

The Data Cube as a Typed Linear Algebra Operator

DBPL 2017 — 16th Symp. on DB Prog. Lang.

Technische Universität München (TUM), 1st Sep 2017

(Also: 38th INFOBLENDER SEMINAR, HASLab, 27th Sep 2017)

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DBPL 2017



The 16th International Symposium on Database Programming Languages (DBPL 2017)

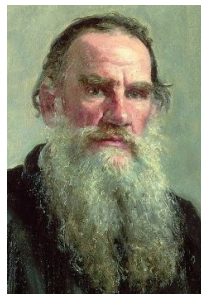
will be held in conjunction with [VLDB 2017](#)
on **September 1st, 2017**, in Munich, Germany.



Motivation

*“Only by taking infinitesimally small units for observation (the **differential** of history, that is, the individual tendencies of men) and attaining to the art of **integrating** them (that is, finding the sum of these infinitesimals) can we hope to arrive at the laws of history.”*

Leo Tolstoy, “War and Peace”
- Book XI, Chap.II (1869)



L. Tolstoy (1828–1910)

150 years later, this is what we are trying to attain through **data-mining**.

But — how fit are our **maths** for the task?

Have we attained the “**art of integration**”?

Motivation



Since the early days of psychometrics in the **social sciences** (1970s), **linear algebra** (LA) has been central to data analysis (e.g. tensor decompositions etc)

We follow this trend but in a **typed** way, merging **LA** with polymorphic **type systems**, over a categorial basis.

We address a concrete example: that of studying the maths behind a well-known device in data analysis, the **data cube** construction.

We will define this construction as a **polymorphic LA** operator.

Typing **linear algebra** is proposed as a strategy for achieving such an “**art of integration**”.



Running example

Raw data:

| | # | Model | Year | Color | Sale |
|-------|---|-------|------|-------|------|
| | 1 | Chevy | 1990 | Red | 5 |
| | 2 | Chevy | 1990 | Blue | 87 |
| $t =$ | 3 | Ford | 1990 | Green | 64 |
| | 4 | Ford | 1990 | Blue | 99 |
| | 5 | Ford | 1991 | Red | 8 |
| | 6 | Ford | 1991 | Blue | 7 |

Rows — records (n -many) — the *infinitesimals*

Columns — attributes — the *observables*

Column-orientation — each column (attribute) A represented by a function $t_A : n \rightarrow A$ such that $a = t_A(i)$ means “ a is the value of attribute A in record nr i ”.



Records are tuples

Can records be rebuilt from such **attribute projection** functions?

Yes — by **tupling** them.

Tupling: Given functions $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : A \rightarrow C$, their tupling is the function $f \nabla g$ such that

$$(f \nabla g) a = (f a, g a)$$

For instance,

$$(t_{Color} \nabla t_{Model}) 2 = (Blue, Chevy),$$

$$(t_{Year} \nabla (t_{Color} \nabla t_{Model})) 3 = (1990, (Green, Ford))$$

and so on.



Inverting tuples

For the column-oriented model to work one will need to express *joins*, and these call for “inverse” functions, e.g.

$$(t_{Model} \nabla t_{Year})^\circ (Ford, 1990) = \{3, 4\}$$

meaning that tuples nr 3 and nr 4 have the same model (*Ford*) and year (*1990*).

However, the type $f^\circ : A \rightarrow \mathcal{P} n$ is rather annoying, as it involves **sets** of tuple indices — these will add an extra layer of complexity.

Fortunately, there is a simpler way — **typed linear algebra**, also known as **linear algebra of programming (LAoP)**.



The LAoP approach

Represent functions by Boolean matrices:

Given (finite) types A and B , any function

$$f : A \rightarrow B$$

can be represented by a matrix $\llbracket f \rrbracket$ with A -many columns and B -many rows such that, for any $b \in B$ and $a \in A$, the (b, a) -matrix-cell is

$$b \llbracket f \rrbracket a = \begin{cases} 1 & \Leftarrow b = f a \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

NB: Following the **infix** notation usually adopted for relations (which are Boolean matrices) — for instance $y \leq x$ — we write $y M x$ to denote the contents of the cell in matrix M addressed by row y and column x .



The LAoP approach

One projection function (matrix) per **dimension** attribute:

| | | | | | | |
|-------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| t_{Model} | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| Chevy | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Ford | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

| | | | | | | |
|------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| t_{Year} | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 1990 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1991 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |

| | | | | | | |
|-------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| t_{Color} | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| Blue | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Green | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Red | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |

| # | Model | Year | Color | Sale |
|---|-------|------|-------|------|
| 1 | Chevy | 1990 | Red | 5 |
| 2 | Chevy | 1990 | Blue | 87 |
| 3 | Ford | 1990 | Green | 64 |
| 4 | Ford | 1990 | Blue | 99 |
| 5 | Ford | 1991 | Red | 8 |
| 6 | Ford | 1991 | Blue | 7 |

NB: we tend to abbreviate $\llbracket f \rrbracket$ by f when the context is clear.



The LAoP approach

Note how the inverse of a function is also represented by a Boolean matrix, e.g.

| t_{Model}° | Chevy | Ford |
|---------------------|-------|------|
| 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 3 | 0 | 1 |
| 4 | 0 | 1 |
| 5 | 0 | 1 |
| 6 | 0 | 1 |

versus

| t_{Model} | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|-------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Chevy | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Ford | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

— no need for powersets.

Clearly,

$$j t_{Model}^{\circ} a = a t_{Model} j$$

Given a matrix M , M° is known as the **transposition** of M .



The LAoP approach

We **type** matrices in the same way as functions: $M : A \rightarrow B$ means a matrix M with A -many columns and B -many rows.

Matrices are arrows: $A \xrightarrow{M} B$ denotes a matrix from A (source) to B (target), where A, B are (finite) types.

Writing $B \xleftarrow{M} A$ means the same as $A \xrightarrow{M} B$.

Composition — *aka* matrix multiplication:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 B & \xleftarrow{M} & A & \xleftarrow{N} & C \\
 & \searrow & \swarrow & \searrow & \\
 & & M \cdot N & &
 \end{array}$$

$$b(M \cdot N)c = \langle \sum a :: (b M a) \times (a N c) \rangle$$



The LAoP approach

Function composition implemented by matrix multiplication,

$$[[f \cdot g]] = [[f]] \cdot [[g]]$$

Identity — the identity matrix *id* corresponds to the identity function and is such that

$$M \cdot id = M = id \cdot M \tag{1}$$

Function tupling corresponds to the so-called **Khatri-Rao product** $M \nabla N$ defined index-wise by

$$(b, c) (M \nabla N) a = (b M a) \times (c N a) \tag{2}$$

Khatri-Rao is a “column-wise” version of the well-known **Kronecker product** $M \otimes N$:

$$(y, x) (M \otimes N) (b, a) = (y M b) \times (x N a) \tag{3}$$



Typing data

The raw data given above is represented in the LAoP by the expression

$$v = (t_{Year} \nabla (t_{Color} \nabla t_{Model})) \cdot (t^{Sale})^\circ$$

of type

$$v : 1 \rightarrow (Year \times (Color \times Model))$$

depicted aside.

| Year x (Color x Model) | | | ALL |
|------------------------|-------|-------|-----|
| 1990 | Blue | Chevy | 87 |
| | | Ford | 99 |
| | Green | Chevy | 0 |
| | | Ford | 64 |
| | Red | Chevy | 5 |
| | | Ford | 0 |
| 1991 | Blue | Chevy | 0 |
| | | Ford | 7 |
| | Green | Chevy | 0 |
| | | Ford | 0 |
| | Red | Chevy | 0 |
| | | Ford | 8 |

v is a **multi-dimensional** column vector — a **tensor**. Datatype $1 = \{ALL\}$ is the so-called **singleton** type.



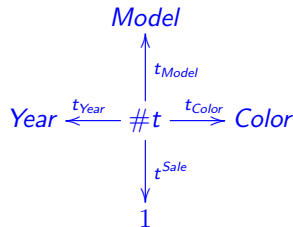
Dimensions and measures

Sale is a special kind of data — a **measure**. Measures are encoded as **row** vectors, e.g.

| | | | | | | |
|------------|---|----|----|----|---|---|
| t^{Sale} | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 1 | 5 | 87 | 64 | 99 | 8 | 7 |

recall

| # | Model | Year | Color | Sale |
|---|-------|------|-------|------|
| 1 | Chevy | 1990 | Red | 5 |
| 2 | Chevy | 1990 | Blue | 87 |
| 3 | Ford | 1990 | Green | 64 |
| 4 | Ford | 1990 | Blue | 99 |
| 5 | Ford | 1991 | Red | 8 |
| 6 | Ford | 1991 | Blue | 7 |



Summary:
dimensions are
matrices, **measures**
 are **vectors**.

Measures provide for **integration** in Tolstoy's sense — *aka consolidation*



Totalisers

There is a unique function in type $A \rightarrow 1$, usually named $A \xrightarrow{!} 1$. This corresponds to a row vector wholly filled with 1s.

Example: $2 \xrightarrow{!} 1 = [1 \ 1]$

Given $M : B \rightarrow A$, the expression $! \cdot M$ (where $A \xrightarrow{!} 1$) is the row vector (of type $B \rightarrow 1$) that contains all column **totals** of M ,

$$[1 \ 1] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 50 & 40 & 85 & 115 \\ 50 & 10 & 85 & 75 \end{bmatrix} = [100 \ 50 \ 170 \ 190]$$

Given type A , define its **totalizer** matrix $A \xrightarrow{\tau_A} A + 1$ by

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_A & : A \rightarrow A + 1 \\ \tau_A & = \begin{bmatrix} id \\ ! \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

Thus $\tau_A \cdot M$ yields a copy of M on top of the corresponding totals.



Cubes

Data **cubes** are easily obtained from products of totalizers.

Recall the Kronecker (tensor) product $M \otimes N$ of two matrices:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 A & C & A \times C \\
 M \downarrow & N \downarrow & \downarrow \\
 B & D & M \otimes N \downarrow \\
 & & B \times D
 \end{array}$$

The matrix

$$A \times B \xrightarrow{\tau_A \otimes \tau_B} (A + 1) \times (B + 1)$$

provides for totalization on the **two dimensions** A and B .

Indeed, type $(A + 1) \times (B + 1)$ is isomorphic to $A \times B + A + B + 1$, whose four parcels represent the four elements of the “**dimension powerset** of $\{A, B\}$ ”.

Cube = multi-dimensional totalisation



Recalling

$$v = (t_{Year} \nabla (t_{Color} \nabla t_{Model})) \cdot (t^{Sale})^\circ$$

we build

$$c = (\tau_{Year} \otimes (\tau_{Color} \otimes \tau_{Model})) \cdot v$$

This is the multidimensional vector (tensor) representing the **data cube** for

- **dimensions** *Year*, *Color*, *Model*
- **measure** *Sale*

depicted aside.

| (Year+1) x ((Color+1) x (Model+1)) | | | ALL |
|------------------------------------|-------|-------|-----|
| 1990 | Blue | Chevy | 87 |
| | | Ford | 99 |
| | | ALL | 186 |
| | Green | Chevy | 0 |
| | | Ford | 64 |
| | | ALL | 64 |
| | Red | Chevy | 5 |
| | | Ford | 0 |
| | | ALL | 5 |
| | ALL | Chevy | 92 |
| | | Ford | 163 |
| | | ALL | 255 |
| 1991 | Blue | Chevy | 0 |
| | | Ford | 7 |
| | | ALL | 7 |
| | Green | Chevy | 0 |
| | | Ford | 0 |
| | | ALL | 0 |
| | Red | Chevy | 0 |
| | | Ford | 8 |
| | | ALL | 8 |
| | ALL | Chevy | 0 |
| | | Ford | 15 |
| | | ALL | 15 |
| ALL | Blue | Chevy | 87 |
| | | Ford | 106 |
| | | ALL | 193 |
| | Green | Chevy | 0 |
| | | Ford | 64 |
| | | ALL | 64 |
| | Red | Chevy | 5 |
| | | Ford | 8 |
| | | ALL | 13 |
| | ALL | Chevy | 92 |
| | | Ford | 178 |
| | | ALL | 270 |



Totalisers yield cubes

Thanks to **\times -absorption**

$$(M \otimes N) \cdot (P \nabla Q) = (M \cdot P) \nabla (N \cdot Q) \quad (6)$$

we can simplify the definition:

$$\begin{aligned} c &= (\tau_{Year} \otimes (\tau_{Color} \otimes \tau_{Model})) \cdot v \\ &= \{ v = (t_{Year} \nabla (t_{Color} \nabla t_{Model})) \cdot (t^{Sale})^\circ \} \\ & \quad (\tau_{Year} \otimes (\tau_{Color} \otimes \tau_{Model})) \cdot (t_{Year} \nabla (t_{Color} \nabla t_{Model})) \cdot (t^{Sale})^\circ \\ &= \{ \text{absorption-law (6)} \} \\ & \quad ((\tau_{Year} \cdot t_{Year}) \nabla ((\tau_{Color} \cdot t_{Color}) \nabla ((\tau_{Model} \cdot t_{Model})))) \cdot (t^{Sale})^\circ \\ &= \{ \text{define } t'_A = \tau_A \cdot t_A \} \\ & \quad (t'_{Year} \nabla (t'_{Color} \nabla t'_{Model})) \cdot (t^{Sale})^\circ \end{aligned}$$

Note that $t'_A = \begin{bmatrix} t_A \\ \tau_A \end{bmatrix}$, since t_A is a function.



Generalizing data cubes

In our approach a **cube** is not necessarily one such column vector.

The key to **generic** data cubes is (generalized) **vectorization**, a kind of “**matrix currying**”: given $A \times B \xrightarrow{M} C$ with $A \times B$ -many columns and C -many rows, reshape M into its **vectorized** version $B \xrightarrow{\text{vec}_A M} A \times C$ with B -many columns and $A \times C$ -many rows.

Such matrices, M and $\text{vec}_A M$, are **isomorphic** in the sense that they contain the same information in different formats, cf

$$c M(a, b) = (a, c) (\text{vec}_A M) b \quad (7)$$

which holds for every a, b, c .



Generalizing data cubes

Vectorization thus has an inverse operation — **unvectorization**:

$$A \times B \rightarrow C \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{\text{vec}_A} \\ \cong \\ \xleftarrow{\text{unvec}_A} \end{array} B \rightarrow A \times C$$

That is, M can be retrieved back from $\text{vec}_A M$ by unvectorizing it:

$$N = \text{vec}_A M \Leftrightarrow \text{unvec}_A N = M \quad (8)$$

Vectorization has a rich algebra, e.g. a **fusion**-law

$$(\text{vec } M) \cdot N = \text{vec } (M \cdot (\text{id} \otimes N)) \quad (9)$$

and an **absorption**-law:

$$\text{vec } (M \cdot N) = (\text{id} \otimes M) \cdot \text{vec } N \quad (10)$$



(Un)vectorization

Let us unvectorize our starting (data) tensor, across dimension *Year*:

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \text{Year} \times (\text{Color} \times \text{Model}) \longleftarrow 1 \\
 \\
 \text{unvec}_{\text{Year}} \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{ALL} \\ \hline \text{1990} \quad \text{Blue} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Chevy} \quad 87 \\ \text{Ford} \quad 99 \end{array} \\ \hline \text{Green} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Chevy} \quad 0 \\ \text{Ford} \quad 64 \end{array} \\ \hline \text{Red} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Chevy} \quad 5 \\ \text{Ford} \quad 0 \end{array} \\ \hline \text{1991} \quad \text{Blue} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Chevy} \quad 0 \\ \text{Ford} \quad 7 \end{array} \\ \hline \text{Green} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Chevy} \quad 0 \\ \text{Ford} \quad 0 \end{array} \\ \hline \text{Red} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Chevy} \quad 0 \\ \text{Ford} \quad 8 \end{array} \end{array} \right) \\
 \\
 = \begin{array}{c} \text{Color} \times \text{Model} \longleftarrow \text{Year} \\ \\ \begin{array}{c} \hline \text{Blue} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Chevy} \quad 87 \\ \text{Ford} \quad 99 \end{array} \\ \hline \text{Green} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Chevy} \quad 0 \\ \text{Ford} \quad 64 \end{array} \\ \hline \text{Red} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Chevy} \quad 5 \\ \text{Ford} \quad 0 \end{array} \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \text{1990} \quad \text{1991} \\ \hline \text{Chevy} \quad 87 \quad 0 \\ \hline \text{Ford} \quad 99 \quad 7 \\ \hline \text{Chevy} \quad 0 \quad 0 \\ \hline \text{Ford} \quad 64 \quad 0 \\ \hline \text{Chevy} \quad 5 \quad 0 \\ \hline \text{Ford} \quad 0 \quad 8 \end{array} \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

There is room for further unvectorizing the outcome, this time across *Color* — next slide:



(De)vectorization

Further unvectorization:

$$\text{unvec}_{\text{Color}} \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Color} \times \text{Model} \longleftarrow \text{Year} \\ \hline \begin{array}{cc} & \begin{array}{cc} & 1990 & 1991 \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \text{Blue} \\ \hline \text{Green} \\ \hline \text{Red} \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} \text{Chevy} \\ \text{Ford} \\ \hline \text{Chevy} \\ \text{Ford} \\ \hline \text{Chevy} \\ \text{Ford} \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} 87 \\ 99 \\ 0 \\ 64 \\ 5 \\ 0 \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 7 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 8 \end{array} \end{array} \right) = \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \text{Blue} \\ \text{Green} \\ \text{Red} \end{array} \\ \hline \begin{array}{cc} & \begin{array}{cc} & 1990 & 1991 \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \text{Chevy} \\ \text{Ford} \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} 87 \\ 99 \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 7 \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} \text{Green} \\ \hline \begin{array}{cc} & 1990 & 1991 \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 64 \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 0 \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} \text{Red} \\ \hline \begin{array}{cc} & 1990 & 1991 \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} 5 \\ 0 \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 8 \end{array} \end{array} \end{array}$$

and so on.



Generic cubes

It turns out **that** cubes can be calculated for any such two-dimensional versions of our original data tensor, for instance,

$$\text{cube } N : \text{Model} + 1 \longleftarrow (\text{Color} + 1) \times (\text{Year} + 1)$$

$$\text{cube } N = \tau_{\text{Model}} \cdot N \cdot (\tau_{\text{Color}} \otimes \tau_{\text{Year}})^\circ$$

where N stands for the second matrix of the previous slide, yielding

| | <i>Blue</i> | | | <i>Green</i> | | | <i>Red</i> | | | ALL | | |
|--------------|-------------|------|-----|--------------|------|-----|------------|------|-----|------|------|-----|
| | 1990 | 1991 | ALL | 1990 | 1991 | ALL | 1990 | 1991 | ALL | 1990 | 1991 | ALL |
| <i>Chevy</i> | 87 | 0 | 87 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 5 | 92 | 0 | 92 |
| <i>Ford</i> | 99 | 7 | 106 | 64 | 0 | 64 | 0 | 8 | 8 | 163 | 15 | 178 |
| ALL | 186 | 7 | 193 | 64 | 0 | 64 | 5 | 8 | 13 | 255 | 15 | 270 |

The 36 entries of the original cube have been rearranged in a 3*12 rectangular layout, as dictated by the **dimension** cardinalities.



The **cube** (LA) operator

Definition (Cube)

Let M be a matrix of type

$$\prod_{j=1}^n B_j \longleftarrow^M \prod_{i=1}^m A_i \quad (11)$$

We define matrix **cube** M , the *cube of* M , as follows

$$\mathbf{cube} M = \left(\bigotimes_{j=1}^n \tau_{B_j} \right) \cdot M \cdot \left(\bigotimes_{i=1}^m \tau_{A_i} \right)^\circ \quad (12)$$

where \bigotimes is finite Kronecker product.

So **cube** M has type $\prod_{j=1}^n (B_j + 1) \longleftarrow \prod_{i=1}^m (A_i + 1)$.

□

Properties of data cubing



Linearity:

$$\mathbf{cube} (M + N) = \mathbf{cube} M + \mathbf{cube} N \quad (13)$$

Proof: Immediate by bilinearity of matrix composition:

$$M \cdot (N + P) = M \cdot N + M \cdot P \quad (14)$$

$$(N + P) \cdot M = N \cdot M + P \cdot M \quad (15)$$

This can be taken advantage of not only in **incremental** data cube construction but also in **parallelizing** data cube generation.



Properties of data cubing

Updatability: by Khatri-Rao product linearity,

$$(M + N) \triangleright P = M \triangleright P + N \triangleright P$$

$$P \triangleright (M + N) = P \triangleright M + P \triangleright N$$

the **cube** operator commutes with the usual CRUDE operations, namely with record **updating**. For instance, suppose record

| # | Model | Year | Color | Sale |
|---|-------|------|-------|------|
| 5 | Ford | 1991 | Red | 8 |

cf

| t_{Model} | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|-------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Chevy | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Ford | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

is updated to

| # | Model | Year | Color | Sale |
|---|-------|------|-------|------|
| 5 | Chevy | 1991 | Red | 8 |

cf

| t'_{Model} | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|--------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Chevy | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Ford | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |



Properties of data cubing

Theorem (Cube commutes with vectorization)

Let $X \xleftarrow{M} Y \times C$ and $Y \times X \xleftarrow{\text{vec } M} C$ be its Y -vectorization. Then

$$\text{vec}(\text{cube } M) = \text{cube}(\text{vec } M) \quad (16)$$

holds.



The proof (in the paper) relies on the type diagrams:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 Y \times X & \xleftarrow{\text{vec}_Y M} & C \\
 \tau_Y \otimes \tau_M \downarrow & & \uparrow \tau_C^\circ \\
 (Y+1) \times (X+1) & \xleftarrow[\text{vec}_{Y+1}(\text{cube } M)]{\text{cube}(\text{vec}_Y M)} & C+1
 \end{array}
 \cong
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 X & \xleftarrow{M} & Y \times C \\
 \tau_X \downarrow & & \uparrow (\tau_Y \otimes \tau_C)^\circ \\
 X+1 & \xleftarrow{\text{cube } M} & (Y+1) \times (C+1)
 \end{array}$$



Properties of data cubing

The following theorem shows that changing the dimensions of a data cube does not change its totals.

Theorem (Free theorem)

Let $B \xleftarrow{M} A$ be cubed into $B + 1 \xleftarrow{\text{cube } M} A + 1$, and $r : C \rightarrow A$ and $s : D \rightarrow B$ be arbitrary functions. Then

$$\text{cube } (s^\circ \cdot M \cdot r) = (s^\circ \oplus \text{id}) \cdot (\text{cube } M) \cdot (r \oplus \text{id}) \quad (17)$$

holds, where $M \oplus N = \begin{bmatrix} M & 0 \\ 0 & N \end{bmatrix}$ is matrix **direct sum**.

□

The proof given in the paper resorts to the **free theorem** of polymorphic operators popularized by Wadler (1989) under the heading *Theorems for free!*



Cube universality — slicing

Slicing is a specialized filter for a particular value in a dimension.

Suppose that from our starting cube

$$c : 1 \rightarrow (\textit{Year} + 1) \times ((\textit{Color} + 1) \times (\textit{Model} + 1))$$

one is only interested in the data concerning year 1991.

It suffices to regard data values as (categorical) **points**: given $p \in A$, constant function $\underline{p} : 1 \rightarrow A$ is said to be a *point* of A , for instance

$$\underline{1991} : 1 \rightarrow \textit{Year} + 1$$

$$\underline{1991} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



Cube universality — slicing

Example:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 1 & \xrightarrow{c} & (Year + 1) \times ((Color + 1) \times (Model + 1)) \\
 & \xrightarrow{\underline{1991}^\circ \otimes id} & 1 \times ((Color + 1) \times (Model + 1)) \\
 & & = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 7 \\ 7 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 8 \\ 8 \\ 0 \\ 15 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{array}$$

Cube universality — rolling-up



Gray et al. (1997) say that *going up the levels [of aggregated data] is called rolling-up*.

In this sense, a **roll-up** operation over dimensions A , B and C could be the following form of (increasing) summarization:

$$A \times (B \times C)$$

$$A \times B$$

$$A$$

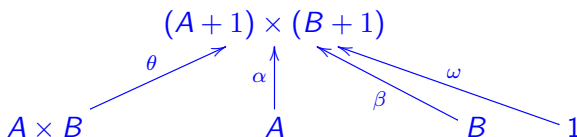
$$1$$

How does this work over a data cube? We take the simpler case of two dimensions A , B as example.



Cube universality — rolling-up

The dimension powerset for A , B is captured by the corresponding matrix **injections** onto the cube target type $(A + 1) \times (B + 1)$:



where

$$\theta = i_1 \otimes i_1$$

$$\alpha = i_1 \nabla i_2 \cdot !$$

$$\beta = i_1 \cdot ! \nabla i_2$$

$$\omega = i_2 \nabla i_2$$

NB: the injections i_1 and i_2 are such that $[i_1|i_2] = id$, where $[M|N]$ denotes the horizontal gluing of two matrices.



Cube universality — rolling-up

One can build compound injections, for instance

$$\begin{aligned}\rho &: (A + 1) \times (B + 1) \leftarrow A \times B + (A + 1) \\ \rho &= [\theta | [\alpha | \omega]]\end{aligned}$$

Then, for $M : C \rightarrow A \times B$:

$$\rho^\circ \cdot (\mathbf{cube} M) = \left[\begin{array}{c} M \\ \left[\begin{array}{c} \mathit{fst} \cdot M \\ \mathit{!} \cdot M \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right] \cdot \tau_C^\circ$$

extracts from **cube** M the corresponding **roll-up**.

The next slides give a concrete example.



Cube universality — rolling-up

Let M be the (generalized) data cube

| | 1990 | 1991 | ALL |
|-------------------|------|------|-----|
| <i>Chevy</i> | 87 | 0 | 87 |
| <i>Blue Ford</i> | 99 | 7 | 106 |
| ALL | 186 | 7 | 193 |
| <i>Chevy</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Green Ford</i> | 64 | 0 | 64 |
| ALL | 64 | 0 | 64 |
| <i>Chevy</i> | 5 | 0 | 5 |
| <i>Red Ford</i> | 0 | 8 | 8 |
| ALL | 5 | 8 | 13 |
| <i>Chevy</i> | 92 | 0 | 92 |
| ALL <i>Ford</i> | 163 | 15 | 178 |
| ALL | 255 | 15 | 270 |



Cube universality — rolling-up

Building the injection matrix $\rho = [\theta | [\alpha | \omega]]$ for types $Color \times Model + Color + 1 \rightarrow (Color + 1) \times (Model + 1)$ we get the following matrix (already transposed):

| | | <i>Blue</i> | | | <i>Green</i> | | | <i>Red</i> | | | ALL | | |
|--------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|-----|--------------|-------------|-----|--------------|-------------|-----|--------------|-------------|-----|
| | | <i>Chevy</i> | <i>Ford</i> | ALL | <i>Chevy</i> | <i>Ford</i> | ALL | <i>Chevy</i> | <i>Ford</i> | ALL | <i>Chevy</i> | <i>Ford</i> | ALL |
| <i>Blue</i> | <i>Chevy</i> | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | <i>Ford</i> | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Green</i> | <i>Chevy</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | <i>Ford</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Red</i> | <i>Chevy</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | <i>Ford</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Blue</i> | | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Green</i> | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Red</i> | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ALL | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |



Cube universality — rolling-up

Then

$$\rho^\circ \cdot \mathbf{cube} \ M =$$

| | | 1990 | 1991 | ALL |
|--------------|--------------|------|------|-----|
| <i>Blue</i> | <i>Chevy</i> | 87 | 0 | 87 |
| | <i>Ford</i> | 99 | 7 | 106 |
| <i>Green</i> | <i>Chevy</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | <i>Ford</i> | 64 | 0 | 64 |
| <i>Red</i> | <i>Chevy</i> | 5 | 0 | 5 |
| | <i>Ford</i> | 0 | 8 | 8 |
| | <i>Blue</i> | 186 | 7 | 193 |
| | <i>Green</i> | 64 | 0 | 64 |
| | <i>Red</i> | 5 | 8 | 13 |
| | ALL | 255 | 15 | 270 |

Note how a roll-up is a particular “subset” of a cube.

Matrix ρ° performs the (quantitative) selection of such a subset.

Summing up



Data science seems to be ignoring the role of **types** and **type parametricity** in software — one of the most significant advances in CS.

Nice theory called **parametric polymorphism** (John Reynolds, CMU).

So nice that you can derive **properties** of your operations **solely** by looking at their **types** 😊

As Kurt Lewin (1890-1947) once write it: *“There is nothing more practical than a good theory”*.



J.C. Reynolds
(1935–2013)

Summing up



Abadir and Magnus (2005) stress on the need for a **standardized** notation for **linear algebra** in the field of econometrics and **statistics**.

This talk suggests such a notation should be **polymorphically typed**.

Since (Macedo and Oliveira, 2013) the author has invested in **typing** linear algebra in a way that makes it closer to modern **typed** languages.

This extends previous efforts on applying LA to **OLAP** (Macedo and Oliveira, 2015)

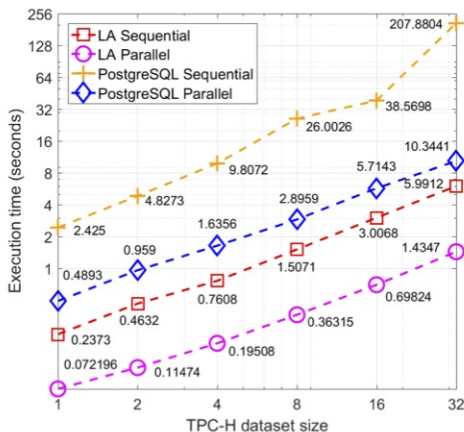
(Still not convinced? Peek the next slide.)

Annex



(For those who care mostly about efficiency)

Aside: Plot taken from a recent MSc report on TPC-H benchmarking LA approach to analytical querying (on-going work).





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