Finally, Safely-extensible and Efficient Language-integrated Query

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Abstract

Language-integrated query is an embedding of database queries into a host language to code queries at a higher level than the all-to-common concatenation of strings of SQL fragments. The eventually produced SQL is ensured to be well-formed and well-typed, and hence free from the embarrassing (security) problems. Language-integrated query takes advantage of the host language’s functional and modular abstractions to compose and reuse queries and build query libraries. Furthermore, language-integrated query systems like T-LINQ generate efficient SQL by applying a number of program transformations to the embedded query. Alas, the set of transformation rules is not designed to be extensible.

We demonstrate a new technique of integrating database queries into a typed functional programming language, so to write well-typed, composable queries and execute them efficiently on any SQL back-end as well as on an in-memory noSQL store. A distinct feature of our framework is that both the query language as well as the transformation rules needed to generate efficient SQL are safely user-extensible, to account for many variations in the SQL back-ends, as well for domain-specific knowledge. The transformation rules are guaranteed to be type-preserving and hygienic by their very construction. They can be built from separately developed and reusable parts and arbitrarily composed into optimization pipelines.

With this technique we have embedded into OCaml a relational query language that supports a very large subset of SQL including grouping and aggregation. Its types cover the complete set of intricate SQL behaviors.

Categories and Subject Descriptors D.3.4 [Programming Languages]: Processors—Code Generation; H.2.3 [Database Management]: Languages—Query Languages; D.3.2 [Programming Languages]: Language Classifications—Applicative (functional) languages

Keywords SQL, tagless-final, language-integrated query, LINQ, EDSL

1. Introduction

Writing efficient database queries in a composable, extensible and safe way is a yet-to-be-achieved dream of every database program-mer. For better or for worse, SQL still stands as the unique standard query language in widely used database management systems. Mature database systems can execute queries in the classical SQL (SQL-92 Intermediate level) very efficiently by now. The lack of functional abstractions and nested data structures in that language however makes it hard or impossible to build efficient complex queries from simpler, previously written and tested ones, and to compile query libraries. Various ways of embedding SQL into (functional) programming languages – so called language-integrated queries – let us use the abstraction facilities and the type system of the host language to build queries safely and modularly. Yet this compositability comes at the expense of efficiency. We illustrate the hard trade-off between efficiency and compositability/reuse in §2.

As in numeric computing, metaprogramming comes to the rescue and once again lets us have the “abstraction without guilt;” the performance problem of language-integrated queries is cured by program transformation. Cooper, in the well-titled paper “The Script-Writer’s Dream: How to Write Great SQL in Your Own Language, and Be Sure It Will Succeed” [6], proposes transformation rules. One notable implementation of the rules is the T-LINQ system by Cheney et al. [4], which is an embedding of a typed relational query language T-LINQ into F#. Although the system was designed primarily for F#, it could be ported to other languages with typed quotation. An important design choice was that the set of the transformation rules was not user-extensible. Since the implementation is not expected to change, one could afford one-time thorough verification of the code.

In contrast, the starting point for our system is to make both the embedded query language and the set of optimization rules for generating efficient SQL open, moreover, user-extensible. There are many subtly different SQL implementations with the host of extensions and restrictions, which require adjustments to the embedded query language and its rules. In addition, a programmer may add custom rules to express domain-specific knowledge unavailable to a general-purpose SQL optimizer. The consequence of letting users extend the language and its optimizations is the obligation to make it easy and safe to do so. Any extension should be incremental and reuse as much of the already written code as possible. We should strive to automatically prevent classes of mistakes and ensure some degree of correctness by construction.

We have attained the desiderata. Our contribution hence is a practical, safely-extensible language-integrated query system:

• It is the system to write composable database queries and execute them efficiently using any SQL back-end as well as an in-memory noSQL store.
• The user may add domain-specific optimizations to compensate for the deficiencies of the back-end (e.g., MySQL) or to better exploit domain-specific knowledge that may not be available to
The standard SQL query optimizer. The optimizations are type-safe and type-preserving by construction.

- The system is unique in supporting grouping and aggregation (see §7) to the letter of the ANSI SQL standard as well as PostgreSQL extensions: GROUPBY and HAVING clauses may contain arbitrary expressions with the arbitrary mixture of grouped and ungrouped columns. An expression with at least one ungrouped column must be (a part of) an argument of an aggregate function. Our type system accepts all and the only queries that satisfy the complex of SQL grouping rules.

- The query language itself is extensible; as an illustration we show how aggregation and GROUPBY can be added post factum.

At first glance, our system looks like a re-implementation of T-LINQ. However, it is extensible letting the users extend both the language and the optimization rules; modular letting extensions re-use as much of the old code as possible and preventing from breaking it; safe making optimizations type-preserving and hygienic by construction with full grouping and aggregation in the language type system.

Our system can be easily extended to other back-ends, other SQL features and peculiarities, and other host languages. Our framework uses the typed final (aka, ‘tagless-final’) approach (TFA) [3] to embed and optimize a query language. That approach proved convenient for embedding domain-specific languages (DSL): we can express not only the syntax and the denotational semantics of the DSL but also its typing rules, getting the type system of the host language to ensure the type safety of the embedded one. We are hence spared the trouble of implementing a type checker/inferencer for the DSL. An evaluator, a pretty printer, and a code generator can be uniformly implemented as type-respecting interpretations of the terms in DSL. We can also optimize the embedded language, safely and modularly. The optimization technique has been introduced previously [15, 17], but only on small examples. Hence another contribution of the present paper is to demonstrate:

- The typed final optimization technique scales up.

One may wonder what fundamentally is being done that could not be done straightforwardly using traditional compiler technology, or the deep embedding (that is, embedding of SQL as a data type). First of all, all our transformations are type- and scope-preserving by the very construction. It is not possible to apply a transformation that makes the result ill-typed or leaves unbound variables. It is not even possible to write such a bad transformation and getting it past the type checker. Traditional compiler technology works on an untyped AST and hence makes no mechanically verified promises about the result. Deep embedding, via a datatype, can make some guarantees (using GADTs) but such embeddings are difficult to make extensible, that is, add new forms to the languages and still be able to reuse old transformations as they are.

This paper is organized as follows: the background §2 introduces the running example of sample queries and uses it to informally introduce our embedded query language, called QUEA, a superset of T-LINQ of [4]. The section shows how the naive interpretation of the language to query a SQL database leads to severe performance problems, and how program transformation (some form of meta-programming) may help. §3 formally introduces QUEA, and its embedding to the host language OCaml in TFA. We briefly illustrate the normalization (transformation) rules of QUEA programs in §4. §5 evaluates the performance. §6 shows off the extensibility of our QUEA embedding: we add to the language set-based union and re-use, rather than re-write, all the previous interpreters and the transformers. To normalize the extended language we only need to add to the optimization pipeline a couple of transformation rules specifically dealing with the just added operation. §7 extends the target language in the substantial way, with aggregate functions and the GROUPBY clauses. We then discuss the related work and conclude in §9.

The complete code of our system is available online at http://logic.cs.tsukuba.ac.jp/~ken/quel/.

2. QUEA by Example

This section introduces our query language QUEA, modeled after T-LINQ of [4], on several sample queries that serve as our running example. We describe the interpretation of the language in terms of SQL and see how composing queries leads to very inefficient database interactions. We then outline how program transformations may solve the performance problem. §4 will explain how to actually program these transformations and be sure of their safety.

The language QUEA is a simply typed functional language with the primitives for accessing and manipulating data in database tables. Its syntax is formally defined in §3.1; here we illustrate it on very simple and self-explanatory examples. The examples use the database in Fig. 1 with two tables: the products table is a bag (a multiset) of records with the fields for product id (pid), name and price; the orders table has columns for order id (oid), pid, and qty (quantity).

```
problems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>pid</th>
<th>name</th>
<th>price</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Tablet</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Laptop</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Desktop</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Router</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>HDD</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>SSD</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

orders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>oid</th>
<th>pid</th>
<th>qty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

type Product = (pid : Int, name : String, price : Int)
type Order = (oid : Int, pid : Int, qty : Int)
```

Figure 1. Sample database tables and the types of their records

The first sample query \( Q_1 \) produces all orders with the given oid. To explain it, we show the corresponding SQL query on the right.

\[
Q_1 = \lambda o. \begin{cases}
\text{SELECT } o \cdot \text{FROM orders AS o WHERE o.oid = oid} \\
\end{cases}
\]

On the sample database, \( \text{run} (Q_1, 2) \) returns the following bag:

\[
\{(\text{oid} = 2, \text{pid} = 5, \text{qty} = 10), (\text{oid} = 2, \text{pid} = 6, \text{qty} = 20)\}
\]

where \( \text{run} \) is a primitive to translate the query into SQL and execute it. The next query \( Q_2 \) gets the Order record, finds the product(s) with the pid mentioned in the order and returns the bag of records with the pid, the name, and the sale amount.

\[
Q_2 = \lambda o. \begin{cases}
\text{SELECT p.pid AS pid, p.name AS name, p.price AS price WHERE p.oid = o.pid} \\
\end{cases}
\]

Then \( \text{run} (Q_2, (\text{oid} = 2, \text{pid} = 5, \text{qty} = 10)) \) returns

\[
\{(\text{pid} = 5, \text{name} = \text{HDD}, \text{sale} = 1000)\}
\]

We wish to compose \( Q_1 \) and \( Q_2 \) to obtain the query \( Q'_1 \), yielding the bag of records with the total sales for the given oid:
Although very natural, \(Q_s\)' has a serious performance problem, known as Query Avalanche, or the \(Q + 1\) query problem \([10]\); running \(Q_s\) 2 would issue 3 SQL queries: first \(Q_1\) is run, returning a bag with 2 records. Then \(Q_2\) is run on each record. In general, \(Q_s\)' \(oid\) would issue \(N + 1\) SQL queries, if \(Q_1\) returns a bag of \(N\) records. Running a database query has a very high overhead: setting up the communication session with the database server, optimizing the query, setting up and tearing down the transaction, etc. The key to high-performance is to obtain all results in a single database query.

A different way to compose the two queries is by a higher-order function

\[
\text{compose} = \lambda q. \lambda r. \lambda x. \text{for } (y \leftarrow q x) \ r y
\]

\[Q_3 = \lambda x. \text{compose} \ Q_1 \ Q_2 \ x\]

Then \(Q_3\) \(oid\) could be interpreted in SQL as

\[
\text{SELECT} \ (Q_2 \ Ty.oid \ Ty.pid \ Ty.qtty) \ \text{FROM} \ Q_1 \ \text{oid} \ \text{AS} \ Ty
\]

Recall however that both \(Q_1\) and \(Q_2\) are interpreted as SQL SELECT statements; therefore \(Q_3\) has nested SELECTs (nested subqueries). Many language-integrated query systems used in practice such as OPAleye \([9]\) and HRR \([11]\) indeed generate nested subqueries. However, the performance problem is only partly solved: Google search for "nested subquery performance" brings the abundance of recommendations to avoid subqueries whenever possible, even for such mature databases as Oracle\(^1\). MySQL 5.7 documentation states "The optimizer is more mature for joins than for subqueries, so in many cases a statement that uses a subquery can be executed more efficiently if you rewrite it as a join.\(^2\)." The quote hints at the solution: re-writing, which is the approach taken by Cooper \([6]\) and T-LINQ \([4]\). For example, \(Q_3\), after inlining \(Q_1\) and \(Q_2\) and several beta-reductions, becomes

\[
(Q'_s) = \lambda oid. \\
\text{for } (y \leftarrow (\text{for } (o \leftarrow \text{orders}) \\
\text{where } (o.oid = oid) \ \text{yield } (pid = o.oid, \ qtty = o.qtty))) \\
\text{for } (p \leftarrow \text{products}) \\
\text{where } (p.pid = y.pid) \\
\text{yield } (pid = p.pid, \ name = p.name, sale = p.price * y.qtty)
\]

A number of transformation steps, described in §4 (for example, lifting \textbf{for} and combining adjacent \textbf{where}) result in

\[
(Q''_s) = \lambda oid. \ \text{for } (o \leftarrow \text{orders}) \\
\text{where } (o.oid = oid) \land (p.pid = o.pid) \\
\text{yield } (pid = p.pid, \ name = p.name, sale = p.price * o.qtty)
\]

which can be straightforwardly interpreted as the following SQL statement (keeping in mind that nested consecutive \textbf{for} compute the Cartesian product, which in SQL is expressed by enumerating the tables in the FROM clause):

\[
\text{SELECT p.pid AS pid, p.name AS name, p.price * o.qtty AS sale FROM products AS p, orders AS o WHERE p.pid = o.oid AND o.oid = oid}
\]

This single SQL query can be efficiently executed in all relational database systems. In the rest of the paper we describe how to program such transformations. But first we have to describe QUEA in more detail as well as its embedding as DSL in OCaml.

\[\text{http://www.remote-dba.net/t_op_sql_tuning_subqueries.htm}\]

\[\text{http://dev.mysql.com/doc/refman/5.7/en/subquery-restrictions.html}\]

3. Language-integrated query

This section formally introduces the relational query language QUEA and embeds it in OCaml in the typed-final style. QUEA is deliberately not original: it is Cooper’s language without effects typing, and Cheney et al.’s T-LINQ without quotation. We extend it in §7 with aggregates and grouping.

3.1 QUEA, its syntax and semantics

The following figure gives types and terms in QUEA. We use metavariables \(x, y\) for variables, \(c\) for constants, \(t\) for table names in the database, \(\mathcal{T}\) for record labels, \(\mathcal{O}\) for primitive operators (such as arithmetic, comparison, and also \textit{exists})\(\). The sequence \(M_1, \ldots, M_n\) is abbreviated as \(\overline{M}\). Types of \(Q\) are base types, function types, bag types (for multisets), and record types \(\langle T \ : \ A \rangle\) where \(l_1, \ldots, l_n\) are field labels. We say a record type \(\langle T \ : \ A\rangle\) is flat if all \(A_i\) are base types, and similarly for a bag type \(\langle B \ : \ A\rangle\).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Base type} & \quad O ::= \ 
\text{Int} \ | \ 
\text{Bool} \ | \ 
\text{String} \\
\text{Type} & \quad A, B ::= O \ | \ A \to B \ | \ 
\text{Bag} \ A \ | \ \langle T \ : \ A \rangle \\
\text{Term} & \quad L, M, N ::= c \ | \ \overline{M} \ | \ x \ | \ \lambda x. N \ \mid \ L.M \\
& \quad \mid \ (L.M) \ | \ L.T \ | \ for (x \leftarrow M) \ N \ | \ M \ \text{\textit{yield}} \ | \ \text{table}(t) \\
\text{QUEA terms} & \quad \text{are the standard lambda terms with primitive operators and records, plus several primitives:} \\
& \quad \text{for} (x \leftarrow M) \ N \ \text{for bag comprehension,} \\
& \quad M \ \text{\textit{yield}} \ M \ \text{for the singleton bag,} \ \text{[] \ for the empty bag, where} \\
& \quad L.M \ \text{\textit{for the conditional;}} \ \text{table}(t) \ \text{denotes the table with the name} \ t \\
\text{In many databases, tables may only store the values of basic types; therefore, we assume that the input table} \ \text{table}(t) \ \text{has a flat bag type. We can still create and use non-flat records in QUEA, which do not have direct counterparts in SQL queries. However, the transformation in §4 always eliminates non-flat records and bags; namely, we can always transform a QUEA-term of flat bag type into a term which does not use non-flat records and bags.} \\
\text{The operational semantics of QUEA is standard call-by-value with the left-to-right evaluation order for function applications.} \ 
\text{Values} \ V \ \text{are constants, abstractions, records with the value components and} \ V_1, \ldots, V_n, \ \text{which is the abbreviation for} \ \text{yield} \ V_1 \ \cup \ldots \ \cup \text{yield} \ V_n \ \text{\[ for n \geq 0. We assume that} \} \text{associative and commutative.} \\
\text{The reduction relation} \ \rightarrow^* \ \text{is the same as those of T-LINQ modulo notational difference. The map} \ \delta \ \text{gives semantics to each primitive operator, and} \ \Omega \ \text{maps each table name to a value of a flat bag type. Let} \ \rightarrow^* \ \text{be the reflexive and transitive closure of} \ \rightarrow. \ \text{Below is a sample of primitive reduction rules. Appendix A} \\
\text{lists the complete definition.}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{table}(t) & \rightarrow \Omega(t) \\
\text{where true} \ M & \rightarrow M \\
\text{where false} \ M & \rightarrow [] \\
\text{for} (x \leftarrow \text{yield} \ V) \ M & \rightarrow M[x := V] \\
\text{for} (x \leftarrow []) \ M & \rightarrow [] \\
\text{Typing rules, given in the natural-deduction style, are standard; shown below is a representative sample. The complete presentation} \\
\text{is in Appendix A. The typing judgment is of the form} \ M : A \ \text{for a term} \ M \ \text{and a type} \ A \ \text{. The signature} \ \Sigma \ \text{maps constants to base} \\
\text{types, primitive operators to functions on base types, and table names to flat bag types. We assume that} \ \Omega \ \text{and} \ \delta \ \text{are consistent with} \ \Sigma. \ \text{We write} \ x_1 : B_1, \ldots, x_n : B_n \vdash M : A \ \text{if we can derive} \\
M : A \ \text{under the assumptions} x_1 : B_1, \ldots, x_n : B_n. \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{FOR} & \quad [x : A] \\
\text{SINGLETON} & \quad M : A \\
& \quad M : \text{Bag} A \ \text{for} (x \leftarrow M) \ N : \text{Bag} B \\
\text{yield} : \text{Bag} A \\
\text{WHERE} & \quad L : \text{Bool} \\
& \quad M : \text{Bag} A \\
\text{where} \ L.M : \text{Bag} A
\end{align*}
\]
Theorem 1 (Subject reduction). If $\Gamma \vdash M : A$ and $M \rightarrow^{*} N$, then $\Gamma \vdash N : A$.

The proof is not difficult but tedious, as we need a lemma: if $\Gamma_{1} \vdash V : B$ and $\Gamma_{1}, \Gamma_{2}, x : B \vdash M : A$ hold, then $\Gamma_{1}, \Gamma_{2} \vdash M[x := V]$ holds. Our typed-final embedding can be taken as indication or even an automatic proof of this property: see the next section for detail.

3.2 Typed Final Embedding of QUEA

This section describes the embedding of QUEA in the typed final (a.k.a. ‘tagless-final’) approach [16]. We will be using OCaml as the host language; Haskell or Scala, etc. may be used as well (see §8 for more discussion).

The typed final approach does a shallow embedding: for each syntactic form of the embedded language we define an OCaml function that will construct the representation of that form. For example, the function `app` constructs the representation of QUEA applications. These constructor functions are collected in the module, whose interface is often called Symantics since it essentially defines the syntax of the embedded language, and its implementations define the semantics. The interface forQUEA from §3.1 is given below:

```ocaml
module type Symantics = sig
  type α repr
  type int repr = int
  type string repr = string
  type int repr

  val int : int -> int repr
  val bool : bool -> bool repr
  val string : string -> string repr
  val lam : (α repr -> β repr) -> (α -> β) repr
  val app : (unit -> α list repr) -> α list repr
  val foreach : (unit -> α list repr) -> α list repr
  val where : (unit -> α list repr) -> α list repr
  val yield : α repr -> α list repr
  val nil : unit -> α list repr
  val (%): α list repr -> α list repr
  val (¬): α repr -> α repr
  val observe : unit -> α repr
end
```

The interface represents not just the syntax of QUEA (in the form close to BNF), but also its type system. The type of OCaml expressions that represent QUEA terms, typically called `repr`, is indexed by the QUEA’s type. (We take Bag to be a synonym for list.) The type of `foreach` encodes the typing rule FOR, and similarly for the other constructor functions. The embedding has a bit of noise in the form of extra arguments of type unit, to delay the evaluation of conditional branches and to get around the value restriction. We use the symbol % for % for equality test, and % for projection, whose typing is elided for brevity. See our code for more details. The typed final embedding is tight and faithful, representing all and only the typed embedded-language terms. This property holds for our QUEA embedding, as it is easy to see. Ill-typed QUEA terms cannot be encoded; their representation will not type check in OCaml. As a bonus, we use the OCaml type inference to infer QUEA types.

Formally the embedding of QUEA is defined in Appendix C. Here we give a few examples: QUEA’s term $(x. 3 + x)$ of type `Int` is represented as `app (fun x -> add (int 3) x)` (int 5) of type `int repr`. We use Higher-order Abstract Syntax (HOAS) [5, 13, 19] to represent variable bindings, which lets us use OCaml syntax for bindings and, mainly, saves us from programming α-conversions and worrying about variable name clashes. HOAS lets us faithfully encode the natural-deduction style of typing rules. HOAS also has a seemingly fatal drawback of preventing any inspection or optimization of functions bodies, which is overcome in the typed final approach.

Characteristically for the typed-final approach, the representation type `repr` is kept abstract. Different implementations of the Symantics interface will define `repr` in their own ways, but the encoded term cannot know it. The implementation of Symantics is abstracted away: therefore, a QUEA term is represented as an OCaml functor. For example, the query $Q_1$ from our running example §2 is represented in OCaml as follows:

```ocaml
module Q1(S:Symantics) = struct open S
  let res = fun xoid ->
    foreach (fun () -> table_orders) @@ fun o ->
      where ((% x oid) = xoid)
        fun () ->
          yield o
  end
```

Records of QUEA can be implemented in several ways, and we use OCaml objects. Please see Appendix B for details. We rely on the extensibility of the embedding to add the descriptions of tables as constants. The application $Q_2$ then takes the form:

```ocaml
module Q1_2 (S:Symantics) = struct open S
  module M = Q1(S)
  let res = app M.res (int 2)
end
```

It is possible to embed QUEA in OCaml more conveniently, without many spurious `fun ()` and using the familiar operator names like – rather than %. For example, the above query might then look as

```ocaml
module Q1Nicer(S:Symantics) = struct open S
  let res = fun xoid ->
    let o = table_orders_gen () in
    where ((% x oid) = xoid); o
  end
```

Another possible improvement is to use first-class modules, as demonstrated in [17]. For clarity, we use the (painfully) explicit approach for the time being. We plan to investigate the more convenient embedding in future work.

The representation for $Q_3$ is similar. For the composed query $Q_3$ 2 (producing total sales for the given oid) we write

```ocaml
module Q3(S:Symantics) = struct open S
  module M1 = Q1(S)
  module M2 = Q2(S)
  let q3 x = foreach (fun () -> app M1.res x)@@
    fun y -> M2.res y
  let res = app q3 (int 2)
end
```

Once written, a QUEA representation can be interpreted using any implementation of the Symantics signature. There are several. First is a meta-circular interpreter, typically called $\varepsilon$:

```ocaml
module R = struct
  type α repr = α
  let bool b = b
  let string s = s
  let lam f = f
  let app e1 e2 = e1 e2
  let rec foreach tbl f = match tbl () with
    | [] -> []
    | t::rest -> f t @ (foreach (fun () -> rest) f)
  let where p e = if p then e else []
  let yield e = [e]
  let nil () = []
end
```

OCaml’s @@, like Haskell’s $\cdot$, is the low-precedence infix operator for applications.

\footnote{We use `foreach` instead of `for`, since the latter is reserved in OCaml.
let (%! e1 e2 = e1 @ e2)  
let (!% e1 e2 = e1 - e2)  
...  
type α obs = α  
let observe f = f ()
end

A QUEA term of type α is represented by an OCaml term of the same type, and the evaluation of QUEA maps to the evaluation of OCaml. Since OCaml type system (at least of the subset used here) is sound, the R-embedding of QUEA is type-sound. Since the representation type repr is kept abstract, and since the typed-final encoding is tight, it follows that QUEA itself has the property of subject reduction.

To run the query Q1_2 on an in-memory non-SQL database with the needed tables, we evaluate

let module M = Q1_2 (R) in  
M.observe (fun () → M.res)
end

obtaining the result shown in §2. Exactly the same Q1_2 can be run against an SQL database, as we show below. We have used the so far neglected function observe to observe the α repr value as a value of some observation type α obs, which is also kept abstract. The choice of obs hence is also left for a Symantics implementation. In the implementation it is the same as repr but they generally differ as some post-processing is often needed to observe the result (as we will soon see).

Another implementation of the Symantics interface, called F, pretty-prints QUEA terms: using it with Q1:

let module M = Q1 (P) in  
print_endline @@ M.observe (fun () → M.res)
end

prints out the query:

fun x → foreach (fun () → table "orders") (fun y →  
where (y.oid = x) (fun () → yield y))

3.3 Normal QUEA programs

There is another implementation of the Symantics interface, GenSQL, which however works only on normal QUEA programs that produce flat record bags. Normal programs are closed irreducible QUEA terms under the transformation rules in the next section, and its syntax is defined as follows:

Queries  
F ::= U1 ⊔ U2 | [[ ]] | F  
Comprehensions  
F ::= for (x ← table(t)) F | Z  
Body  
Z ::= where B Z | yield R | table(t)  
Record  
R ::= (l = B) | x  
Primitives  
B ::= ⊔ (l) x.1 c

A normal program can be straightforwardly converted to the single SQL query without nested subqueries. For reference, this transformation is described in Appendix D.

For example, the following code that is similar to Q1_2 produces a flat record bag and is in the normal form. Evaluating it with the GenSQL implementation

module Q1’ (S:Symantics) = struct open S  
let res =  
  foreach (fun () → table_orders) @@ fun o →  
  where ((oid o) → % (int 2)) @@ fun () →  
  yield o
end  
let module M = Q1’ (GenSQL) in M.observe (fun () → M.res)
end

first converts the program to SQL – the same SELECT query we saw in §2 for Q1. The function observe in the GenSQL interpretation does the non-trivial work of sending the generated SQL query to the database server and receiving the result (of the type order list GenSQL.obs, which is order list). On the other hand, the program Q3 is not in the normal form and hence cannot be converted to the efficient SQL as it is. It has to be normalized first. That process is described next.

4. Typed-Final Program Transformations

This section briefly describes program transformations in the typed-final style, on an example of bringing in our sample Q2 and Q3 programs to the normal form. For clarity and to save space we describe only a couple of transformations, but we have implemented all the normalization rules of Cheney et al. [4] (listed in Appendix E for reference) as well as extensions in §6, all of which preserve well-typedness and well-scopedness by construction. §5 demonstrates the good performance of the transformations. The general idea of typed-final transformations, independent of the application domain and applicable to Haskell, OCaml, Scala, etc., has been presented elsewhere [15, 17]. The application to language-integrated query described here is the largest so far application of the typed-final optimization method, demonstrating its expressivity.

In the typed-final approach used in the paper, an term of the embedded DSL (EDSL) is represented as a function (functor) that takes an implementation of the Symantics interface. The only thing to do with such a representation is to pass an implementation of Symantics. Therefore, a term transformation has also to be expressed as a Symantics interpreter.

For a running example we use a simple program transformation [] ⊔ N → N. It is the standard constant folding, well-familiar from partial evaluation, which suggests the implementation: annotate each expression with available static information – in our case, if it is statically known to be the empty bag. Let f be some implementation of Symantics and hence α F.repr be the un-annotated representation type. The annotated type then takes the form of the GADT

| α annrepr = | Empty : α list annrepr  
| Unknown : α F.repr → α annrepr

The variant Unknown represents the value about which nothing is statically known. The function

let dyn : α annrepr → α F.repr = function  
| Empty → F.nil ()  
| Unknown x → x

forgets the statically known information and returns the un-annotated term. We now write the implementation of Symantics that interprets QUEA terms in the domain of annotated F representation:

module LN1Nil_preliminary = struct  
type α repr = α annrepr  
let int n = Unknown (F.int n)  
let bool n = Unknown (F.bool n)  
let app x y = Unknown (F.app (dyn y) (dyn x))  
let lam f = Unknown (F.lam (fun x → dyn (f (Unknown x))))
end

...  
let nil () = Empty  
let (%! x y = match x with  
| Empty → y  
| Unknown x → Unknown ((F.%) x (dyn y))
| type α obs = α F.obs  
let observe x = F.observe (fun () → dyn (x ()))
end

As expected, nil creates the statically known empty bag; the interpretation of union looks at the annotation and does constant folding.
The observation function extracts the un-annotated term and observes it. The LNil\_preliminary transformation looks very similar to the simple optimization in [12] (whose development also followed the tagless-final style); one can even relate it to the Kleene’s pairing trick of encoding the predecessor in the lambda-calculus. Our particular form of the annotated term α \_annrepr however enables generalization to the extensible optimization framework [15], illustrated below.

Our sample F implementation is truly arbitrary, therefore, we abstract it. Thus the nil-suppression rule takes the following form

```ocaml
let module M = Q1\_2(LNil(GenSQL))
```

That is, the transformation has the form of a function which takes a Symantics interpreter and produces another Symantics interpreter. To apply it to the sample query Q1\_2 and run the result, we do

```ocaml
let module M = Q1\_2(LNil(GenSQL)) in
M.observe (fun () \rightarrow M.res)
```

One can read this code as doing the transformation LNil and interpreting the result with GenSQL. One can also read it as interpreting the original Q1\_2 term using the transformed interpreter LNil (GenSQL); the inner GenSQL will never see the terms of the form \[ F \mapsto \mathbb{N} \] since they will be normalized away. Thus in the typed-final style, transformations on EDSL terms are written as transformations on their interpreters.

The above LNil function that implemented the trivial nil-suppression rule had to produce the complete implementation of Symantics. Therefore, it had to define how to interpret booleans, integers and all other QUEA expressions in the \_annrepr domain. Only the interpretations of \_\_\_\_ and union did something for normalization; the rest was the boilerplate. One can eliminate the boilerplate arriving at the general transformation framework [15], which is used in the present paper. Incidentally, [15] discusses at length the differences between deep-embedding optimizations (transforming the data type representation) from the typed-final optimizations. One of the main advantages of the latter is modularity: when new differences between deep-embedding optimizations (transforming the type. The annotation relevant for the ForFor type. The ForFor optimization is implemented quite literally, in a couple of lines of code, as the new interpretation of foreach in the interpreter of the annotated terms:

```ocaml
let foreach a b' = match s () with
  | For (Unknown e \rightarrow For (s, b'))
  | For ((s, b) \rightarrow Unknown \_)
    F.foreach (fun () \rightarrow dyn \_\_\_ s () )
    (fun y \rightarrow
      F.foreach (fun () \rightarrow dyn \_\_\_ b (Unknown y))
      (fun x \rightarrow dyn \_\_\_ b' (Unknown x))
```

In our optimization framework, this is essentially all what the programmer has to write to program the optimization. One may wonder however about the side-condition of the ForFor rule: in the result of the transformation, the index variable y of the outer loop must not occur free in the body N of the inner loop. We have done nothing to satisfy that side condition. We did not have to: the higher-order abstract syntax used for representing loop bodies ensures the condition holds at all times, automatically. This is one more example of assuring safety by the very construction.

Composing program transformations is achieved by simply composing the correspondent functors. For example, to compose the five main transformations of [4] we do

```ocaml
let module MainPasses(S:Symantics) = AbsBeta(
  RecordBeta(Foreach(Foreach(Foreach(Foreach(Foreach(ForRecord))))))
)
```

Interpreting our running example Q3 from §2 and §3 using MainPasses (GenSQL) normalizes Q3 to the form shown at the end of §2, from which the efficient, subquery-free SQL is produced.

Since we have implemented all of the transformations of [4], our system has the property guaranteed by Prop. 4 of Cheney et al.’s paper, that is: Applying a sequence of our transformations to a QUEA program of the flat record type eventually produces normal form from which a single, flat SQL statement can be generated.

Our system thus meets its goal. Its performance is addressed next.

5. Performance

This section describes performance of our language-integrated query system, embedding of QUEA into OCaml. The performance has several components: optimizing the user-entered QUEA expression, generating the SQL code, sending it to the database server and executing. First we evaluate the former two contributions. Tab. 1 summarizes the results. The execution environment is MacBook Pro 11,1 with Intel Core i5-4288U CPU; we used bytecode OCaml 4.01.0. The sample query was compose of Cheney et al.[4]. We implemented its transformation in two ways, the first of which is MainPasses in §4 and the second is AllPasses defined as follows.

```ocaml
let module AllPasses(S:Symantics) = AbsBeta(
  RecordBeta(Foreach(Foreach(Foreach(Foreach(Foreach(ForRecord))))))
)
```

The latter applies all transformation rules, while the former applies only rules necessary to normalize the given query.

We also implemented two different iteration policies. The first one iterates the transformation for a given number, set to 10 in this experiment. The other is to iterate the transformation until the given term is in the normal form (NF).

In total, we have four difference cases (two for the order of primitive transformations, two for the policy of iterations). In Tab. 1 the first four lines show the total execution time of the program transformations and SQL generation in our implementation. For the
purpose of comparison, the last line shows the execution time for the program transformation in [4].

Although our typed-final embedding is a proof-of-concept implementation, it runs within a modest time-bound even if we apply all possible transformation rules to the given query, we stop the iteration as soon as the target term becomes a normal form (the second line). If we selectively apply the necessary transformation rules only, it even outperforms the efficient implementation in the literature (the last three lines). We stress that the shown running time is not just the transformation time; it includes the time for generating SQL code.

Compared to the time of executing the query against a database, which typically runs for seconds if not minutes, all optimization and SQL generation steps clearly take negligible time.

The most interesting question is how fast the generated SQL code executes. This question is also difficult to answer as benchmarking database performance is very hard due to a large number of contributing factors. Fortunately, we can reduce this question to an already solved problem. Our Q\(\text{UE}\) system has the same input language as T-LINQ (modulo notational differences between F# and our encoding) – and it generates exactly the same SQL code as T-LINQ does. Therefore, all the extensive empirical evaluation results of running the queries done in the T-LINQ paper [4, §9] apply as they are. We refer the reader to that paper for all detail.

### 6. Extension

This section shows off the extensibility, by adding one small extension: set-based union. The union operation (%|) used before was the multiset union, or UNION ALL in SQL terms. It turns out we can extend the interpreters of Q\(\text{UE}\) with the set-based union operation, to be called (%\(\cup\)).

```fsharp
module type SymanticsS = sig
include Symantics
val (%\(\cup\)) : α list repr → α list repr → α list repr
end
```

The code literally adds a new declaration to the existing set of declarations Symantics, fully reusing the latter.

Next we have to extend the interpreters of Q\(\text{UE}\), to handle the newly added form. The extensions are just as straightforward, fully reusing the existing interpreters as they were. For example, for the interpreter, we write

```fsharp
module RS = struct
include R
let (%\(\cup\)) xs ys =
  List.fold_right (fun x l →
    if List.mem x l then
    else x::l)
  (List.fold_right (fun x y → x%\(\cup\) y) ys) xs
end
```

The existing optimization passes apply to the extended Q\(\text{UE}\) exactly as they were, with no changes. We do need to add new passes that concern the set-based union, for example

```fsharp
for (x ← L %\(\cup\) M) N
for (x ← L) N %\(\cup\) %\(\cup\) for (x ← M) N
```

This rule is programmed similarly to other optimization rules, as described in §4.

That is all we need to use the new feature and normalize queries with its feature.

### 7. Grouping and Aggregation

This section extends Q\(\text{UE}\) post-factum by the group-by clause and aggregate functions, which are frequently used in practice. Adding them to the language-integrated query in a type-safe and efficient way has been a challenge (which we review in §8). We meet the challenge here, also demonstrating that our system is truly extensible: we reuse, as they are, all previously written interpreters and optimization passes.

Our sample query runs against the database in §2 and counts the total sales classified by categories. It can be written in the extended Q\(\text{UE}\) as follows. The corresponding SQL query is shown on the right.

\[
Q_4 = \begin{align*}
\text{for } & \text{(o ← orders) for (p ← products) where } (\text{o.pid = p.pid} \\
& \text{AND } \text{p.price} > 200) \text{ group by } \text{gprice} \text{ having } (\text{sum(p.price} \times \text{o.qty}) > 500) \text{ gyield gprice,} \\
& \text{sum(p.price} \times \text{o.qty}) > 500
\end{align*}
\]

The query \(Q_4\) joins the tables \textit{orders} and \textit{products}, selects the products with the price higher than 200, groups by price, keeps only the groups with sales total higher than 500, and finally lists the price and the sales total. Its result is

\[
[<1000, 55000>, <500, 12500>]
\]

Such a query is very common in practice.

### Table 1. Execution time for the \texttt{compose} query

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AllPasses for 10 times</th>
<th>324.20</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AllPasses until NF</td>
<td>6.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MainPasses for 10 times</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MainPasses until NF</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P-LINQ</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Time in milliseconds.
product of the price and quantity does not have the fixed value. The aggregate function \texttt{sum} aggregates over the inner bag; in our case, it sums up the total sales within each inner bag to the single scalar value. The semantics just explained is intuitive semantics but not compositional: when explaining group we had to refer to the bag produced by the outer \texttt{for} clauses. Describing the semantics in terms of building and enumerating bags also gives a poor guidance to implementors (since it is hard to implement efficiently).

We have designed compositional semantics of grouping and aggregation, which we implemented as an \texttt{R} interpreter and used to run \texttt{Q4}. We cannot describe this semantics here for the lack of space and have to refer the reader to the accompanying source code.

In the rest of the section we explain the type system of \texttt{Q4\textsc{A}}.

The goal of the type system is to statically enforce the restriction on expressions that may appear with \texttt{having} and \texttt{yield} clauses: such expressions may only contain constants, aggregated values, and group keys, and have the fixed value for all records within one group. Here are examples of acceptable expressions:

\begin{verbatim}
gprice, \texttt{sum(o.qty)}, \texttt{sum(p.price)}, \texttt{gprice * sum(o.qty)}, \texttt{sum(p.price * o.qty + weightfactor(p.name))}
\end{verbatim}

An argument of an aggregate function on the other hand may freely mix fixed-value expressions such as group keys with references to ungrouped columns. The last expression above is an example; \texttt{weightfactor} is a user-defined function.

The type system for \texttt{Q4\textsc{A}} uses two new judgments: \( \vdash_A M : A \) and \( \vdash_G M : A \) in addition to the previously introduced one \( \vdash \): \( A \) (here we write \( \vdash A \) to distinguish it from others). The former defines expressions that have the fixed value within a group and are hence acceptable for \texttt{having} and \texttt{yield} clauses. The judgment \( \vdash_G M : A \) is used for typing those clauses, which can only be used within grouping. Fig. 3 shows the new typing rules with the new judgments.

It is now easy to extend the definition of Symantics to accommodate grouping and aggregation. In fact, we developed the other way round: we first implemented Symantics and then formulated the typing rules in Fig. 3. We note that the type system of the host language is very helpful in designing and developing correct typing rules, which is not possible in other formulations. The typed final approach truly helps.

The following code shows the extended Symantics corresponding to the typing rules in Fig. 3.

\begin{verbatim}
module type SymanticsG = sig
  include Symantis

  type \( (\alpha, \beta, \text{'key}) \) gres
  type \( (\alpha, \beta, \text{'groupkeys}, \text{'reskeys}) \) coll

  val group : \( \text{'gk gb_sequence} \rightarrow \text{\'gk gb_key_sequence} \rightarrow (\alpha, \beta, \text{'res}) \) gres
  val guint : int \rightarrow (int, int, constk) gres
  val sum : int \rightarrow (int, int, constk) gres
  val gpair : \( (\alpha, \beta, \text{'k1}) \rightarrow (\beta, \beta, \text{'k2}) \) gres
  val having : \( \text{bool} \rightarrow (\alpha, \beta, \text{'k1}) \rightarrow \) gres
  val gyield : \( (\alpha, \beta, \text{'key}) \rightarrow (\alpha, \beta, \text{'key}) \) gres
end
\end{verbatim}

Figure 3. Typing rules of \texttt{Q4\textsc{A}}

\begin{verbatim}
let products = table("products", products ());
let orders = table("orders", orders ());

let res =
  foreach (fun () \rightarrow orders) \&\& fun p \rightarrow
    foreach (fun () \rightarrow products) \&\& fun p \rightarrow
      where (\{ o \%
        opid \rightarrow %
        (\{ p \%
          price \rightarrow %
          (\{ i \%
            int \rightarrow %
            (\{ k \%
              pid \rightarrow %
              (\{ p \%
                price \rightarrow %
                (\{ p \%
                  price \rightarrow %
                  \text{\&\& fun}) \rightarrow
                    group (seq_one (p \%
                      price \rightarrow %
                      \text{\&\& fun})) \&\& seq_decon
                      (fun gprice \rightarrow
                        having (\{ sum (p \%
                          price \rightarrow %
                          o \%
                          qty \rightarrow %
                          \% g dint 500) \&\& fun}) \rightarrow
                          gyield (gpair gprice
                          (\{ sum (p \%
                            price \rightarrow %
                            \text{\&\& fun})) \rightarrow
                          \end))
\end{verbatim}

This query is complicated, but the type system again helps us to formulate it correctly. Due to lack of space, we refer the reader to the accompanying code for further details.

To repeat, our implementation stands out in supporting grouping and aggregation to the letter of the ANSI SQL standard as well as PostgreSQL extensions: \texttt{GROUPBY} and \texttt{HAVING} clauses may contain arbitrary expressions with the arbitrary mixture of grouped and ungrouped columns. An expression with at least one ungrouped column must be (part of) an argument of an aggregate function. Our type system accepts all and the only queries that satisfy the complex of SQL grouping rules.
8. Related Work

Language-integrated query is an old topic, dating back to [22]. The Nested Relational Calculus (NRC) of Buneman et al. [2] provides the foundation for query languages on comprehension. Cooper presents a strongly normalizing rewriting system for NRC [6]. Cheney et al.’s T-LINQ [4] refines Cooper’s normalization. We use the T-LINQ rules as they are in our system.

The language-integrated query of T-LINQ was designed to understand and improve SQL extensions of F#, and so naturally took advantage of the F# quotation mechanism and Microsoft F# LINQ library. Normalization transformations are implemented on the untyped, first-order representation of their query language. One has to be careful: some rules involve beta-reductions under binders, so one has to be sure to do alpha-conversion to avoid variable capture. Although theoretically trivial, such operations are tedious and a source of subtle bugs. Correctness, including type preservation, confluence and termination, have all been proven – offline. Since nothing is assured by construction, upon modification of the rules or the language, the proofs have to be reworked.

Our approach does not use any language-specific meta-programming facilities (quotations, etc). Although implemented in OCaml, it can easily be ported to Haskell or Scala, for example.

HRR [11] and Opaleye [9] (and the older and less capable HaskellDB [18] and others) are meant for industrial-scale applications and support a very large subset of SQL. (It is not clear if they support all of the GROUPBY facility as mandated by the SQL standard.) Queries are composable; however, they result in SQL with (sometimes, very many) nested SELECT statements, which is known to be suboptimal. The author of Opaleye does consider this to be weakness and intends to redress it at some point.

Some functional language systems natively support type-safe SQL queries: for example, Ohori et al.’s SML# [20] and Cooper et al.’s early version of Links [7]. Composing SQL statements is either not allowed (SML#) or leads to the query avalanche problem.

Rompf and Amin [21] describe compiling simple SQL queries to the very efficient C by a sequence of small transformations, ultimately realizing one of the Holy Grails of partial evaluation: obtaining an efficient compiler by specializing an interpreter to the program. Their paper is another good illustration of Lightweight Modular Staging (LMS). Whereas in Rompf and Amin’s approach, SQL is the input, we take SQL as the output of our transformation chain, relaying on the off-the-shelf data base engines for its execution.

Peyton Jones and Wadler [14] proposed an extension of list comprehensions of Haskell to be called ComCom, inspired by SQL’s GROUP BY and ORDER BY. It has an elegant design going beyond SQL in generality (for example, getting group-by to compute running average). Also, Haskell list comprehensions do not have to produce flat list of base-type tuples; nested lists are easily possible. For these reasons, ComCom comprehensions cannot be translated to SQL. Although more general than SQL, ComCom is also, unexpectedly, less expressive than SQL. Furthermore, the errors that database systems typically catch when compiling a SQL statement and we prevent using types, are detected by ComCom only at run-time. Concomitant with the weak typing is the loss of efficiency.

Peyton Jones and Wadler’s design has a surprising and unique (as the paper itself calls) feature – implicit re-binding of variables, which changes their types. For example, the following SQL query against the table employees :: [(Name, Dept, Float)]

\[
\text{SELECT \text{dept, sum(salary)} FROM employees GROUP BY \text{dept}}
\]

is represented by the following comprehension:

\[
\text{[ (the dept, sum salary)}
\]

is partial. The expression the dept succeeds since dept is a list of identical values because it is a group key. However, the salary fails since the ungrouped salary is in general the list of distinct values. Because of this typing flaw, the function the has to compare all list values, every time it is applied.

The implicit re-binding also prevents realizing valid SQL statements such as

\[
\text{SELECT \text{dept, SUM(salary)} FROM employees GROUP BY \text{dept}}
\]

HAVING SUM (deptweight(dept) * salary) > 2000

Assume deptweight is a SQL function that assigns a weight factor to a dept. Its straightforward translation to the comprehension

\[
\text{[ (the dept, the salary)}
\]

\[
\text{| (name, dept, salary) <- employees , group by dept, sum (deptweight(dept) * salary) > 2000 |}
\]

is ill-typed since group implicitly rebound dept to the type [Dept] which cannot then be passed to the deptweight : Dept -> Float function.

Our QUEA is unique in fully matching the SQL behavior, accepting compilable SQL statements and statically rejecting invalid statements with a type error.

Typed final, or tagless-final style is introduced in [3] and further described in [16]. The former paper has the extensive comparison with the related work in this area, to which the latter adds the discussion of Böhm-Berarducci encodings of data types [1]. Unlike the tagless-final representation, Böhm-Berarducci encodings are defined only for strictly positive data types, and, mainly, are not extensible. Tagless-final style was recently applied to OO languages, under the name of object algebras [8].

This paper described the tagless-final embedding of QUEA into OCaml. We could have just as well used Haskell or Scala as host languages. In fact, we have performed a small experiment with the Haskell embedding [15]. Haskell classes made the encoding lightweight compared to OCaml modules. On the other hand, in

\[\text{SELECT \text{dept, salary FROM employees GROUP BY dept}}\]

with the following comprehension:

\[
\text{[ (the dept, the salary)}
\]

is partial. The expression the dept succeeds since dept is a list of identical values because it is a group key. However, the salary fails since the ungrouped salary is in general the list of distinct values. Because of this typing flaw, the function the has to compare all list values, every time it is applied.

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OCaml we relied on the `include` mechanism to program optimizations by reusing the code for the identity transformation and overriding a couple of definitions. Haskell does not support that sort of code reuse among type classes. Therefore, programming tagless-final transformation in Haskell has quite a bit of boilerplate.

9. Conclusion and Future work

Building high-performance, practical applications and tools is hard because performance is often at odds with features that make programming manageable: early error detection, abstracting away micromanagement and boilerplate, reusing previously developed and tested components in new and bigger ones. We faced two such hard trade-offs in this paper: First, tagless-final approach with higher-order abstract syntax makes embedding of higher-order typed languages as simple as it can probably be, offering extensibility, ensuring well-typedness and hygiene by construction and taking advantage of the host language type checker to check and even infer embedded language types. On the other hand, such embedding was considered to be impossible to optimize. On the application side, language-integrated queries are composable and reusable, with good error detection, thanks to the host language type system. On the other hand, it is very hard to generate efficient SQL to communicate with mature high-performance database engines.

In this paper we overcome both trade-offs. We show that optimizing tagless-final embedded languages is not only possible but advantageous. Optimization rules are also well-typed and type- and scope-preserving by construction. The rules can be reused even in face of extensions to the language. Optimizations rules may be arbitrarily assembled into optimization pipelines; a programmer may easily reassemble the pipeline or add previously or newly written passes to account for peculiarities of database engines or domain-specific knowledge (e.g., presence or importance of NULLs).

We have not only shown the general framework for embedding and optimizing DSL, but also applied it to language-integrated queries. We implemented all optimization rules proposed in the earlier work by Cooper and Cheney et al. and thus are able to generate efficient SQL. Taking advantage of the extensibility of the framework we extended the language and the optimizations to the complete SQL grouping and aggregation behavior. Our implementation of the meta-circular interpreter can be seen a first formal semantics of this facility.

In the future work, we plan to investigate more convenient, comprehension-like surface syntax, demonstrated in §3. We would also like to automatically generate QUESTA’s table types from database schema.

Acknowledgments.

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References
A. Operational Semantics and Typing of QUEL

We define operational semantics in Fig. 4 and 5, and typing rules in Fig. 6. Recall that \([V_1, \ldots, V_n]\) is an abbreviated expression for \(\text{yield } V_1 \cup \cdots \cup \text{yield } V_n \cup \emptyset\).

Value

\[
V \ ::= \ c | \lambda x. M | (\langle l = V \rangle) | [V_1, \cdots, V_n]
\]

Evaluation context

\[
\mathcal{E} \ ::= \ [ ] | \delta(\mathcal{V}) | \mathcal{E} M | V \mathcal{E}
\]

\[
\mathcal{E} \uplus M | V \uplus \mathcal{E} | \text{for } (x \leftarrow \mathcal{E}) \ N
\]

\[
\text{where } \mathcal{E} M \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{E} \text{ where false } M
\]

\[
\text{for } (x \leftarrow \text{yield } V) \ M \quad \text{for } (x \leftarrow [ ]) \ M
\]

\[
\text{for } (x \leftarrow L \not\equiv M) \ N
\]

\[
\mathcal{E}[M] \rightarrow \mathcal{E}[N] \quad (\text{E-Context})
\]

\[
\oplus(\mathcal{V}) \rightarrow \delta(\oplus(\mathcal{V}))
\]

\[
\text{table}(t) \rightarrow \Omega(t)
\]

\[
(\lambda x. M) \ V \rightarrow M[x := V]
\]

\[
\langle l = V \rangle, l_i \rightarrow V_i
\]

\[
\text{where true } M \rightarrow M
\]

\[
\text{where false } M \rightarrow [ ]
\]

\[
\text{for } (x \leftarrow \text{yield } V) \ M \rightarrow [ ]
\]

\[
\text{for } (x \leftarrow [ ]) \ M \rightarrow [ ]
\]

\[
\text{for } (x \leftarrow L \not\equiv M) \ N \rightarrow (\text{for } (x \leftarrow L) \ N) \oplus (\text{for } (x \leftarrow M) \ N)
\]

\[
M \rightarrow N
\]

\[
\mathcal{E}[M] \rightarrow \mathcal{E}[N] \quad (\text{E-Context})
\]

\[
\text{Figure 4. Values and Evaluation Contexts}
\]

The map \(\delta\) gives semantics to each primitive operator, and \(\Omega\) maps each table name to a value of a flat bag type.

We assume that \(\Omega\) and \(\delta\) in the previous subsection are consistent with \(\Sigma\); for each table \(\Omega(t)\) is assumed to be a value of type \(\Sigma(t)\), and \(\delta\) respect types: if \(\Sigma(t) = \mathcal{O} \rightarrow O\) and \(\Gamma \vdash V : \mathcal{O}\) then \(\Gamma \vdash V : O\).

B. Encoding Schemata and Records

We briefly mention how we encoded database schemata and records.

To encode records in the object language, we use objects in OCaml. Record construction is encoded as a function which creates an object, and record projection is encoded as a function that takes a record (encoded as an object) and returns its field value. A database schema is then encoded as a signature for these functions. Fig. 7 is an example schema encoded as a signature.

To use the signature for a schema, we extend a standard Symantics with the schema as follows.

\[
\text{module type } \text{SCHEMA} = \text{sig}
\]

\[
\text{type } \alpha \text{ repr}
\]

\[
\text{(* record constructors *)}
\]

\[
\text{val product : int repr \rightarrow string repr \rightarrow}<\text{pid:int; name:string; price:int}>\text{ repr}
\]

\[
\text{...}
\]

\[
\text{(* projection *)}
\]

\[
\text{val name : <pid:int; name:string; price:int> \rightarrow \text{int repr}}
\]

\[
\text{val price: <pid:int; name:string; price:int> \rightarrow \text{string repr}}
\]

\[
\text{...}
\]

\[
\text{(* data sources *)}
\]

\[
\text{val products : unit \rightarrow <\text{pid:int; name:string; price:int}> list}
\]

\[
\text{...}
\]

\[
\text{end}
\]

\[
\text{Figure 7. An Example Schema as a Signature}
\]

C. Embedding the Object Language

Fig. 8 defines the embedding function \(\mathcal{M}\) that maps the terms and types in the object language into those in the metalanguage.

\(<\Gamma : A T>\) is the type for objects in OCaml. The function \(\text{const}_O\) maps constants in the object language to OCaml constants of type

\[
\text{const}_O
\]

\[
\text{OP}
\]

\[
\Sigma(c) = O_1 \times \cdots \times O_n \rightarrow O
\]

\[
\text{M_i : O_i (for each 1 \leq i \leq n)}
\]

\[
\oplus(\mathcal{M}) : O
\]

\[
\text{ABS}
\]

\[
[x : A]
\]

\[
\text{APP}
\]

\[
L : A \rightarrow B \quad M : A
\]

\[
L M : B
\]

\[
\text{RECORD}
\]

\[
M_i : A_i (for each1 \leq i \leq n)
\]

\[
\text{PROJECT}
\]

\[
M : \Gamma : A
\]

\[
\text{EMPTY}
\]

\[
\text{yield } M : \text{Bag } A
\]

\[
\text{UNIONALL}
\]

\[
M : \text{Bag } A \quad N : \text{Bag } A
\]

\[
M \uplus N : \text{Bag } A
\]

\[
\text{TABLE}
\]

\[
\Sigma(t) = \text{Bag } \Gamma : O
\]

\[
\text{table}(t) : \text{Bag } \Gamma : O
\]

\[
\text{FOR}
\]

\[
[x : A]
\]

\[
\text{WHERE}
\]

\[
L : \text{Bool } M : \text{Bag } A
\]

\[
\text{for } (x \leftarrow M) N : \text{Bag } B
\]

\[
\text{where } L M : \text{Bag } A
\]

\[
\text{Figure 6. Typing rules}
\]

In this paper, we implicitly assumed that we use this extended signature as a Symantics. Interpreters are similarly extended.
\[ M[A] = A^* \]  
\[ \text{Int} = \text{int} \]  
\[ \text{Bool} = \text{bool} \]  
\[ \text{String} = \text{string} \]  
\[ (A \rightarrow B)^* = A^* \rightarrow B^* \]  
\[ (\text{Bag} A)^* = A^* \text{ list} \]  
\[ (l : A)^* = \langle l, A \rangle^* \]  
\[ M[x] = x \]  
\[ M[c] = \text{const}_O(c) \]  
\[ M[\emptyset(M)] = \emptyset M[\emptyset(M)] \]  
\[ M[L M] = \text{app} M[L] M[M] \]  
\[ M[\lambda x. N] = \text{lam} (\text{fun } x \rightarrow M[N]) \]  
\[ M[(l = M)] = \text{record}_l(M[M]) \]  
\[ M[L l] = M[L] \% l \]  
\[ M[\text{foreach } (\text{fun } () \rightarrow M[M])] = \text{where } (M[L]) \]  
\[ (\text{fun } x \rightarrow M[N]) \]  
\[ M[\text{yield } M] = \text{yield } M[M] \]  
\[ M[\text{nil } ()] = \text{nil } () \]  
\[ M[\text{table}(t)] = \text{table}(t, \Omega(t)) \]  

Figure 8. Embedding QUEA into OCaml

O. We assume that \text{record}_l builds OCaml objects with labels \text{l}, such as \text{products} in Fig. 7.%, is record projection for the label \text{l}.

D. Generating SQL

After applying transformations to a given closed query of flat bag type, we will get its normal form, which is then translated to a SQL query. Fig. 9 shows Cooper’s translation for this last step where \( \phi \) denotes an empty database table. We list it here for completeness.

\[ S[U_1 \cup U_2] = S[U_1] \text{ UNION ALL } S[U_2] \]
\[ S[\emptyset] = \text{SELECT } \text{null } \text{ AS T FROM } \phi \text{ WHERE FALSE} \]
\[ S[F] = \text{SELECT } e \text{ AS T FROM } s \text{ AS } x, y \text{ AS } u \text{ WHERE } B \]
where \( F = \text{for } (x \leftarrow \text{table}(s)) F' \)  
and \( S[F'] = (\text{SELECT } e \text{ AS T FROM } i \text{ AS } y \text{ WHERE } B) \)
\[ S[\text{where } B Z] = \text{SELECT } e \text{ AS T FROM } i \text{ WHERE } B' \land S[B] \]
where \( S[Z] = (\text{SELECT } e \text{ AS T FROM } i \text{ WHERE } B') \)
\[ S[\text{table}(s)] = \text{SELECT } s \text{ AS T FROM } s \text{ WHERE } \text{TRUE} \]
\[ S[\text{yield } R] = \text{SELECT } S[R] \text{ FROM } \phi \text{ WHERE } \text{TRUE} \]
\[ S[\langle i = T \rangle] = S[T] \text{ AS T} \]
\[ S[\exists U] = \text{EXISTS}(S[U]) \]
\[ S[\emptyset(T)] = \emptyset \text{ AS T} \]
\[ S[x.l] = x.\text{l} \]
\[ S[x] = x.\text{*} \]
\[ S[c] = c \]

Figure 9. SQL Translation

Stage 1:
\[ (\lambda x. N) M \rightarrow N[x := M] \]  
(\text{Abs-}\beta)
\[ \{ l = M \}_i \rightarrow M_i \]  
(\text{Record-}\beta)
\[ \text{for } (x \leftarrow \text{yield } M) N \rightarrow N[x := M] \]  
(\text{ForYield})
\[ \text{for } (x \leftarrow (y \leftarrow L) M) N \rightarrow \]  
\[ \text{for } (y \leftarrow L) (\text{for } (x \leftarrow M) N) \]  
(\text{ForFor})
\[ \text{if } y \notin \text{FV}(N) \]
\[ \text{for } (x \leftarrow \text{where } L M) N \rightarrow \]  
\[ \text{where } L \text{ for } (x \leftarrow M) N \]  
(\text{ForWhere1})
\[ \text{for } (x \leftarrow []) N \rightarrow [] \]  
(\text{ForEmpty1})
\[ \text{for } (x \leftarrow L \cap M) N \rightarrow \]  
\[ \text{for } (x \leftarrow L) N \text{ or } (x \leftarrow M) N \]  
(\text{ForUnionAll1})
\[ \text{where } \text{true } M \rightarrow M \]  
(\text{WhereTrue})
\[ \text{where } \text{false } M \rightarrow [] \]  
(\text{WhereFalse})

Stage 2:
\[ \text{for } (x \leftarrow L) (M \lor N) \rightarrow \]  
\[ \text{for } (x \leftarrow L) M \lor \text{for } (x \leftarrow L) N \]  
(\text{ForUnionAll2})
\[ \text{for } (x \leftarrow M) [] \rightarrow [] \]  
(\text{ForEmpty2})
\[ \text{where } L \text{ for } (x \leftarrow M) N \rightarrow \]  
\[ \text{where } L \text{ or } (\text{where } L N \lor (\text{where } L M)) \]  
(\text{WhereUnion})
\[ \text{where } L [] \rightarrow [] \]  
(\text{WhereEmpty})
\[ \text{where } L \text{ for } (x \leftarrow M) N \rightarrow \]  
\[ \text{where } (L \land M) N \]  
(\text{WhereWhere})
\[ \text{for } (x \leftarrow M) \text{ for } (x \leftarrow L) N \rightarrow \]  
(\text{WhereFor})

Figure 10. Normalization rules

E. Normalization rules

Fig. 10 lists the normalization rules by Cheney et al.’s T-LINQ. We have implemented all these rules as typed final program transformations.