Record}(\rho) \), \([\text{Record}(\rho)]\) is the set of all records \([r]\) with \( \text{dom}(r) = \text{dom}(\rho) \) and \( r(A) \in \lfloor \rho(A) \rfloor \), for every \( A \in \text{dom}(r) \); and
—for types of the form \( \text{Set}(\tau) \), \([\text{Set}(\tau)]\) is the set of all finite sets over \([\tau]\).

**Definition 2.6** Type assignment. A type assignment \( \Gamma \) is a mapping from a finite set of variables to types. We denote by \( x: \tau, \Gamma \) the type assignment \( \Gamma' \) with domain \( \text{dom}(\Gamma) \cup \{x\} \) such that \( \Gamma'(x) = \tau \) and \( \Gamma'(y) = \Gamma(y) \) for \( y \neq x \). We extend \([\cdot]\) to type assignments in the canonical way: \([\Gamma]\) is the set of all contexts \( \sigma \) such that \( \text{dom}(\sigma) = \text{dom}(\Gamma) \) and \( \sigma(x) \in \lfloor \Gamma(x) \rfloor \), for all \( x \in \text{dom}(\Gamma) \). Finally, if \( \text{FV}(e) \subseteq \text{dom}(\Gamma) \), then we say that \( \Gamma \) is a type assignment on \( e \).

The typing relation for the NNRC is defined in Figure 2. Here we write \( \Gamma \vdash e : \tau \) to indicate that expression \( e \) has type \( \tau \) under type assignment \( \Gamma \) on \( e \). Note that \( e \) has at most one type under \( \Gamma \), which can easily be derived from \( \Gamma \) by applying the rules in an order determined by the syntax of expression \( e \). If \( \Gamma \vdash e : \tau \), then we call \( (\Gamma, \tau) \) a typing of \( e \).

We note that the type system is sound:

**Proposition 2.7** Soundness. Let \( e \) be an expression, let \( \Gamma \) be a type assignment on \( e \), and let \( \tau \) be a type. If \( \Gamma \vdash e : \tau \), then \( e(\sigma) \) is defined and \( e(\sigma) \in \lfloor \tau \rfloor \), for every \( \sigma \in \lfloor \Gamma \rfloor \).

The proof is by an easy induction on \( e \). The type system is not “complete” however: there are examples of \( e, \Gamma, \) and \( \tau \) such that \( e(\sigma) \in \lfloor \tau \rfloor \) for every \( \sigma \in \lfloor \Gamma \rfloor \), but yet \( \Gamma \not \vdash e : \tau \). A simple example is the expression \( e_0 = \emptyset \ ? [\ ] : \emptyset \) where \( e_0 \) is an expression of set type that is actually unsatisfiable (i.e., it returns the empty set on every input). Since satisfiability of NNRC expressions is well-known to be undecidable, the above example actually shows that the following problem is undecidable:

\[
\text{Input: } e, \Gamma, \tau \\
\text{Decide: } \text{Is } e(\sigma) \in \tau \text{ for every } \sigma \in \Gamma.
\]

Consequently, a sound and complete type system for the NNRC does not exist.

In another paper [Van den Bussche et al. 2005] we have studied fragments of the nested relational calculus where such type systems do exist. In the current paper, we continue with the full language and the present type system which, though necessarily incomplete, is still very natural.

## 3. TYPE INFERENCE

In this section we show that we can describe the set of all typings of an expression \( e \) by a logical formula. To this end, we first recall the definition of many-sorted first-order logic [Enderton 2001].
Variables

\[ \Gamma \vdash x : \Gamma(x) \]

Record operations

\[ \Gamma \vdash e : \tau \quad \rho = \{ A : \tau \} \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash [\_] : \text{Record}(\emptyset) \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash [A : e] : \text{Record}(\rho) \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{Record}(\rho_1) \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \text{Record}(\rho_2) \]

\[ \text{dom}(\rho_1) \cap \text{dom}(\rho_2) = \emptyset \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash e_1 \times e_2 : \text{Record}(\rho_1 \cup \rho_2) \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{Record}(\rho_1) \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \text{Record}(\rho_2) \]

\[ \rho_1(A) = \rho_2(A) \text{ for all } A \in \text{dom}(\rho_1) \cap \text{dom}(\rho_2) \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash e_1 \otimes e_2 : \text{Set}(\text{Record}(\rho_1 \cup \rho_2)) \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash e : \text{Record}(\rho) \quad A \in \text{dom}(\rho) \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash e.A : \rho(A) \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash \hat{\pi}_A(e) : \text{Record}(\hat{\pi}_A(\rho)) \]

Set operations

\[ \tau \text{ a type} \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash \emptyset : \text{Set}(\tau) \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash \{ e \} : \text{Set}(\tau) \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{Set}(\tau) \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \text{Set}(\tau) \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash e_1 \cup e_2 : \text{Set}(\tau) \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash e : \text{Set}(\text{Set}(\tau)) \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash \bigcup e : \text{Set}(\tau) \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{Set}(\tau_1) \quad x : \tau_1, \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2 \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash \{ e_2 | x \in e_1 \} : \text{Set}(\tau_2) \]

Conditional test

\[ \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash e_3 : \tau' \quad \Gamma \vdash e_4 : \tau' \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash e_1 = e_2 \ ? \ e_3 : e_4 : \tau' \]

Fig. 2. The typing relation for NNRC expressions.

3.1 Many-Sorted First-Order Logic

Signatures, terms, and formulas. A signature \( \Sigma \) over a set of sorts \( S \) is a set consisting of (a possibly infinite number of) constant symbols, relation symbols, and function symbols. Every constant symbol \( c \) has an associated sort in \( S \). Every relation symbol has an associated arity \( \varsigma_1 \times \cdots \times \varsigma_n \), where every \( \varsigma_i \) is a sort in \( S \) and \( n > 0 \). Likewise, every function symbol has an associated arity \( \varsigma_1 \times \cdots \times \varsigma_n \to \varsigma_0 \).
where every $\varsigma_i$ is a sort in $S$ and $n > 0$. We write $c : \varsigma$ to denote that $c$ is a constant symbol of sort $\varsigma$. We write $R : \varsigma_1 \times \cdots \times \varsigma_n \in \Sigma$ to denote that $R$ has arity $\varsigma_1 \times \cdots \times \varsigma_n$. We use a similar notation for function symbols.

For every sort $\varsigma \in S$ we assume given an infinite collection of variable symbols of sort $\varsigma$. $\Sigma$-terms are built from variable symbols, the constant symbols in $\Sigma$, and the function symbols in $\Sigma$ as follows: every variable symbol $x$ of sort $\varsigma$ is a $\Sigma$-term of sort $\varsigma$, every constant symbol $c : \varsigma$ in $\Sigma$ is a $\Sigma$-term of sort $\varsigma$, and if $f : \varsigma_1 \times \cdots \times \varsigma_n \rightarrow \varsigma_0$ is a function symbol in $\Sigma$ and $t_1, \ldots, t_n$ are $\Sigma$-terms of sort $\varsigma_1, \ldots, \varsigma_n$ respectively, then $f(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ is a $\Sigma$-term of sort $\varsigma_0$. Atomic $\Sigma$-formulas are formulas of the form $R(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ where $R : \varsigma_1 \times \cdots \times \varsigma_n$ is a relation symbol in $\Sigma$ and $t_1, \ldots, t_n$ are $\Sigma$-terms of sorts $\varsigma_1, \ldots, \varsigma_n$ respectively. First-order $\Sigma$-formulas are built up as usual from the atomic $\Sigma$-formulas and the logical connectives $\land$, $\neg$, and the existential quantifier $\exists$. We write $FO(\Sigma)$ for the set of all first-order $\Sigma$-formulas. With $FV(\varphi)$ we denote the set of all variables that occur free (i.e., not in the scope of some quantifier) in $\varphi$. Sometimes we write $\varphi(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ to indicate that $FV(\varphi) \subseteq \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$. We say that $\varphi$ is quantifier free if there is no quantifier in $\varphi$ (i.e., if $\varphi$ is a Boolean combination of atomic $\Sigma$-formulas).

Structures, valuations, and satisfaction. A $\Sigma$-structure $A$ is a mapping assigning to every sort $\varsigma \in S$ a set $A(\varsigma)$; to every constant symbol $c : \varsigma \in S$ an element $A(c) \in A(\varsigma)$; to every relation symbol $R : \varsigma_1 \times \cdots \times \varsigma_n \in \Sigma$ a set $A(R) \subseteq A(\varsigma_1) \times \cdots \times A(\varsigma_n)$; and to every function symbol $f : \varsigma_1 \times \cdots \times \varsigma_n \rightarrow \varsigma_0 \in \Sigma$ a mapping $A(f) : A(\varsigma_1) \times \cdots \times A(\varsigma_n) \rightarrow A(\varsigma_0)$.

An $A$-valuation is a mapping $h$ from a finite set of variable symbols to $\bigcup_{\varsigma \in S} A(\varsigma)$. $A$-Valuations are extended to $\Sigma$-terms in the canonical way: $h(c) = A(c)$ and $h(f(t_1, \ldots, t_n)) = A(f)(h(t_1), \ldots, h(t_n))$. We write $x : a, h$ for the $A$-valuation $h'$ with domain $\text{dom}(h) \cup \{x\}$ such that $h'(x) = a$ and $h'(y) = h(y)$ for $y \neq x$.

Let $\varphi$ be a first-order $\Sigma$-formula and suppose that $FV(\varphi) \subseteq \text{dom}(h)$. We say that $h$ satisfies $\varphi$ in $A$, denoted by $A \models \varphi(h)$, when:

- if $\varphi$ is an atomic $\Sigma$-formula $R(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$, then $(h(t_1), \ldots, h(t_n)) \in A(R)$;
- if $\varphi$ is of the form $\varphi_1 \land \varphi_2$, then $A \models \varphi_1(h)$ and $A \models \varphi_2(h)$;
- if $\varphi$ is of the form $\neg \varphi_1$, then $A \models \varphi_1(h)$; and
- if $\varphi$ is of the form $(\exists x) \varphi_1$ with $x$ a variable symbol of sort $\varsigma$, then there exists some $a \in A(\varsigma)$ such that $A \models \varphi_1(x : a, h)$.

3.2 Type Formulas

We will describe the set of all typings of an expression $e$ by means of formulas in $FO(\Sigma_r)$. Here, $\Sigma_r$ is defined as the signature over the sorts $\{\text{type}, \text{row}\}$ consisting of

- a constant symbol $e$ of sort row;
- a binary relation symbol $\mathrel{=}$ of arity $\text{type} \times \text{type}$;
- a binary relation symbol $\subseteq$ of arity $\text{row} \times \text{row}$;
- a binary relation symbol $\#$ of arity $\text{row} \times \text{row}$;
- a unary function symbol Set of arity $\text{type} \rightarrow \text{type}$;
- a unary function symbol Record of arity $\text{row} \rightarrow \text{type}$.
Jan Van den Bussche and Stijn Vansummeren

— for every attribute \( A \), a unary function symbol \( A \) of arity \( \text{type} \rightarrow \text{row} \); and
— a binary function symbol , of arity \( \text{row} \times \text{row} \rightarrow \text{row} \).

We will interpret formulas in \( \text{FO}(\Sigma_\tau) \) in the many-sorted structure \( T \) where

— \( T(\text{type}) \) is the set of all types;
— \( T(\text{row}) \) is the set of all rows over types;
— \( T(\varepsilon) \) is the empty row;
— \( T(\subseteq) \) relates \( \rho \) to \( \rho' \) if \( \rho \) (as a finite mapping, i.e., a finite set of pairs) is a subset of \( \rho' \);
— \( T(\#) \) relates \( \rho \) to \( \rho' \) if \( \text{dom}(\rho) \) is disjoint with \( \text{dom}(\rho') \);
— \( T(\text{Set}) \) maps \( \tau \) to \( \text{Set}(\tau) \);
— \( T(\text{Record}) \) maps \( \rho \) to \( \text{Record}(\rho) \);
— \( T(\text{A}) \) maps \( \tau \) to the singleton row \( \{ A: \tau \} \); and
— \( T(,\,) \) is the “asymmetric” concatenation operation: it maps \( \rho \) and \( \rho' \) to the row with domain \( \text{dom}(\rho) \cup \text{dom}(\rho') \) that equals \( \rho \) on \( \text{dom}(\rho) \) and \( \rho' \) on \( \text{dom}(\rho') \setminus \text{dom}(\rho) \).

**Definition 3.1** Type formula. A type formula is a formula in \( \text{FO}(\Sigma_\tau) \) built up from atomic formulas using only existential quantifiers and conjunction.

**Convention 3.2.** It will be convenient to use the same set \( X \) from the syntax of the NNRC as the set of variable symbols of sort \( \text{type} \) in \( \text{FO}(\Sigma_\tau) \). Variable symbols of sort \( \text{row} \) in \( \text{FO}(\Sigma_\tau) \) will be denoted using letters from the beginning of the Greek alphabet.

**Example 3.3.** The following is an example of a type formula.

\[
\varphi(x, y) \equiv (\exists \alpha)(\exists \beta) x = \text{Record}(\alpha) \land y = \text{Record}(\beta) \land \alpha \neq \beta \land (\exists z) A(z) \subseteq \alpha, \beta.
\]

Evaluated on the structure \( T \), \( \varphi \) defines the set of all pairs of record types \( (x = \text{Record}(\rho_1), y = \text{Record}(\rho_2)) \) such that \( \text{dom}(\rho_1) \cap \text{dom}(\rho_2) = \emptyset \) and \( A \in \text{dom}(\rho_1) \cup \text{dom}(\rho_2) \).

**Definition 3.4.** A type formula \( \varphi \) is principal for an expression \( e \) if \( \varphi \) defines the set of all typings of \( e \). That is:

— \( \varphi \) contains no free variable symbols of sort \( \text{row} \);
— the free variable symbols of sort \( \text{type} \) in \( \varphi \) are the free variables of \( e \), plus one additional variable symbol \( z \); and
— \( \Gamma \vdash e : \tau \) if, and only if, \( T \models \varphi(z : \tau, \Gamma) \).

**Example 3.5.** For a simple example, consider the expression \( e_1 = x \cup y \). Then the following is a principal type formula for \( e_1 \):

\[
(\exists u) x = \text{Set}(u) \land y = \text{Set}(u) \land z = \text{Set}(u).
\]

\footnote{We remind the reader of our convention that the variables from the syntax of the NNRC are used as variable symbols of sort \( \text{type} \) in \( \text{FO}(\Sigma_\tau) \). Hence, every type assignment is a \( T \)-valuation.}

For a more complicated example, consider the expression:

\[ e_2 = \{ \{B : t.A\} \cup \{r \times s\} \mid t \in x \times y \}. \]

Then the following is a principal type formula for \( e_2 \):

\[
(\exists\alpha)(\exists\beta)(\exists\nu)(\exists\rho) x = \text{Record}(\alpha) \land y = \text{Record}(\beta) \land (\exists\beta')\alpha \subseteq \beta, \beta'
\land (\exists\alpha')\beta \subseteq \alpha, \alpha' \land r = \text{Record}(\mu) \land s = \text{Record}(\nu) \land \mu \neq \nu
\land (\exists q)A(q) \subseteq \alpha, \beta \land B(q) \subseteq \mu, \nu \land \mu \subseteq B(q) \land z = \text{Set}(\text{Set}(\text{Record}(B(q)))).
\]

**Theorem 3.6.** Every expression \( e \) has a principal type formula \( \varphi_e \), of size linear in the size of \( e \), and computable from \( e \) in polynomial time.

**Proof.** Let \( e \) be an expression and let \( x_1, \ldots, x_n \) be the free variables of \( e \). Let \( z \) be a variable different from \( x_1, \ldots, x_n \). We construct the principal type formula \( \varphi_e(z, x_1, \ldots, x_n) \) for \( e \) by induction on \( e \).

— Case \( e = x \). Note that, since \( x \) is the only free variable of \( e \), a principal type formula for \( e \) must have exactly two free variable symbols: \( x \) and \( z \). Since every typing of \( e \) has the form \( (\Gamma, \text{Record}(x)) \) and conversely every \( (\Gamma, \text{Record}(x)) \) is a typing of \( e \), it suffices to define \( \varphi_e := (z = x) \).

— Case \( e = [\ ] \). Note that, since \( e \) does not have any free variables, a principal type formula for \( e \) must have only one free variable symbol: \( z \). Since every typing of \( e \) has the form \( (\Gamma, \text{Record}(\emptyset)) \) and since every \( (\Gamma, \text{Record}(\emptyset)) \) is a typing of \( e \), it suffices to define \( \varphi_e := z = (\text{Record}(\emptyset)) \).

— Case \( e = [A : e'] \). Note that every typing of \( e \) has the form \( (\Gamma, \text{Record}([A : \tau])) \). Moreover, since \( (\Gamma, \text{Record}([A : \tau])) \) is a typing of \( e \) if, and only if, \( (\Gamma, \tau) \) is a typing of \( e' \), it suffices to define:

\[
\varphi_e := (\exists x_0)\varphi_{e'}(x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n) \land z = \text{Record}(A(x_0)).
\]

— Case \( e = e'.A \). Since \( (\Gamma, \tau) \) is a typing of \( e' \) if, and only if, \( (\Gamma, \text{Record}(\rho)) \) is a typing of \( e' \) with \( \rho(A) = \tau \), it suffices to define:

\[
\varphi_e := (\exists x_0)\varphi_{e'}(x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n) \land (\exists\alpha)x_0 = \text{Record}(A(z), \alpha).
\]

— Case \( e = e_1 \times e_2 \). Let \( y_1, \ldots, y_k \) be the free variables of \( e_1 \) and let \( y'_1, \ldots, y'_l \) be the free variables of \( e_2 \). Note that every typing of \( e \) has the form \( (\Gamma, \text{Record}(\rho)) \). Since \( (\Gamma, \text{Record}(\rho)) \) is a typing of \( e \) if, and only if, there exist rows \( \rho_1 \) and \( \rho_2 \) such that \( (\Gamma, \text{Record}(\rho_1)) \) is a typing of \( e_1 \) and \( (\Gamma, \text{Record}(\rho_2)) \) is a typing of \( e_2 \); \( \text{dom}(\rho_1) \) is disjoint with \( \text{dom}(\rho_2) \); and \( \rho = \rho_1 \cup \rho_2 \), it suffices to define:

\[
\varphi_e := (\exists y_0)\varphi_{e_1}(y_0, y_1, \ldots, y_k) \land (\exists\alpha)y_0 = \text{Record}(\alpha)
\land (\exists y'_0)\varphi_{e_2}(y'_0, y'_1, \ldots, y'_l) \land (\exists\alpha')y'_0 = \text{Record}(\alpha')
\land \alpha \neq \alpha' \land z = \text{Record}(\alpha, \alpha').
\]

— Case \( e = e_1 \times e_2 \). Let \( y_1, \ldots, y_k \) be the free variables of \( e_1 \) and let \( y'_1, \ldots, y'_l \) be the free variables of \( e_2 \). Note that every typing of \( e \) has the form \( (\Gamma, \text{Set}([\text{Record}(\rho)])) \). Since \( (\Gamma, \text{Set}([\text{Record}(\rho)])) \) is a typing of \( e \) if, and only if, there exist rows \( \rho_1 \) and \( \rho_2 \) such that \( (\Gamma, \text{Record}(\rho_1)) \) is a typing of \( e_1 \); \( (\Gamma, \text{Record}(\rho_2)) \) is a typing of \( e_2 \);
$e_2; \rho_1(A) = \rho_2(A)$ for every $A \in \text{dom}(\rho_1) \cap \text{dom}(\rho_2)$; and $\rho = \rho_1 \cup \rho_2$, it suffices to define:

$$\varphi_e := (\exists y_0)\varphi_{e_1}(y_0, y_1, \ldots, y_k) \land (\exists \alpha)y_0 = \text{Record}(\alpha)$$

$$\land (\exists y_0')\varphi_{e_2}(y_0', y_1', \ldots, y_l') \land (\exists \alpha')y_0' = \text{Record}(\alpha')$$

$$\land (\exists \beta')\alpha \subseteq \alpha', \beta' \land (\exists \beta)\alpha \subseteq \alpha, \beta$$

$$\land z = \text{Set}(\text{Record}(\alpha, \alpha')).$$

Indeed, the subformula $\alpha, \beta' \subseteq \alpha, \beta$ ensures that the rows held by $\alpha$ and $\beta$ agree on the common attributes in their domain.

---

Case $e = \hat{\pi}_A(e')$. Note that every typing of $e$ has the form $(\Gamma, \text{Record}(\rho))$. Since $(\Gamma, \text{Record}(\rho))$ is a typing of $e$ if, and only if, there exists a row $\rho'$ such that $(\Gamma, \text{Record}(\rho'))$ is a typing of $e'$ and $\rho = \hat{\pi}_A(\rho')$, it suffices to define:

$$\varphi_e := (\exists x_0)\varphi_{e'}(x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n) \land (\exists \alpha)x_0 = \text{Record}(\alpha)$$

$$\land (\exists \beta)(\exists y)A(y) \neq \beta \land \alpha \subseteq A(y), \beta \land A(y), \beta \subseteq \alpha$$

$$\land z = \text{Set}(\beta).$$

Indeed, the subformula $A(y) \neq \beta \land \alpha \subseteq A(y), \beta \land A(y), \beta \subseteq \alpha$ ensures that attribute $A$ is not in the domain of the row held by $\beta$ and that the row held by $\alpha$ equals the row held by $\beta$ on all other attributes.

---

Case $e = \emptyset$. Note that, since $\emptyset$ does not have any free variables, a principal type formula for $e$ must have only one free variable symbol: $z$. Since every typing of $e$ has the form $(\Gamma, \text{Set}(\tau))$ and conversely every $(\Gamma, \text{Set}(\tau))$ is a typing of $e$, it suffices to define $\varphi_e := (\exists y)z = \text{Set}(y)$.

---

Case $e = \{e'\}$. Note that every typing of $e$ has the form $(\Gamma, \text{Set}(\tau))$. Since $(\Gamma, \text{Set}(\tau))$ is a typing of $e$ if, and only if, $(\Gamma, \tau)$ is a typing of $e'$, it suffices to define:

$$\varphi_e := (\exists x_0)\varphi_{e'}(x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n) \land z = \text{Set}(x_0).$$

---

Case $e = e_1 \cup e_2$. Let $y_1, \ldots, y_k$ be the free variables of $e_1$ and let $y_1', \ldots, y_l'$ be the free variables of $e_2$. Note that every typing of $e$ has the form $(\Gamma, \text{Set}(\tau))$. Since $(\Gamma, \text{Set}(\tau))$ is a typing of $e$ if, and only if, $(\Gamma, \text{Set}(\tau))$ is a typing of $e_1$ and $(\Gamma, \text{Set}(\tau))$ is a typing of $e_2$, it suffices to define:

$$\varphi_e := (\exists y_0)\varphi_{e_1}(y_0, y_1, \ldots, y_k) \land (\exists y_0')\varphi_{e_2}(y_0, y_1', \ldots, y_l')$$

$$\land y_0 = y_0' \land z = y_0 \land (\exists x)z = \text{Set}(x).$$

---

Case $e = \bigcup e'$. Note that every typing of $e$ has the form $(\Gamma, \text{Set}(\tau))$. Since $(\Gamma, \text{Set}(\tau))$ is a typing of $e$ if, and only if, $(\Gamma, \text{Set}(\tau))$ is a typing of $e'$, it suffices to define:

$$\varphi_e := (\exists x_0)\varphi_{e'}(x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n) \land (\exists y)x_0 = \text{Set}(\text{Set}(y)) \land z = \text{Set}(y).$$

---

Case $e = \{e_2 \mid x \in e_1\}$. Let $y_1, \ldots, y_k$ be the free variables of $e_1$ and let $x, y_1', \ldots, y_l'$ be the free variables of $e_2$. Note that every typing of $e$ has the form $(\Gamma, \text{Set}(\tau))$. Since $(\Gamma, \text{Set}(\tau))$ is a typing of $e$ if, and only if, there exists a type...
τ' such that \((\Gamma, \text{Set}(\tau'))\) is a typing of \(e_1\) and \(((x : \tau', \Gamma), \tau)\) is a typing of \(e_2\), it suffices to define:

\[
\varphi_e := (\exists y_0)\varphi_{e_1}(y_0, y_1, \ldots, y_k) \land (\exists x) y_0 = \text{Set}(x) \\
\quad \land (\exists y'_0)\varphi_{e_2}(y'_0, x, y'_1, \ldots, y'_l) \land z = \text{Set}(y'_0).
\]

—Case \(e = e_1 = e_2 = e_3 = e_4\). Let \(u_1, \ldots, u_k\) be the free variables of \(e_1\), let \(u'_1, \ldots, u'_l\) be the free variables of \(e_2\), let \(y_1, \ldots, y_p\) be the free variables of \(e_3\), and let \(y'_1, \ldots, y'_{l'}\) be the free variables of \(e_4\). Note that every typing of \(e\) has the form \((\Gamma, \tau)\). Since \((\Gamma, \tau)\) is a typing of \(e\) if, and only if, there exists a type \(\tau'\) such that \((\Gamma, \tau')\) is a typing of \(e_1\) and \(e_2\) and \((\Gamma, \tau)\) is a typing of \(e_3\) and \(e_4\), it suffices to define:

\[
(\exists u_0)\varphi_{e_1}(u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_k) \land (\exists u'_0)\varphi_{e_2}(u'_0, u'_1, \ldots, u'_l) \land u_0 = u'_0 \\
\land (\exists y_0)\varphi_{e_3}(y_0, y_1, \ldots, y_p) \land (\exists y'_0)\varphi_{e_4}(y'_0, y'_1, \ldots, y'_{l'}) \land y_0 = y'_0 \land z = y_0.
\]

Clearly, \(\varphi_e\) is of size linear in the size of \(e\), and is computable from \(e\) in polynomial time.

4. TYPABILITY

Some expressions, such as for example \([[x].A, do not have any typing. We will refer to such expressions as untypable.

Definition 4.1. An expression \(e\) is called typable if there exists a type assignment \(\Gamma\) on \(e\) and a type \(\tau\) such that \(\Gamma \vdash e : \tau\). Deciding whether a given expression \(e\) is typable is called the typability problem.

Example 4.2. Some additional examples of untypable formulas are \([A: x].B, x \cup x.A, \text{and} x.A \sqcap (x \times [A: y])\).

It follows from Theorem 3.6 that deciding whether an expression \(e\) is typable is equivalent to computing the principal type formula \(\varphi_e\) for \(e\) and then deciding whether \(\varphi_e\) is satisfiable in \(T\). We will now show that deciding the latter is in the complexity class NP. Since \(\varphi_e\) is computable from \(e\) in polynomial time, it then follows that the typability problem is also in NP.

We first note that, since \(\varphi_e\) is a conjunctive formula, it is very easily put in existential prenex normal form \((\exists x_1) \ldots (\exists x_n) \psi\) with \(\psi\) quantifier free. Clearly, \(\varphi_e\) is satisfiable in \(T\) if, and only if, \(\psi\) is. We will therefore restrict our attention to quantifier free type formulas.

Definition 4.3. The set \(\text{Specattrs}(\varphi)\) of a type formula \(\varphi\) is the set of attributes \(A\) for which a term of the form \(A(t)\) occurs in \(\varphi\).

Definition 4.4. The deep restriction \(\rho|_S\) of a row over types \(\rho\) to a set of attributes \(S\) is the row \(\rho'\) with domain \(\text{dom}(\rho) \cap S\) such that for each \(A \in \text{dom}(\rho) \cap S\), \(\rho'(A)\) is the deep restriction of the type \(\rho(A)\) to \(S\). Here, the deep restriction \(\tau|_S\) of a type \(\tau\) to \(S\) is the type obtained from \(\tau\) by deep-restricting every row occurring in \(\tau\) to \(S\). So, this is a recursive definition. In addition, we define the deep restriction \(h|_S\) of a \(T\)-valuation \(h\) to \(S\) as the \(T\)-valuation \(h'\) such that \(h'(x) = h(x)|_S\) for every \(x \in \text{dom}(h)\).
Lemma 4.5. If \( \varphi \) is a type formula and \( h \) is a \( T \)-valuation such that \( T \models \varphi(h) \), then also \( T \models \varphi(h|_{\text{Specattrs}(\varphi)}) \).

Proof. It is easy to see by induction on \( t \) that, for any term \( t \) occurring in \( \varphi \) we have \( h|_{\text{Specattrs}(\varphi)}(t) = h(t)|_{\text{Specattrs}(\varphi)} \). The lemma then follows by an easy induction on \( \varphi \). \( \square \)

Theorem 4.6. Deciding satisfiability in \( T \) of a quantifier free type formula is in \( \text{NP} \).

Proof. Let \( \psi \) be a quantifier free type formula. Let, for every attribute name \( A \) and every variable \( \alpha \) of sort \( \text{row} \) in \( \psi \), \( x_A^\alpha \) be a distinct type variable not in \( \psi \). An attribute assignment on \( \psi \) is a mapping \( f \) that assigns each variable \( \alpha \) of sort \( \text{row} \) in \( \psi \) to a term in \( \text{FO}(\Sigma_e) \) of sort \( \text{row} \) of the form

\[
A(x_A^\alpha), \ldots, B(x_B^\alpha), \varepsilon
\]

where \( \{A, \ldots, B\} \subseteq \text{Specattrs}(\psi) \). Note that, in particular, the size of \( f \) is polynomial in the size of \( \psi \). Let \( \psi_f \) be the quantifier-free type formula obtained from \( \psi \) by replacing each variable \( \alpha \) of sort \( \text{row} \) in \( \psi \) by the term \( f(\alpha) \). Clearly, \( \psi_f \) can be computed from \( \varepsilon \) in polynomial time.

We now claim that \( \psi \) is satisfiable in \( T \) if, and only if, there exists an attribute assignment \( f \) on \( \psi \) such that \( \psi_f \) is satisfiable in \( T \). Indeed, suppose that \( \psi \) is satisfiable in \( T \). By Lemma 4.5 there exists a valuation \( h \) of \( \psi \) such that \( T \models \psi(h) \) and such that \( \text{dom}(h(\alpha)) \subseteq \text{Specattrs}(\psi) \), for all variables \( \alpha \) of sort \( \text{row} \) in \( \psi \). Then let \( f \) be the attribute assignment on \( \psi \) defined by

\[
\psi_f := A(x_A^\alpha), \ldots, B(x_B^\alpha), \varepsilon
\]

where \( \text{dom}(h(\alpha)) = \{A, \ldots, B\} \). Let \( h_f \) be the valuation on \( \psi_f \) which equals \( h \) on type variables in \( \psi \) and for which \( h_f(x_A^\alpha) = h(A)(A) \). It is easy to see that \( T \models \psi_f(h_f) \).

Conversely, suppose that there exists an attribute assignment \( f \) on \( \psi \) such that \( \psi_f \) is satisfiable in \( T \). Then let \( h_f \) be a valuation of \( \psi_f \) such that \( T \models \psi_f(h_f) \). Let \( h \) be the valuation on \( \psi \) which equals \( h_f \) on the type variables in \( \psi \) and for which \( h(\alpha) \) is the row \( \rho \) with domain \( \{A, \ldots, B\} \) where \( f(\alpha) = A(x_A^\alpha), \ldots, B(x_B^\alpha), \varepsilon \) such that \( \rho(A) = h_f(x_A^\alpha) \). It is easy to see that \( T \models \psi(h) \).

Hence, in order to check satisfiability of \( \psi \), it suffices to guess an attribute assignment \( f \) on \( \psi \) (which is polynomial in the size of \( \psi \)); compute \( \psi_f \) (which can be done in time polynomial in the size of \( \psi \) and \( f \)); and check whether \( \psi_f \) is satisfiable. The latter can be done in time polynomial in the size of \( \psi_f \), as we show in the following theorem. Hence, deciding satisfiability of \( \psi \) is in \( \text{NP} \). \( \square \)

Theorem 4.7. Satisfiability in \( T \) of quantifier free type formulas without variables of sort \( \text{row} \) can be decided in polynomial time.

Proof. Let \( \psi \) be a quantifier free type formula without variables of sort \( \text{row} \). Since there are no variables of sort \( \text{row} \) in \( \psi \), every term \( u \) of sort \( \text{row} \) in \( \psi \) is either the empty row term \( \varepsilon \); a singleton row term \( A(t) \) with \( t \) a term of sort \( \text{type} \); or a concatenation \( u_1, u_2 \). Note that, if an attribute occurs multiple times as a function symbol in \( u \), then only the first occurrence contributes to the semantics of \( u \). For
example, \( u = A(x), B(y), A(z), C(w) \) is clearly equivalent to \( A(x), B(y), C(w) \). We will therefore assume without loss of generality that for every term \( u \) of sort row in \( \psi \), there is at most one occurrence of an attribute as a function symbol in \( u \). Clearly, we can always rewrite terms into this form in polynomial time by removing redundant occurrences.

In what follows, we write \( \text{dom}(u) \) for the set of attributes occurring in \( u \) and \( u(A) \) for the unique term of sort type that \( A \in \text{dom}(u) \) is applied to in \( u \). For example, if \( u = A(x), B(y), C(w) \), then \( \text{dom}(u) = \{A, B, C\} \); \( u(A) = x \); \( u(B) = y \); and \( u(C) = w \). In essence we hence view terms of sort row as rows over terms of sort type. Also, we treat quantifier free type formulas (which are simply conjunctions of atomic formulas) as sets of atomic formulas.

With this convention, let \( \psi_1 \) be the subset of \( \psi \) defined by
\[
\psi_1 := \{ u_1 \not\equiv u_2 \mid (u_1 \not\equiv u_2) \in \psi \} \cup \{ u_1 \subseteq u_2 \mid (u_1 \subseteq u_2) \in \psi \}.
\]
Let \( \psi_2 \) be defined by
\[
\psi_2 := \{ (t_1 \not\equiv t_2) \mid (t_1 \not\equiv t_2) \in \psi \}
\cup \{ h(A) = u_2(A) \mid (u_1 \subseteq u_2) \in \psi \text{ and } A \in \text{dom}(u_1) \cap \text{dom}(u_2) \}.
\]
It is clear that \( \psi_1 \) and \( \psi_2 \) can be computed from \( \psi \) in polynomial time. Let us call \( \psi \) consistent if for every \( u_1 \not\equiv u_2 \) in \( \psi_1 \) we have \( \text{dom}(u_1) \cap \text{dom}(u_2) = \emptyset \) and for every \( u_1 \subseteq u_2 \) we have \( \text{dom}(u_1) \subseteq \text{dom}(u_2) \).

We claim that \( \psi \) is satisfiable in \( T \) if, and only if, \( \psi_1 \) is consistent and \( \psi_2 \) is satisfiable in \( T \). Indeed, it is easy to see that if \( \psi \) is satisfiable, then \( \psi_1 \) must be consistent. Furthermore, if \( h \) is a valuation for which \( T \models \psi(h) \), then \( h(t_1) = h(t_2) \) for every \( t_1 = t_2 \) in \( \psi \) and \( h(u_1)(A) = h(u_2)(A) \) for every \( u_1 \subseteq u_2 \) in \( \psi \) and every \( A \in \text{dom}(u_1) \cap \text{dom}(u_2) \). Hence, \( T \models \psi_2(h) \).

Conversely, suppose that \( \psi_1 \) is consistent and that \( \psi_2 \) is satisfiable in \( T \). Let \( h \) be a valuation such that \( T \models \psi_2(h) \). Then \( h(t_1) = h(t_2) \) for every \( t_1 = t_2 \) in \( \psi \). Furthermore, since \( \text{dom}(u_1) \cap \text{dom}(u_2) = \emptyset \) for every \( u_1 \not\equiv u_2 \) in \( \psi \) (as \( \psi_1 \) is consistent), and since there are no variables of sort row in \( \psi \), it follows that \( \text{dom}(h(u_1)) \cap \text{dom}(h(u_2)) = \emptyset \) for every \( u_1 \not\equiv u_2 \) in \( \psi \). Finally, since \( \text{dom}(u_1) \subseteq \text{dom}(u_2) \) for every \( u_1 \subseteq u_2 \) in \( \psi \) (as \( \psi_1 \) is consistent) and since \( h(u_1)(A) = h(u_2)(A) \) for every \( A \in \text{dom}(u_1) \cap \text{dom}(u_2) \) (as \( T \models \psi_2(h) \)), it follows that \( h(u_1) \subseteq h(u_2) \) for every \( u_1 \subseteq u_2 \) in \( \psi \). Hence, \( T \models \psi(h) \).

In order to check satisfiability of \( \psi \), it hence suffices to check consistency of \( \psi_1 \) and satisfiability of \( \psi_2 \). Consistency of \( \psi_1 \) can clearly be checked in polynomial time. We now show that satisfiability of \( \psi_2 \) in \( T \) can also be checked in polynomial time. Let \( \prec \) be some arbitrarily fixed order on the special attributes of \( \psi_2 \). We assume without loss of generality that every term of sort row in \( \psi_2 \) is of the form \( A_1(t_1), A_2(t_2), \ldots, A_m(t_m), \varepsilon \) with \( A_1 \prec A_2 \prec \cdots \prec A_m \) (as such terms can clearly be rewritten into this form in polynomial time without affecting satisfiability otherwise). Note that \( \psi_2 \) is simply a set of equations between terms of sort type. It is then easy to see that checking satisfiability of \( \psi_2 \) in \( T \) amounts to finding a substitution \( \theta \) of variables in \( \psi_2 \) to terms in \( FO(\Sigma_T) \) of sort type such that \( \theta(t_1) \) and \( \theta(t_2) \) are syntactically equal for every equation \( t_1 = t_2 \) in \( \psi_2 \). Hence, satisfiability of \( \psi_2 \) reduces to finding a unifier of every equation in \( \psi_2 \), which is known to be
decidable in polynomial time [Baader and Snyder 2001; Martelli and Montanari 1982; Paterson and Wegman. 1978]. □

The complexity upper bound of NP provided by Theorem 4.6 is actually tight:

**Proposition 4.8.** Typability for the NNRC is NP-complete.

**Proof.** Since typability of an expression \( e \) is equivalent to computing the type formula \( \varphi_e \) for \( e \) and then deciding whether \( \varphi_e \) is satisfiable in \( T \), it follows from Theorems 3.6 and 4.6 that typability for the NNRC is in NP.

It is known that typability for the relational algebra is NP-complete [Van den Bussche and Waller 2002; Vansummeren 2005]. It is also well-known that the relational algebra can be simulated in the NNRC [Buneman et al. 1995; Wong 1994]. It is not difficult to see that this simulation preserves typability. Hence, typability for the NNRC is also NP-complete. □

By the reduction of typability of an NNRC expression to satisfiability in \( T \) of a type formula it also follows:

**Corollary 4.9.** Deciding satisfiability in \( T \) of a type formula is NP-complete.

5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

*Simplification of principal type formulas.* We have shown that the set of all typings of an NNRC expression \( e \) can be explicitly described by a conjunctive formula \( \varphi_e \) in \( FO(\Sigma_t) \), which is efficiently computable from \( e \). From a practical viewpoint our definition of a principal type formula is deficient, however. Indeed, a principal type formula for a program is generally expected to be a useful, concise, and easily understandable abstraction of what the program does. For example, if we view the well-known type inference algorithm for the programming language ML in our setting, a principal type formula is either either false (meaning the function whose type we are inferring is untypable) or of the form

\[
(\exists u_1) \ldots (\exists u_m) z = t \land x_1 = t_1 \land \ldots \land x_n = t_n.
\]

Here, \( u_1, \ldots, u_m \) are variable symbols, and \( t, t_1, \ldots, t_n \) are terms of sort type built from \( u_1, \ldots, u_m \). For such formulas it is easy to discern the kinds of types that can be assigned to \( z, x_1, \ldots, x_n \). In contrast, we allow arbitrary complex type formulas. Consider, for example, the principal type formula for \( [C: x \cup y] \) that is output by the inductive algorithm given in the proof of Theorem 3.6:

\[
\varphi_1 \equiv (\exists u_0)(\exists u_1)u_1 = x \land (\exists u'_1)u'_1 = y \land u_1 = u'_1 \land u_0 = u_1 \\
\land (\exists u_2)u_0 = Set(u_2) \land z = Record(C(u_2)).
\]

The extra use of bound variables and equality predicates makes this formula harder to understand than its equivalent \( \varphi_2 \) in “ML normal form”:

\[
\varphi_2 \equiv (\exists u_2)z = Record(C(Set(u_2))) \land x = Set(u_2) \land y = Set(u_2).
\]

For presentation of principal type formulas to the programmer, we would hence like to have a normal form that allows formulas like \( \varphi_2 \), but avoids needlessly complex formulas like \( \varphi_1 \). Moreover, such a normal form should come with a simplification algorithm that puts arbitrary principal type formulas in this normal form.

The ML normal form given above does not suffice for this purpose, as not all type formulas can be expressed in it. For example, a principal type formula for \(x \times y\) must express that the row of the record in \(x\) is disjoint with the row of the record in \(y\). Therefore, such a type formula must contain an atomic formula of the form \(t_1 \neq t_2\), which cannot occur in a type formula in ML normal form. We could therefore generalize the ML normal form to

\[
(\exists u_1) \ldots (\exists u_m) \ z = t \land x_1 = t_1 \land \cdots \land x_n = t_n \land \psi.
\]

Here, \(u_1, \ldots, u_m\) are variable symbols; \(t, t_1, \ldots, t_n\) are terms of sort type built from \(u_1, \ldots, u_m\); and \(\psi\) is a quantifier free formula in \(\text{FO}(\Sigma_r)\) that only contains atomic formulas of the form \(t_1' \subseteq t_2'\) and \(t_1' \neq t_2'\) such that \(\text{FV}(\psi) \subseteq \{u_1, \ldots, u_m\}\). We call \(\psi\) the constraint part.

It is not difficult to show that every principal type formula has an equivalent formula in this form. Unfortunately, it is unsuitable for presentation purposes as it still allows arbitrary complex type formulas. For example, the following principal type formula for \([C: x \cup y]\) has the above form, but is as complex as \(\varphi_1\):

\[
\varphi_3 \equiv (\exists u_0)(\exists u_1)(\exists u_2)(\exists u_1')z = \text{Record}(C(u_0)) \land x = u_1 \land y = u_1' \\
\land A(u_1) \subseteq A(u_1') \land A(u_0) \subseteq A(u_1) \land A(u_0) \subseteq A(\text{Set}(u_2)).
\]

Indeed, here atomic formulas of the form \(t_1 = t_2\) in \(\varphi_1\) are simply replaced by atomic formulas \(A(t_1) \subseteq A(t_2)\), resulting in the same obfuscation. To overcome a similar problem, Odersky et al. [1999] and Sulzmann [2001] propose to further restrict the constraint part \(\psi\) to be logically equation-free. A formula is logically equation-free if only trivial equations are logically implied by it. That is, for any two terms \(t_1\) and \(t_2\), if \(h(t_1) = h(t_2)\) for every valuation \(h\) such that \(T \models \psi(h)\), then \(t_1\) should be syntactically equal to \(t_2\). This restriction rules out \(\varphi_3\) above, since the constraint part

\[
A(u_1) \subseteq A(u_1') \land A(u_0) \subseteq A(u_1) \land A(u_0) \subseteq A(\text{Set}(u_2))
\]

logically implies the equations \(u_1 = u_0, u_0 = \text{Set}(u_2)\), and so on. We currently do not know, however, if every principal type formula has an equivalent formula in this restricted normal form, and, if so, if such an equivalent formula is effectively computable.

Note that, even after simplification, principal type formulas may be quite complex. For example, recall the expression \(e_2\) from Example 3.5:

\[
e_2 = \{[[B: t.A]] \cup \{r \times s\} \mid t \in x \uplus y\}.
\]

Then the following is a principal type formula for \(e_2\):

\[
\varphi_4 \equiv (\exists \alpha)(\exists \alpha')(\exists \beta)(\exists \beta')(\exists \mu)(\exists \nu)(\exists q) z = \text{Set}(\text{Record}(B(q))) \\
\land x = \text{Record}(\alpha) \land y = \text{Record}(\beta) \land r = \text{Record}(\nu) \land s = \text{Record}(\mu) \\
\land \alpha \subseteq \beta, \beta' \subseteq \alpha, \alpha' \subseteq \mu \neq \nu \land A(q) \subseteq \alpha, \beta \\
\land B(q) \subseteq \mu, \nu \land \mu, \nu \subseteq B(q).
\]

Note that \(\varphi_4\) is of the restricted form proposed by Odersky et al. and Sulzmann, but is still complex. This complexity is entirely due to the complicated typing.
rules for $\times$, $\exists$, and $\Pi_A$. This is not solely a deficiency in our approach: other type systems treating such record operations [Buneman and Ohori 1996; Odersky et al. 1999; Sulzmann 2001] also suffer from this problem.

Typing database programming languages. As we have already mentioned in the Introduction, our results on the complexity of typability can be used to determine how the integration of the NNRC in an implicitly typed functional programming language, such as the simply typed lambda calculus or ML, affects the complexity of type-checking in this language. Adding the NNRC to the simply typed lambda calculus for example changes the complexity from $P$-complete to at least $NP$-hard. The type-checking problem for ML is known to be $EXPTIME$-complete [Kanellakis et al. 1991; Mairson 1990]. Hence, our result that type-checking the NNRC is $NP$-hard does not necessarily imply that type-checking the integrated ML-NNRC is harder than type-checking ML. We should note, however, that the $EXPTIME$-completeness for ML arises only due to programs of a very particular form, which rarely occur in practice [McAllester 2003]. The ML type-checking algorithms therefore typically run in linear time in practice [McAllester 2003]. The $NP$-hardness of type-checking in the NNRC on the other hand arises in many expressions, due to many different reasons [Vansummeren 2005]. It is therefore likely that type-checking the integrated ML-NNRC language will in practice be slower than type-checking ML.

REFERENCES


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