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Distributed XML Design

Serge Abiteboul
INRIA Saclay – Île-de-France & University Paris Sud, FR
serge.<lastname>@inria.fr

Georg Gottlob∗
University of Oxford, UK
georg.gottlob@comlab.ox.ac.uk

Marco Manna
Department of Mathematics, University of Calabria, IT
<lastname>@mat.unical.it

ABSTRACT
A distributed XML document is an XML document that spans several machines or Web repositories. We assume that a distribution design of the document tree is given, providing an XML tree some of whose leaves are “docking points”, to which XML subtrees can be attached. These subtrees may be provided and controlled by peers at remote locations, or may correspond to the result of function calls, e.g., Web services. If a global type τ, e.g. a DTD, is specified for a distributed document T, it would be most desirable to be able to break this type into a collection of local types, called a local typing, such that the document satisfies τ if and only if each peer (or function) satisfies its local type. In this paper we lay out the fundamentals of a theory of local typing and provide formal definitions of three main variants of locality: local typing, maximal local typing, and perfect typing, the latter being the most desirable. We study the following relevant decision problems: (i) given a typing for a design, determine whether it is local, maximal local, or perfect; (ii) given a design, establish whether a (maximal) local, or perfect typing does exist. For some of these problems we provide tight complexity bounds (polynomial space), while for the others we show exponential upper bounds. A main contribution is a polynomial-space algorithm for computing a perfect typing in this context, if it exists.

Categories and Subject Descriptors
C.2.4 [Distributed Systems]: Distributed databases; H.2.1 [Logical Design]: Data models; Schema and subschema

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Design, Languages, Theory

∗Computing Laboratory and Oxford-Man Institute of Quantitative Finance, University of Oxford.

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1. INTRODUCTION

With the Web, information tends to be more and more distributed. In particular, the distribution of XML data is essential in many areas such as e-commerce (shared product catalog), collaborating editing (e.g., based on WebDAV [12]), or network directories [15]. (See also the W3C XML Fragment Interchange Working group [10].) It becomes often cumbersome to verify the validity, e.g., the type, of such a hierarchical structure spanning several machines. In this paper, we consider typing issues raised by the distribution of XML documents. We introduce nice properties that the distribution should obey to facilitate type verification based on locality conditions. We propose an automata-based study of the problem. Our theoretical investigation provides a starting point for the distributed validation of tree documents (verification) and for selecting a distribution for Web data (design). In general, it provides new insights in the typing of XML documents.

Figure 1: Distributed XML Document T₀

A distributed document is given by an XML “root” document T, that is stored locally at some site, some of which leaves refer to external resources, say f₁, . . . , fₙ, that each provides additional XML data to be attached to T. The extension ext(T) of T is the document obtained by replacing each node labeled fᵢ with the actual XML tree (or forest) provided by resource fᵢ. Intuitively, ext(T) is the effective entire document one is interested in, where, however, different parts of this document are stored at different locations, maintained by different peers, and/or provided by programs or Web service calls. Figure 1 shows a (drastically simplified) possible distributed XML document for the National
Consumer Price Index (NCPI) maintained by the Eurostat. The NCPI is a document containing consumer price data for each EC country. We assume that the national data are maintained in local XML repositories by each country's national statistics bureau (INSEE for France, Statistik Austria, Istat for Italy, UK Statistics Authority, and so on). Each national data set is under the strict control of its respective statistics bureau. The root document $T_0$ is maintained by Eurostat in Luxembourg and has a function $f_i$ for each different country. In addition, $T_0$ contains average data for the entire EU zone. Figure 2 shows a possible extension $\text{ext}(T_0)$ of $T_0$, where the actual data values are omitted.

![Figure 2: An extension $\text{ext}(T_0)$ of document $T_0$](image)

Typically, a global designer specifies a target type $\tau$, together with a root document $T$. Such a type $\tau$ could be given, for example, in form of a DTD, an XML Schema, a regular tree language, or a tree automaton. The specification of $\tau$ means that the extension $\text{ext}(T)$ is required to satisfy $\tau$, formally, $\text{ext}(T) = \tau$. While this is done just in a similar way and spirit as when one specifies a type for a normal XML document, we now have a problem: How do we enforce the validity w.r.t. this global type $\tau$ and what should be the role of each peer in this enforcement of the type $\tau$? In particular, can the global type $\tau$ be broken down into local types $\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n$, one for each function $f_i$, occurring in $T$, so that, to obtain a valid document $\text{ext}(T)$, it suffices to make sure that each resource $f_i$ provides local data satisfying $\tau_i$.

A main issue here is to guarantee the consistency of the information. It can be the case that the validity of an update at resource $f_i$ depends on the data in another resource. We would like to avoid such situations if possible. More precisely, we would like to provide each $f_i$ with a typing $\tau_i$ that guarantees that (i) if each $f_i$ verifies its type, then the global type is verified (soundness), and (ii) we do not introduce more restrictions than this global type (completeness). We call such a typing local typing. We study (maximal) local typings. We are also interested in perfect typings, namely when the typing is a unique maximum for all sound typings.

From a formal viewpoint, we use Active XML terminology and notation for describing distributed documents [1]. For types, we consider abstract versions of DTDs and XML Schemas [18]. We lay out the fundamentals of a theory of local typing and provide formal definitions of three main variants of locality: local typing, maximal local typing, and perfect typing, the latter being the most desirable. We study the following relevant verification problems: given a typing for a design, determine whether it is local, maximal local, or perfect (we call these problems $\text{DTD-LOC}$, $\text{DTD-ML}$, and $\text{DTD-PERF}$, respectively). We also study the corresponding design problems: given a particular design, establish whether a local, maximal local, or perfect typing does exist (call these problems $\exists \text{DTD-LOC}$, $\exists \text{DTD-ML}$, $\exists \text{DTD-PERF}$, respectively) and, of course, find them.

The analysis carried out in this paper provides tight complexity bounds for some of these problems. In particular, problems $\exists \text{DTD-LOC}$, $\exists \text{DTD-ML}$, $\exists \text{DTD-PERF}$ and $\exists \text{DTD-PERF}$ are PSPACE-complete. For the other problems (proved to be PSPACE-hard), we show exponential upper bounds, but a precise characterization of their computational complexity is still an open problem. To study this problem, we show that the problem for trees can be reduced to a problem on words. The problems on words are solved using automata techniques. In particular, a main contribution is a polynomial-space construction of a perfect typing, if it exists. Section 6 also considers more powerful typings, namely nondeterministic bottom-up tree automata (typically the largest class that is considered). In this setting, the direct reduction to words cannot be used. However, we show how the problem can be solved using tree automata techniques.

Before mentioning some related works and concluding this section, we further illustrate these concepts by detailing our Eurostat example. We first assume that Eurostat specifies the global type $\tau_0$ for the distributed NCPI document, where $\tau_0$ is given by the DTD shown in Figure 3. Briefly, DTD $\tau_0$ requires that $\text{ext}(T_0)$ consists of a subtree containing average data for Goods (such as food, energy, education, and so on). Each Good item is evaluated in different years by means of an index. Moreover, $\text{ext}(T_0)$ may contain a forest of $\text{nationalIndex}$, namely indexes associated to goods in precise countries. To comply with different national databases, two different formats are allowed: (country, Good, index) or (country, Good, value, year). It is easy to see that the pair $(\tau_0, T_0)$ allows a local typing (see Figure 4) that is even perfect (so, can be found out by the algorithm shown in Section 5), as we will clarify in the next section.

![Figure 3: DTD $\tau_0$](image)

![Figure 4: Perfect Typing for $(\tau_0, T_0)$](image)

Suppose now that a designer defined instead the DTD $\tau_1$ shown in Figure 5 as global type (the elements defined as in $\tau_0$ are omitted.) The pair $(\tau_1, T_0)$ would be a bad design since $\tau_1$ imposes to all countries to adopt the same format for their indexes (natIndA or natIndB). But this represents a constraint that cannot be controlled locally. Indeed, this

\[\text{See http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu}\]

\[\text{See http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat}\]
new design does not admit any local typing. The nice locality properties of designs are obvious in such simplistic examples. However, when dealing with a large number of peers with very different desires and complex documents, the problem rapidly starts defeating human expertise. The techniques developed in this paper are meant to support experts in designing such distributed document schemas.

![Figure 5: DTD $\tau_1$](image)

Distributed data design has already been quite studied in particular for relational databases; see [7, 17]. Some previous works have considered the design of Web applications [6]. They lead to the design of Web sites. The design there is focused typically on unordered collections. Even the W3C goes in this direction with a working group on XML Fragment Interchange [10]. The goal is to be able to process (e.g., edit) document fragments independently. Quoting the W3C Candidate Recommendation: “It may be desirable to view or edit one or more fragments while having no interest, need, or ability to view or edit the entire document.” This is clearly related to the problem we study here.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 formally introduces our notions of (distributed) XML document, type, and defines the decisional problems studied. It also provides an overview of the results. Section 3 presents basic results. Sections 4 and 5 present the main results. Section 6 discusses extension to more complex types. Section 7 concludes and mentions possible areas for further research. Finally, in Section 8 we make a number of acknowledgments.

2. THE TYPING PROBLEMS

Distributed Documents (or Distributed Trees), like AXML documents [1, 2], are XML documents that may contain embedded function calls. The result of a function call $f$ is still an XML document. When $f$ is invoked, its result is used to enrich the original document. This process is termed materialization. In a distributed architecture (for instance a P2P architecture), a node $x$ of a distributed tree $T$ containing a function $f$ is called a docking point of $T$. The docking point $x$ connects the peers that invoke the function $f$ and the peers that provide the corresponding XML document.

An interesting task is to associate a type $\tau_1$ (a DTD) to each call $f_x$, in such a way that the XML document returned as answer is valid w.r.t. this type and any materialization process always produces a valid document w.r.t. a given global type $\tau$ that is also specified by a DTD. A global type and a distributed document represent the design of a given distributed architecture. A collection of types associated to the function calls in such a design is called a typing. Given a distributed design, we want to know whether either a precise typing has some properties or a typing with some properties does exist. (More formal definitions follow.)

**XML.** In this paper, we use a widespread abstraction of XML documents and DTDs (or XML Schemas) focusing on document structure [18]. An XML document is a *finite ordered, unranked tree* (hereafter just a tree) $t$ with nodes labeled over an alphabet $\Sigma$. Given a node $x$ of $t$, we denote by $\text{lab}(x)$ its label, by $\text{labcdr}(x)$ the string containing the labels of the children of $x$ in left-to-right order, and by $\text{labpar}(x)$ the label of the parent of $x$. Clearly, if $\text{labcdr}(x) = \varepsilon$, then $x$ is a leaf node, while if $\text{labpar}(x) = \varepsilon$, then $x$ is the root of $t$. The size of $t$, denoted by $||t||$, is the number of its nodes.

**Types.** A DTD is formalized as a triple $\tau = (\Sigma, \pi, s)$ where $\Sigma$ is an alphabet (the *element names*), $\pi$ is a function that maps each symbol in $\Sigma$ to a nondeterministic finite state automaton (NFA for short) still over $\Sigma$, and $s$ is $\Sigma$ is the *start symbol*. The language $|\pi|$ of $\pi$ is a set of trees such that for each tree $t \in |\pi|$, $\text{lab}\text{root}(t) = s$ and for every node $x$, with $\text{lab}(x) = a$, $\text{labcdr}(x) \in |\pi(a)|$. The NFA associated to an element name is also called its *content model*. In this paper, we often specify $\pi$ as a function that maps $\Sigma$-symbols to $\Sigma$-regexes since any regular expression of size $n$ can be transformed into an equivalent $\varepsilon$-free NFA with $O(n \log^2 n)$ transitions in time $O(n \log^4 n)$ [14]. An example of DTD is $\tau_1 = \langle \{s_1, c\}, \pi_1, s_1 \rangle$ with $\pi_1(s_1) = c^\ast$ and $\pi_1(c) = \varepsilon$. In the remaining of the paper, we omit to specify regexs such as $\pi_1(c) = \varepsilon$; i.e., if no regex is given for a label, nodes with this label are assumed to be (solely) leaves. We consider only *reduced* DTDs where there is no unreachable symbol and the language related to each nonterminal symbol is nonempty. The expressive power of DTDs can be extended by specializing element names, as, e.g., in XML Schema [23] and Relax NG [8]. Then, an extended DTD (EDTD) is a quintuple $\tau = (\Sigma, \Delta, \pi, s, \mu)$ where $(\Delta, \pi, s)$ is a DTD on the *specialized element names* $\Delta$, and $\mu$ is a mapping from $\Delta$ to $\Sigma$. In this case, for a labeled tree $t, t \in |\tau|$ if there exists a tree $t'$ in $|\tau| \Delta, \pi, s)$ such that $t = \mu(t')$ (where $\mu$ is extended to trees). Tree $t'$ can be seen as a witness for $t$. In particular, an XML Schema can be seen as an EDTD with an extra constraint (the Element Declarations Consistent). It essentially prohibits that, in any content model, an element has two different specializations.

**Distributed documents.** As previously mentioned, we use Active XML terminology and notation for describing distributed documents. Let $\Sigma_L$ and $\Sigma_F$ be two alphabets, respectively, of *labels* (such as $a, b, \text{etc.}$) and *function symbols* (such as $f, g, \text{etc.}$). A *distributed document* or *distributed tree* $T$ is a tree over $\Sigma_L \cup \Sigma_F$ where any function-node is a leaf node and where root$(T) \in \Sigma_L$. A forest is a sequence of distributed trees. The *extension* (or *semantics*) of a function $f$ is a forest and denoted by ext$(f)$. The extension ext$(T)$ of a tree $T$ is obtained by replacing each $f$ by ext$(f)$. A type $\tau$ for a distributed tree $T$ is a DTD (or an XML Schema). Tree $T$ satisfies type $\tau$ if ext$(T)$ does. Since we do not want to
cope with nonregularity we assume that the same function does not occur twice in a tree. For instance, in the tree
\[ T = a(\varepsilon)f \]
the children of \( a \) in any \( \text{ext}(T) \) are of the form \( uw \) for some word \( w \). But since this is not a regular language, the type of \( T \) cannot be defined by a DTD. Clearly, the same type can be associated to different functions.

**Distributed document typing.** In this section, we first define the concept of typing for a distributed tree. We then introduce the notion of design and interesting properties of typings for designs.

Let \( T(y_n) \) be a distributed tree. We want to type its function calls. The answer of some \( y_i \) may be a forest, which is not an XML document any more. So, for the type \( \tau_i \) associated to \( y_i \), we actually use a DTD having a root with a label \( s_i \) that does not appear in any other part of \( \tau_i \). The answer of \( y_i \) is the forest of children of the \( s_i \)-root of a document of this type. Now, let \( (y_n) \) be a finite sequence of distinct function calls. A typing for a distributed tree \( T(y_n) \) is a positional mapping from the functions in \( (y_n) \) to a sequence \( \tau_n \) of types (DTDs). Informally, we denote by \( T(\tau_n) \) the new type defined from \( T \) by replacing each \( f_i \) with \( \tau_i \). This raises consistency issues. See further for a formal definition.

**Example 1.** Consider the distributed tree \( T = a(b \ v_1 \ d \ v_2) \). The pair \( \tau_1 = \langle s_1, c \rangle, \tau_2 = \langle s_2, e \rangle \) of DTDs, with \( \pi_1(s_1) = c^2 \) and \( \pi_2(s_2) = c^3 \), is a typing for \( T \). The activation of both \( v_1 \) and \( v_2 \) may return trees \( s_1(ec) \) and \( s_2(ec) \), respectively. These trees can be plugged into \( T \) producing the extension \( abcde \). Finally, \( T(\tau_1, \tau_2) \) is the DTD \( \langle a, b, c, d, e \rangle \), where \( \pi(a) = b^2 c^1 d^2 e^0 \).

Formally, a typing for \( T \) is a sequence \( \tau_n \) such that \( T(\tau_n) = (\Sigma_L, \pi, s) \) obtained as follows is a well-defined DTD:

1. \( \Sigma_L \) is the union of the element names in \( T(y_n) \) and all the labels in each \( \tau_i \);
2. \( s = \text{lab}(r) \), where \( r \) is the root of \( T \);
3. for each node \( x \) of \( T \) with label \( a \in \Sigma_L \) and such that \( \text{labdom}(x) = w_1 \ldots w_k, \pi(a) \) is the regex \( r_1 \ldots r_k \), where \( r_j = w_j \) if \( w_j \in \Sigma_L \), while \( r_j = \pi_i(s_i) \) if \( w_j \) is the function \( f_j \) associated to the type \( \tau_i = (\Sigma_L, \pi, s_i) \).

For NFAs, \( \pi(a) \) is defined in a similar way.)

4. for each \( \tau_i = (\Sigma_L, \pi, s_i) \) and for each \( a \in \Sigma_L \setminus \{s_i\} \), \( \pi(a) = \pi_i(a) \).

In this case, we say that \( \tau_n \) is consistent for \( T(y_n) \).

Note that \( \tau_n \) may be inconsistent for \( T(y_n) \) because the same element name is assigned two different content models either by \( \tau_i \) and \( \tau_j \), \( i \neq j \), by \( T \) and some \( \tau_i \), or by two occurrences of that label in \( T \). Observe also that \( T \) plays here the role of a type. Indeed, one could consider design problems where we start from a distributed type. Our results can be extended to such a setting.

All these definitions about trees can be adapted to strings in a straightforward way. (We will see the importance of problems on strings in Section 3.) A distributed string
\[ w(y_n) = w_1|y_1|w_2|y_2|w_n \]
is a string on alphabet \( \Sigma_L \cup \Sigma_F \) where: \( n > 0 \); \( w_i \in \Sigma^* \) for each \( i \in \{0, \ldots, n\} \); \( y_i \in \Sigma_F \) for each \( i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \); and \( y_i \not= y_j \) for each \( i \neq j \). A type is overloaded by an NFA. A typing for \( w(y_n) \) is still a positional mapping from the functions in \( (y_n) \) to a sequence \( \tau_n \) of NFAs. With \( w(\tau_n) \) we denote a new type (NFA) defined from \( w \) by replacing each \( f_i \) with \( \tau_i \).

Let \( \tau \) and \( \tau' \) be two types (DTDs or NFAs). We say that:

- \( \tau \prec \tau' \) (smaller) iff \( [\tau] \subset [\tau'] \)
- \( \tau \preceq \tau' \) (smaller or equivalent) iff \( [\tau] \subseteq [\tau'] \)
- \( \tau \equiv \tau' \) (equivalent) iff \( [\tau] = [\tau'] \)
- \( \tau \equiv \tau' \) (independent) iff \( [\tau] \cap [\tau'] = \emptyset \)
- \( \tau \prec \tau' \) (incomparable) iff \( [\tau] \not\subseteq [\tau'] \) and \( [\tau'] \not\subseteq [\tau] \) and \( [\tau] \cap [\tau'] \not= \emptyset \)
- \( \tau \not\equiv \tau' \) (different) iff either \( \tau \prec \tau' \) or \( \tau \equiv \tau' \)

**Proposition 1.** Two DTDs \( \tau_1 \) and \( \tau_2 \) are equivalent if

\( \pi \) they have the same root; (ii) they use the same element names; and (iii) for each element name, its content models in the two, are equivalent.

Given two typings \( \tau(n) \) and \( \tau'(n) \), we say that:

- \( \tau(n) \prec \tau'(n) \) iff \( \tau(n) \subseteq \tau'(n) \) and \( \tau(n) \prec \tau'(n) \) for some \( i \)
- \( \tau(n) \preceq \tau'(n) \) iff \( \tau(n) \preceq \tau'(n) \) for each \( i \)
- \( \tau(n) \equiv \tau'(n) \) iff \( \tau(n) \equiv \tau'(n) \) for each \( i \)
- \( \tau(n) \prec \tau'(n) \) iff \( \tau(n) \prec \tau'(n) \) for some \( i \)
- \( \tau(n) \not\equiv \tau'(n) \) iff \( \tau(n) \not\equiv \tau'(n) \) for some \( i \)

We call design a pair \( (\tau, T(y_n)) \), i.e., a design consists in a distributed document and a (target) type for that document. The problems we consider concern typing such designs.

**Definition 1.** For a design \( (\tau, T(y_n)) \), a typing \( \tau(n) \) is:

- **sound** if \( T(\tau(n)) \leq \tau; \)
- **maximal** if it is sound and if there exists no other sound typing \( \tau'(n) \) for \( T(y_n) \) and \( \tau \) such that \( \tau(n) \prec \tau'(n); \)
- **complete** if \( \tau \leq T(\tau(n)); \)
- **local** if \( T(\tau(n)) \equiv \tau \), namely if it is sound and complete;
- **perfect** if it is local, and if for each other sound typing \( (\tau(\lambda), \lambda) \), we have \( \tau(n) \leq \tau(\lambda) \).

Clearly, local typings present the advantage of allowing a local verification of document consistency (soundness and completeness by definition). Also, no consistent document is ruled out (completeness). Maximal locality guarantees that in some sense, no unnecessary constraints are imposed to the participants. Finally perfect typings are somewhat the ultimate one can expect in terms of not imposing constraints to the participants. Many designs will not accept a perfect typing. However, there are maximal sound typings which are not local. This is not surprising as there are designs that have at least a sound typing but do not allow any local at all, and clearly, if there is a sound typing, then there must also exist a maximal sound typing. We will see examples that separate these different classes further. But before, we formally state the problems studied in this paper.
Definition 2. dtd-loc, dtd-ml, dtd-perf are the following decision problems. Given a DTD design \( \langle \tau, T(f_n) \rangle \) and a typing \( \langle \tau_n \rangle \), is \( \tau_n \) a local, or maximal local, or perfect typing for \( \langle \tau, T(f_n) \rangle \), respectively?

Definition 3. \( \exists \)dtd-loc, \( \exists \)dtd-ml, \( \exists \)dtd-perf are the following decision problems. Given a DTD design \( \langle \tau, T(f_n) \rangle \), does there exist a local, or maximal local, or perfect typing for this design, respectively?

We similarly define the corresponding word problems, that is \( (\exists) \)nfa-loc, \( (\exists) \)nfa-ml, \( (\exists) \)nfa-perf. Table 1 gives an overview of the complexity results for the typing problems previously defined. We will see in Section 3 that each problem on trees is logspace-reducible to a set of problems on strings. Thus, it suffices to prove the results in Table 1 for words. All the problems are PSPACE-hard, and in particular, we prove that nfa-loc, nfa-ml, nfa-perf and \( \exists \)nfa-perf are PSPACE-complete, whereas we show an upper bound for the problems \( \exists \)nfa-loc and \( \exists \)nfa-ml in 2-EXPSPACE.

We pay more attention to maximal locality rather than maximality alone as in the latter case the existential problem is trivial (NL-complete) while the checking problem has the same complexity in both cases (PSPACE-complete).

Table 1: Complexity Results

| DTD-/NFA- | DTD-/\( \exists \)NFA- |
|-----------|---------------------|
| PSPACE-complete | 2-EXPSPACE | -LOC |
| PSPACE-complete | 2-EXPSPACE | -ML |
| PSPACE-complete | PSPACE-complete | -PERF |

3. BASIC RESULTS

In this section, we first present examples that separate the different design properties of typings. We then show the reduction to word problems.

Example 2. Let \( \tau = \langle \{s, a, b, c\}, \pi, s \rangle \) be a type where \( \pi(s) = a^*bc^* \) and \( T = s(f_1f_2) \) is a distributed tree. Then, \( (a^*bc^*, a^*bc^*) \) are two maximal local typings, so there is no perfect typing for this design. Observe that \( (a^*bc^*, a^*bc^*) \) is a local typing that is not maximal because it imposes unnecessary constraints to the local sites. If desired, one could leave them more freedom, e.g., type the first function with \( a^* \).

Example 3. Let \( \tau = \langle \{s, a, b, c\}, \pi, s \rangle \) be a type where \( \pi(s) = a^*bc^* \) and \( T = s(f_1bf_2) \) is a distributed tree. The typing \( (a^*, a^*) \) is perfect. This has to be an excellent typing since there is no alternative maximal local typing.

Example 4. Let \( \tau = \langle \{s, a, b\}, \pi, s \rangle \) be a type where \( \pi(s) = (ab)^* \) and \( T = s(f_1f_2) \) is a distributed tree. The typing \( ((ab)^*), (ab)^* \) is a unique maximal local but it is not perfect. Consider, in fact, typing \( (a,b) \). It is sound but \( (a,b) \leq ((ab)^*, (ab)^*) \) does not hold. Clearly, a perfect typing cannot exist.

Example 5. Let \( \tau = \langle \{s, a, b\}, \pi, s \rangle \) be a type where \( \pi(s) = (ab)^* \) and \( T = s(f_1f_2) \) is a distributed tree. There are three maximal local typings: \( ((ab)^*, (ab)^*), ((ab)^*a, b(ab)^*) \), and \( ((ab)^*, (ab)^*) \) depending on whether either \( \varepsilon, a \), or none of them are in \( \text{ext}(f_i) \), respectively.

To complete our separation among the classes characterizing different typings we point out that every perfect typing is necessarily unique maximal local. The converse is not true as proved by Example 4. We now show how to reduce a typing problem on trees to a set of typing problems on strings. (The first proof is omitted for space limitation.)

Theorem 2. There exists a local DTD-typing for the design \( \langle \tau, T(f_n) \rangle \) with some DTD \( \tau = (\Sigma_L, \pi, s) \), if and only if for each node \( x \) in \( T \), such that \( \text{lab}(x) \in \Sigma_L \), there is a local typing for the design \( \langle \pi(\text{lab}(x)), \text{lab}cdrn(x) \rangle \).

The previous theorem considers typing with DTDs. With minor modifications, one could extend this result (and Corollary 3) to XML schemas. Returning to DTDs, we have:

Corollary 3. Problems dtd-loc, dtd-ml, dtd-perf, \( \exists \)dtd-loc, \( \exists \)dtd-ml, \( \exists \)dtd-perf are logspace Turing reducible to NFA-LOC, NFA-ML, NFA-PERF, \( \exists \)NFA-LOC, \( \exists \)NFA-ML, \( \exists \)NFA-PERF, respectively.

Proof. (Sketch.) Let \( \tau = (\Sigma_L, \pi, s) \) be a type and \( T(f_n) \) a distributed tree. Consider, for instance, the DTD-LOC problem. Scan the tree in document order, which is well known to be feasible in logarithmic space [?]. For each node \( x \) in \( T \) such that \( \text{lab}(x) \in \Sigma_L \) and \( \text{lab}cdrn(x) \) contains at least a function, solve the problem NFA-LOC for the pair \( \langle \pi(\text{lab}(x)), \text{lab}cdrn(x) \rangle \).

Remark. More tractable results may be obtained by considering restricted classes of regular expressions [9, 16].

4. THE TYPING PROBLEMS FOR WORDS

We study in this section the typing problems for words. (Recall that the problem for trees has been reduced to problems for words.) We present a number of complexity results. We leave for the next section, two issues, namely NFA-PERF and \( \exists \)NFA-PERF, for which we will need a rather complicated automata construction. We start by recalling a definition and a result that we will use further.

Definition 4. nfa-equiv problem. Given two NFAs, are they equivalent?

Theorem 4. \( [21] \) nfa-equiv is PSPACE-complete.

The hardness of the \( \text{nfa-quiv} \) problem is used to show some hardness results of our problems.

Theorem 5. Problems nfa-loc, nfa-ml, nfa-perf are PSPACE-hard.

Proof. We define a logspace transformation \( \varphi \), in such a way that \( \text{NFA-EQUIV} \leq_{m} \text{NFA-LOC} \). Afterwards, we show that the statement also holds for the other two problems. Let \( A, A_1 \) be two arbitrary NFAs. The application of \( \varphi \) to the pair \( A, A_1 \) produces the design \( \langle \tau, w \rangle \) and the typing \( \tau_1 \), where \( \tau = A, w = f_1 \) and \( \tau_1 = A_1 \). Since \( w(\tau_1) = A_1 \), it is clear that \( \tau \equiv w(\tau_1) \iff A \equiv A_1 \). Finally, we just notice that \( A \equiv A_1 \iff \tau_1 \) is both perfect and maximal local as \( w \) consists of just a function.
We now consider upperbounds. Section 5 will show that NFA-PERF is in PSPACE. We next show that NFA-LOC is.

**Theorem 6.** NFA-LOC is in PSPACE (so the problem is PSPACE-complete).

Proof. Let \( w(f_a) \) be a distributed string, \( \tau \) be an NFA, and \((\tau_n)\) be a typing. Since the new automaton \( w(\tau_n) \) has size \( O(|w| + |(\tau_n)|) \), we can check in polynomial space if \( w(\tau_n) \equiv \tau \). \( \square \)

Now consider NFA-ML.

**Theorem 7.** NFA-ML is in PSPACE (so the problem is PSPACE-complete).

Proof. Let \( w(f_a) \) be a distributed string, \( \tau \) be an NFA, and \((\tau_n)\) be a typing. First of all, we check if \((\tau_n)\) is local. We proved that this problem is doable in PSPACE. Subsequently, we check if \((\tau_n)\) is not maximal. In particular, \((\tau_n)\) is not maximal if there exists at least an \( i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \) such that the NFA \( w(\tau_i) \cap \tau \), say \( A \), defines a nonempty language, where \((\tau_i) = \tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n \). Since \( \tau_i \) is non-deterministic, the NFA \( \tau_i \) accepting the complement of language \( \tau_i \) may even require \( O(2^k) \) states, where \( k \) is the number of states of \( \tau_i \) [13], and consequently the size of \( A \) would be exponential. For finite automata (deterministic or not) the nonemptiness problem is basically the same as the graph reachability problem and it is thus NL-complete [19].

We can avoid the materialization of \( A \) with an “on-the-fly” construction of the product of \( w(\tau_n) \) and \( \tau \). Hence, an NL algorithm on a non-materialized (single) exponential automaton leads to PSPACE. \( \square \)

Let us turn to the hardness of the \( \exists \)-versions of the problems.

**Theorem 8.** Problems \( \exists \text{NFA-LOC}, \exists \text{NFA-ML}, \text{and} \exists \text{NFA-PERF are PSPACE-hard.} \)

Proof. We define a logspace transformation \( \varphi \), in such a way that the following relations hold: (1) \( \text{NFA-EQUIV} \leq^P \text{NFA-LOC} \); (2) \( \text{NFA-EQUIV} \leq^m \text{NFA-ML} \); (3) \( \text{NFA-EQUIV} \leq_m \text{NFA-PERF} \). Let \( A_1 = (K_1, \Sigma_1, A_1, s_1, F_1) \), \( A_2 = (K_2, \Sigma_2, A_2, s_2, F_2) \) be two arbitrary NFAs. The application of \( \varphi \) to the pair \((A_1, A_2)\) produces the design \((A, w)\) where \( w \) is the distributed string \( y_1, y_2, c, f_y \) which is a terminal symbol which does not belong to \( \Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2 \), while automaton \( A = (K, \Sigma, A, s, F) \) is defined as follows: (i) \( K = K_1 \cup K_2 \cup \{s, p_i, q_k\} \); (ii) \( \Sigma = \Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2 \cup \{a, b, c\} \); (iii) \( \Delta = \Delta_1 \cup \Delta_2 \cup \{(s, a, p_i), (s, b, p_i), (p_i, c, q_k), (q_k, a, s_1), (q_k, c, s_2)\} \); (iv) \( F = F_1 \cup F_2 \). Intuitively, if we consider \( A_1 \) and \( A_2 \) as regexes, then \( A \) is \((acA_1 + bcA_2)\). We claim that there is a local typing (similarly, ML, or perfect) for \((A, w)\) iff \( A_1 \equiv A_2 \). First of all, we observe that transformation \( \varphi \) is extremely simple and it is clearly in logspace. In fact, string \( w \) is a constant, while the choice of a terminal symbol which does not appear in \( A_1 \) nor in \( A_2 \) can be done in logspace, and also \( A \) can be obtained by merging \( A_1 \) and \( A_2 \) with a constant number of transitions. We prove the statement of (1) and we just notice that whenever there is a local typing for \((A, w)\), then the typing \((a + b, A)\) is perfect (thus, also maximal).

\( \Rightarrow \) If there is a local typing for \((A, w)\) then \( A_1 \equiv A_2 \). Since \( A = (acA_1 + bcA_2) \), then \( [acA_1] \) and \([bcA_2]\) form a partition of \([A]\). In this case, any local typing must have the following form \((aX_1 + bX_2, Y)\) where \( X_1, X_2, Y \) are NFAs. Clearly, all the strings accepted by \( w \) are obtained by \( aX_1Y \) and \( bX_2Y \). Then \( cA_1 \equiv X_1cY \) and \( cA_2 \equiv X_2cY \) must hold. But since any string in \([A_1]\) or \([A_2]\) does not start with \( c \), then necessarily \([X_1] = [X_2] = \epsilon\). This way, \( A_1 \equiv Y \) and \( A_2 \equiv Y \) and then \( A_1 \equiv A_2 \).

\( \Leftarrow \) If \( A_1 \equiv A_2 \), there is a local typing for \((A, w)\). This part of the proof is trivial because \((a + b, A)\) always represents a local typing for \((A, w)\). \( \square \)

We now have lower bounds for all these problems and some upper bounds. We will derive missing upper bounds using the construction of automata that we call “perfect” for given design problems.

5. **PERFECT AUTOMATON FOR WORDS**

We next present the construction of the perfect automaton for a design word problem. The perfect automaton has the property that if a perfect typing exists for this problem, it is “highlighted” by the automaton. This will provide a PSPACE procedure for finding this perfect typing if it exists.

Given a DTD \( \tau \) and the reduction between trees and strings, we consider, the NFA \( A \) for each content model in \( \tau \). We start from \( \tau \) to build the so called perfect automaton \( \Omega \) which exhibits many interesting properties. Let \( A = (K, \Sigma, \Delta, s, F) \) be an NFA. We can assume w.l.o.g. that it has no \( \epsilon \)-transition. The extended transition relation \( \Delta^* \subseteq K \times \Sigma^* \times K \) is the reflexive-transitive closure of \( \Delta \) and it is defined as follows: (i) for each \( q \in K \), \((q, \epsilon, q) \in \Delta^* \); (ii) for each string \( a_1 \ldots a_n \in \Sigma^* \), \((q_0, a_1 \ldots a_n, q_n) \in \Delta^* \) iff there is a sequence of transitions of the form \((q_0, a_1, q_1), \ldots, (q_{n-1}, a_n, q_n) \) in \( \Delta \). (Observe that the language \([A]\) may be defined as \([w \in \Sigma^*: (s, w, q_f) \in \Delta^* \), \( q_f \in F]\) .)

Given two states \( q, q_f \) in \( K \), a string \( w \) in \( \Sigma^* \) is said to be delimited in \( A \) by \( q \) and \( q_f \) if \((q, w, q_f) \in \Delta^* \). By exploiting this notion, the sets of all the states delimiting \( w \) in \( A \) are defined as follows:

\[ \text{Ini}(A, w) = \{ q \in K : \exists q_f \in K \text{ s.t. } (q, w, q_f) \in \Delta^* \} \]

\[ \text{Fin}(A, w) = \{ q_f \in K : \exists q \in K \text{ s.t. } (q, w, q_f) \in \Delta^* \} \]

In particular, if \( w = \epsilon \), these two sets are \( \text{Ini}(A, \epsilon) = \text{Fin}(A, \epsilon) = K \). \( \text{Ini}(A, w) \) is called the set of initial states while \( \text{Fin}(A, w) \) is the set of final states for the word \( w \). Given two states \( q, q_f \) in \( K \), the local automaton \( A(q, q_f) = (K \subseteq K, \Sigma^*, \Delta^*, q, q_f) \) induced by \( A \) from \( q, q_f \) is a portion of \( A \) containing all those transitions of \( A \) leading from \( q \) to \( q_f \). More precisely, for each pair of states \( q, q_f \) in \( K \) and for each symbol \( a \) in \( \Sigma \), \((a, a, q', (q, q') \in \Delta^* \) iff there are two strings \( u, v \) in \( \Sigma^* \) such that \((q, u, q') \in \Delta^* \), \((a, a, q') \in \Delta^* \), and \((q', v, q_f) \in \Delta^* \). Finally, given two strings \( w_1, w_2 \) in \( \Sigma^* \), then \( A(w_1, w_2) \) is the set of all local automata induced by \( w_1 \) and \( w_2 \). It is formally defined as \( A(w_1, w_2) = \{ A(q, q_f) : q_f \in \text{Fin}(A, w_1), q \in \text{Ini}(A, w_2) \} \).

In particular, if \( w_i = \epsilon \) for some \( i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \), the distributed string contains consecutive functions. In particular for the previous definitions we have:

\[ A(w_1, \epsilon) = \{ A(q, q_f) : q_f \in \text{Fin}(A, w_1) \} \]

\[ A(\epsilon, w_2) = \{ A(q, q_f) : q_f \in K \} \]

\[ A(\epsilon, \epsilon) = \{ A(q, q_f) : q, q_f \in K \} \]
Similarly, given a string $w$ in $\Sigma^*$, $A(w)$ is the set of all local automata induced by $w$. It is defined as $A(w) = \{ A(q_i, q_f) : (q_i, w, q_f) \in \Delta^* \}$ and in particular $A(\epsilon) = \{ A(q_i) : q_i \in K \}$ is a set of $K$ automata, one for each state in $K$.

Let $w(f_n)$ be a distributed string and $A$ be an NFA. The perfect automaton w.r.t. $A$ and $w$ consists of several local automata suitably joined together by $\epsilon$-transitions. It is denoted by both $\Omega(A, w)$ and just $\Omega$ whenever it is clear from the context who are $A$ and $w$. Algorithm 1 describes how to build the perfect automaton (assume that any pair of local automata have disjoint sets of states labeled as in $A$), while Figure 6 shows the perfect automaton obtained by a given finite state machine and a distributed string. We say that $A$ is compatible with $w$ if the set of all (legal) local automata in $\Omega$ is not empty after correction steps, or equivalently, if there exists at least a sound typing. Moreover,

- $\text{Seq}(\Omega)$ denotes the set of all the sequences $W_0, X_1, W_1, \ldots, X_n, W_n$ of connected automata in $\Omega$ such that $W_0$ is an automaton in $A(w_0)$, while $W_i$ and $X_i$ are, respectively, in $A(w_i)$ and $A(w_{i+1}, w_i)$ for any $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$;
- $\text{Typ}(\Omega) = \{(X_i) : W_0, X_1, W_1, \ldots, X_n, W_n \in \text{Seq}(\Omega)\}$ is the set containing all different typings $(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ from any sequence in $\text{Seq}(\Omega)$;
- $\text{Aut}(\Omega) = \{ \sigma : (X_1, \ldots, X_n) \in \text{Typ}(\Omega) \}$ is the set of all legal automata in $A(w_{i+1}, w_i)$;
- $\Omega = \cup \text{Aut}(\Omega)$ is the type obtained by the union of all automata $\text{Aut}(\Omega)$;
- $(\Omega)$ is the typing for $w$ and $A$ obtained from $\Omega$.

Let $(A_n)$ be a sequence of automata. We define the direct extension of $(A_n)$ as the set of string defined as $[A_n] = \{ u_1 \ldots u_n \mid \text{for each } i u_i \in [A_i] \}$.

**Lemma 9.** For any NFA $A$, then $\Omega \leq A$ holds. The contrary $(A \leq \Omega)$ does not hold.

**Proof.** Given a string $u$ in $[\Omega]$, then there exists a sequence $(\tau_{2n+1})$ of automata in $\text{Seq}(\Omega)$ accepting $u$ and expressible as $A(s, q_0), A(q_0, s_1), A(s_1, q_1), \ldots, A(q_{2n-1}, s_n), A(s_n, q_n)$ for some states $q_0, s_1, q_1, \ldots, s_n, q_n$. Moreover, by definition of direct extension, for each string $u_0 \sigma_1 u_1 \ldots \sigma_n u_n$ in $[\tau_{2n+1}]$ we have that $u_0 \in [A(s, q_0)], \sigma_i \in [A(q_i-1, q_i)]$ and $u_n \in [A(s_n, q_n)]$, for each $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$. But, by definition of local automata, the following sequence of transitions:

- $(s, w_0, q_0) \in \Delta^*$
- $(q_0, \sigma_1, s_1) \in \Delta^*$
- $(s_1, w_1, q_1) \in \Delta^*$
- 
- $(q_{2n-1}, \sigma_n, s_n) \in \Delta^*$
- $(s_n, w_n, q_n) \in \Delta^*$

is also derivable by $A$.

For the second part of the proof consider the string $w = abc$ and the regex ab$c + d$. $\square$

**Lemma 10.** Let $w(f_n)$ be a string compatible with an NFA $A$. Any typing in $\text{Typ}(\Omega)$ is sound for $w$ and $A$.

**Proof.** Given any typing $(X_n)$ in $\text{Typ}(\Omega)$, by definition, there is a sequence $(\tau_{2n+1})$ of automata such that $X_i = \tau_{2i}$ for each $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$. By Lemma 9 $(\tau_{2n+1}) \leq A$ holds. Moreover as, by definition, the extension of $w(X_n)$ is $[w(X_n)] = \{ w_0 \sigma_1 u_1 \ldots \sigma_n u_n : \sigma_i \in [X_i], 1 \leq i \leq n \}$. Then $w(X_n) = \tau_{2n+1}$ as well since all strings $w_0, \ldots, w_n$ are accepted by $\tau_1, \tau_2, \ldots, \tau_{2n+1}$, respectively, by definition of local automata induced by a single string. Therefore, $w(X_n) \leq A$. $\square$

**Algorithm 1.** PerfectAutomaton($w$, $A$)

1. Input: $w(f_n) = w_0 f_1 w_1 \ldots f_n w_n$, $A = (K, \Sigma, \Delta, s, F)$
2. Output: $\Omega(A, w)$
3. for each automaton $W \in A(w_n)$ do
   > add $W$ to $\Omega$
4. for each $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ do
   > for each automaton $X \in A(w_{i+1}, w_i)$ do
   > add $X$ to $\Omega$
   > if $\text{label}(q_{fn}(W)) = \text{label}(q_{fn}(X))$
   > add the transition $(q_{fn}(W), \epsilon, q_{fn}(X))$ to $\Omega$
   > for each automaton $W \in A(w_i)$ do
   > add $W$ to $\Omega$
   > if $\text{label}(q_{fn}(W)) = \text{label}(q_{fn}(W))$
   > add the transition $(q_{fn}(X), \epsilon, q_{fn}(W))$ to $\Omega$

//Correction steps:
5. for each automaton $W \in A(w_n)$ do
   > if $\text{label}(q_{fn}(W)) \neq s$ then remove $W$ from $\Omega$ //it is illegal
6. merge all automata in $\Omega$ being in $A(w_n)$ according to their labels and use the (unique) initial state as initial state for $\Omega$
7. for each automaton $W \in A(w_n)$ do
   > if $\text{label}(q_{fn}(W)) \neq F$
   > $F(\Omega) = F(\Omega) \cup q_{fn}(W)$
   > else if $w_n = \epsilon$
   > remove $W$ from $\Omega$ //it is illegal
8. for each automaton $A \in \Omega$ do
   > if there is no path from $q_0$ to $A$ or
   > there is no path from $A$ to any final state of $\Omega$
   > remove $A$ from $\Omega$ //it is illegal

**Theorem 11.** Let $w(f_n)$ be a distributed string compatible with a given NFA $A$, and $(\tau_n)$ be a sound typing for them. Then, both $w(\tau_n) \leq \Omega$ and $\tau_n \leq (\Omega_n)$ hold.

**Proof.** Since $(\tau_n)$ is sound for $w$ and $A$, then $w(\tau_n) \leq \Omega$ holds. In particular, for each string $\chi = w_0 \sigma_1 w_1 \ldots \sigma_n w_n$ in $w(\tau_n)$, where each $\sigma_i \in [\tau_i]$, there is a sequence of states $q_0, s_1, q_1, \ldots, s_n, q_n$ proving the membership of $\chi$ in $[A]$ by the following sequence of transitions:

- $(s, w_0, q_0) \in \Delta^*$
- $(q_0, \sigma_1, s_1) \in \Delta^*$
- $(s_1, w_1, q_1) \in \Delta^*$
- 
- $(q_{2n-1}, \sigma_n, s_n) \in \Delta^*$
- $(s_n, w_n, q_n) \in \Delta^*$

is also derivable by $A$.

For the second part of the proof consider the string $w = abc$ and the regex $ab+c + d$. $\square$

**Corollary 12.** Let $w(f_n)$ be a distributed string compatible with a given NFA $A$, and $(\tau_n)$ be a local typing for them. Then, $w(\tau_n) \equiv \Omega \equiv A$ holds.

**Proof.** By Lemma 9 and Theorem 11. $\square$

**Theorem 13.** Let $w(f_n)$ be a distributed string and $A$ be an NFA compatible with $w$. There is a perfect typing for $w$ and $A$ if and only if $w(\Omega_n) \equiv A$. If so, the perfect typing is exactly $(\Omega_n)$.

**Proof.** ($\Rightarrow$) if there is a perfect typing for $w$ and $A$ then $w(\Omega_n) \equiv A$. If $w$ and $A$ admit a perfect typing, say $(\tau_n)$, then (as it also sound), by Theorem 11, $(\tau_n) \leq (\Omega_n)$. 

253
Suppose that \( (\tau_n) < (\Omega_n) \) held. There would be (at least) an \( i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \) such that \( \tau_i < \Omega_i \). In other words, there would be an automaton \( \tau'_i \in \text{Aut}(\Omega) \) accepting some strings rejected by \( \tau_i \). Consider the typing \( (\tau'_i) \in \text{Typ}(\Omega) \) containing \( \tau'_i \) in position \( i \). By Lemma 10, \( (\tau'_i) \) is sound and then \( \tau'_i \leq \tau_i \), by definition. But this is a contradiction. Therefore \( (\tau_n) \equiv (\Omega_n) \) and then \( \omega(\Omega_n) \equiv A \), as \( (\tau_n) \) is also local.

(\( \Leftarrow \)) if \( \omega(\Omega_n) \supseteq A \) then there is a perfect typing for \( \omega \) and \( A \). This is true since \( (\Omega_n) \) is local and because, by Theorem 11, \( (\tau_n) \leq (\Omega_n) \) for any sound typing \( (\tau_n) \).

The following two examples show that if there exists a local typing \( (\tau_n) \) for \( \omega \) and \( A \), then \( (\tau_n) < (\Omega_n) \) might hold. This can happen even if \( (\tau_n) \) is a unique maximal local.

\textbf{Example 6.} Consider the string \( \omega = a \, f_1 \, c \, f_2 \, e \) and the regular expression \( \tau = abcd \) compatible with \( \omega \). Clearly, the typing \( (b, cd) \) is local (sound and complete) for \( \omega \) and \( \tau \) because \( \omega(b, cd) \equiv \tau \). Nevertheless, \( (\Omega_2) = (bc?, c?d) \) is (strictly) greater then \( (b, cd) \) since \( [bc?] = \{b, bc\} \supset \{b\} \) and \( [c?d] = \{d, cd\} \supset \{cd\} \).

\textbf{Example 7.} Let \( \omega = a \, f_1 \, f_2 \, d \) be a distributed string and \( \tau \) be the regular expression \( a(bc)^*d \). Clearly, the typing \( ((bc)^*, (bc)^*) \) is local (also unique maximal local but not perfect). But, as consequence of construction of perfect automaton, we have: \( \text{Aut}(\Omega_1) = ((bc)^*, (bc)^*b) \) and \( \text{Aut}(\Omega_2) = ((bc)^*, c(bc)^*) \). Consequently, \( \Omega_1 \equiv ((bc)^*b?) \) and \( \Omega_2 \equiv (c'(bc)^*) \) do not represent a sound (and hence local) typing since they allow strings such as \( abcded \) or \( abcded \) that are not accepted by \( \tau \).

The following example shows that even if there is no local typing for \( \omega \) and \( \tau \), then \( \Omega \equiv \tau \) may hold.

\textbf{Example 8.} Let \( \tau \) be the regular expression \( ab \, + \, ba \) and \( \omega = ab \, f_1 \, f_2 \). There are two sound typings: \( (a, b) \) and \( (b, a) \), but there is no local typing. However, \( \Omega \equiv \tau \).

We can now use the perfect automata construction to characterize the complexity of \( \text{NFA-PERF} \). We use the next lemma:

\textbf{Lemma 14.} Let \( \omega(\Omega_n) \) be a distributed string and \( A \) be a \( k \)-state NFA. The algorithm for building the perfect automaton \( \Omega(A, \omega) \) works in polynomial time.

\textbf{Proof.} Any set \( A(\omega_1) \) or \( A(\omega_1, \omega_k) \) contains at most \( k \) automata each of which having size \( O(k) \). Therefore, the number of macro-iterations of the algorithm are \( O(nk^2) \), while the size of \( \Omega \) is \( O(nk^3) \). For each \( \omega_i \), the sets \( \text{Ini}(\omega_i, \omega_i) \) and \( \text{Fin}(\omega_i, \omega_i) \) can be obtained in nondeterministic logarithmic space (thus in polynomial time) because for any pair of states \( q_1, q_2 \) in \( A \), we check if the string \( \omega_i \) is in the language \( [A(q_1, q_2)] \). Finally, all the automata in \( A(\omega_i) \) and \( A(\omega_1, \omega_k) \) are nothing else but different copies of \( A \) having different initial and final states.

Now, we have:

\textbf{Theorem 15.} \( \text{NFA-PERF} \) is in \( \text{PSPACE} \). So it is also \( \text{PSPACE-complete} \) by Theorem 5.

\textbf{Proof.} Let \( \omega(\Omega_n) \) be a distributed string, \( \tau \) be an NFA, and \( (\tau_n) \) be a typing. Construct the perfect automaton \( \Omega(\tau, \omega) \). By Lemma 14, \( \Omega \) can be built in polynomial time w.r.t. \( |\tau| + |\omega| \), and then, check in polynomial space if \( \omega(\Omega_n) \equiv \tau \equiv \omega(\tau_n) \).
and w.r.t. finding a perfect typing (if it exists), we have:

**Theorem 16**. ∃NFA-perf is in PSPACE. So it is also PSPACE-complete by Theorem 8.

**Proof.** Let \( \tau, w([f_n]) \) be a (string) design. Construct the perfect automaton \( \Omega(\tau, w) \). By Lemma 14, \( \Omega \) can be built in polynomial time w.r.t. \( |\tau| + |w| \). Then, check if \( w(\Omega_n) \equiv \tau \), which is feasible in polynomial space.

**Additional properties.** We now show how to exploit perfect automaton properties to find (maximal) sound typings when a design does not allow any perfect. Clearly, this technique can be used for seeking (maximal) local typings as well (it leads to our 2-EXPSPACE upper bound). Let \( w([f_n]) = w_0f_1w_1 \ldots f_nw_n \) be a distributed string and \( \mathcal{A} \) be a type defined by an NFA compatible with \( w \). All the automata belonging to \( \mathcal{A}(\Omega_i) \) can be decomposed in at most \( 2^{\mathcal{A}(\Omega_i)} \) different automata such that there are no two of them accepting the same string. In particular, this new set is denoted by \( \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{A}(\Omega)) \) and defined as follows:

\[
\{ \cap A_1 \mid \cup A_2 : \emptyset \neq A_1 \subseteq \mathcal{A}(\Omega), A_2 = \mathcal{A}(\Omega_i) \cap A_1 \}
\]

An example for three automata is given in Figure 7. Finally, \( \mathcal{D}(\Omega) = \{ (D_1, \ldots, D_n) : D_i \in \mathcal{D}(\Omega_i) \} \) is the set of all different typings from \( \mathcal{D}(\Omega_1) \times \ldots \times \mathcal{D}(\Omega_n) \).

Given a typing \( \tau_n \), we say that \( \tau_n \in \mathcal{D}(\Omega) \) if there exists a sequence \( D_n \in \mathcal{D}(\Omega) \) such that \( \tau_i \equiv D_i \), for each \( i \).

**Theorem 17.** Let \( \tau_n \) be a sound typing for a string \( w([f_n]) \) and an NFA \( \mathcal{A} \) compatible with \( w \). For each \( i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \), then \( \tau_n \mid_{\tau_i \cup \tau} \) is still sound if \( \tau \) is an element of \( \mathcal{D}(\Omega) \) that is incomparable with \( \tau_i \).

**Proof.** In order to prove the statement, we show that \( w(\tau_n) \mid_{\tau_i \cup \tau} \leq \Omega \) holds for each \( u \in [\tau_i \mid \tau] \), (recall that, by Lemma 9, \( \Omega \subseteq \mathcal{A} \)). By definition, \( \tau \equiv \tau_i \) entails that there is (at least) a string accepted by both \( \tau_i \) and \( \tau \). Let \( u' \) be any of these strings. Since, by Theorem 11, \( \tau_i \equiv \Omega \), then there is a nonempty set \( \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{A}(\Omega) \) containing all-and-only the automata accepting \( u' \). Clearly, since \( \tau \in \mathcal{D}(\Omega_i) \) and \( u' \in \tau \), then \( \tau \) is also in \( \mathcal{D}(\tau_i \mid \tau) \) for each \( \tau_i \in \mathcal{A} \). This means that each string \( u \in [\tau_i \mid \tau] \) is accepted by all-and-only the automata in \( \mathcal{A} \) as well. By Theorem 11, \( w(\tau_n) \leq \Omega \), and in particular \( w(\tau_n) \mid_{\tau_i \cup \tau} \leq \Omega \), as \( u' \in [\tau_i \mid \tau] \). In other words, any string in \( w(\tau_n) \mid_{\tau_i \cup \tau} \) is accepted by (at least) a sequence of automata in \( \mathcal{D}(\Omega) \). Finally, as both \( u \) and \( u' \) are recognized by all-and-only the automata in \( \mathcal{A} \), then each string \( w_0\sigma_1w_1 \ldots \sigma_nw_n \) in \( w(\tau_n) \mid_{\tau_i \cup \tau} \) (with \( \sigma_i = u \)) has a twin in \( w(\tau_n) \mid_{\tau_i \cup \tau} \) (with \( \sigma_i = u' \)) and both of them are accepted by exactly the same sequences in \( \mathcal{D}(\Omega) \).

**Theorem 18.** Let \( \tau_n \) be a maximal typing for a distributed string \( w([f_n]) \) and an NFA \( \mathcal{A} \) compatible with \( w \). Then for each \( i \), \( \mathcal{D}(\tau_i \mid \tau) \subseteq \mathcal{D}(\Omega) \).

**Proof.** Let \( i \) be an index arbitrarily fixed in \( \{1, \ldots, n\} \). As \( \tau_n \) is maximal then, by definition, it is sound and, by Theorem 11, \( \tau_i \subseteq \Omega \). Let \( D_i \) be a copy of \( \mathcal{D}(\Omega_i) \). Then \( \tau_i \subseteq \cup D_i \). Remove, now, all automata in \( D_i \) independent from \( \tau_i \) (if there was someone). Still, \( \tau_i \subseteq \cup D_i \). Hence, consider the two possible (and alternative) cases:

\[
(1) \quad \tau_i \equiv \cup D_i \quad \text{or} \quad (2) \quad \tau_i < \cup D_i
\]

In the first case the theorem is already proven. While, in the latter case, there is (at least) an automaton \( \tau \in D_i \) incomparable with \( \tau_i \) entailing relation \( \tau_i < \tau_n \mid_{\tau_i \cup \tau} \). But since \( \tau_n \mid_{\tau_i \cup \tau} \) is still sound (see Lemma 17), then there is a contradiction because \( \tau_n \) is assumed to be maximal.

### 6. TREE AUTOMATA TYING

We consider in this section some more powerful typings based on nondeterministic bottom-up tree automata. This is typically the largest class considered for XML documents. In this setting, the direct reduction to words cannot be used. However, we show how to solve the problem using tree automata techniques.

**nUTAs.** A nondeterministic Unranked (bottom-up) Tree Automaton (nUTA) over alphabet \( \Sigma \) is a quadruple \( A = (K, \Sigma, \Delta, F) \), where \( K \) is a finite set of states, \( F \subseteq K \) is the set of final states, and \( \Delta \), the transition relation, is a finite set of rules of the form \( a(M) \rightarrow q \) where \( M \) is an NFA over alphabet \( K \), namely \( [M] \subseteq K^* \). Without loss of generality, we consider normalized nUTAs where for each \( a \in \Sigma \) and each \( q \in K \), there is at most one transition rule of the form \( a(M) \rightarrow q \). A tree \( t \) belongs to \( [A] \) if and only if there is a mapping \( \mu \) from the nodes of \( t \) to \( K \) such that: (i) \( \mu(r) \in F \) if \( r \) is the root of \( t \); (ii) for each node \( x \) of \( t \) with label \( a \) and with children \( y_1, \ldots, y_k \), there is a rule \( a(M) \rightarrow \mu(x) \) in \( \Delta \) and the string \( \mu(y_1) \ldots \mu(y_k) \) belongs to \( [M] \).
nUTA-based distributed design. Given a distributed document \( T(f_n) \) and a type \( \tau \) defined by an nUTA. A typing for \( T \) and \( \tau \) is still a positional mapping from the functions in \( (f_n) \) to a sequence \( (\tau_n) \) of types (here nUTAs). Recall that the trees of type \( \tau \), have their roots labeled by a unique label \( r_i \); see the definition of distributed document typing in Section 2. We furthermore assume w.l.o.g. that each of these nUTA \( \tau \) has a single accepting state, say \( q_0 \), so by construction includes a single rule of the form \( s_i(M_i) \to q_0 \). The new type \( T(\tau_n) = (K, \Sigma_L, \Delta, F) \) is obtained as follows:

1. \( \Sigma_L \) is the union of the element names in \( T(f_n) \) and of the labels in each type \( r_i \);
2. \( K \) contains a state \( q^r \) for each node \( x \) in \( T \) labeled in \( \Sigma_L \) and all the states in each type \( r_i \);
3. \( F = \{ q^r \} \) where \( r \) is the root of \( T \);
4. For each \( r_i \), \( \Delta \) contains all the rules of \( r_i \) except for its rule of the form \( s_i(M_i) \to q_i \);
5. For each node \( x \) of \( T \) with label \( a \in \Sigma_L \), \( \Delta \) contains a rule of the form \( a(M^x) \to q^r \) where \( M^x \) is an NFA accepting:
   - only the empty string if \( x \) is a leaf node;
   - the language \( L_1 \ldots L_k \) if \( x \) is a non-leaf node with children \( y_1 \ldots y_k \) where:
     - (i) each \( L_i = \{ q^v \} \) if \( \text{lab}(y_i) \) is in \( \Sigma_L \); (ii) each \( L_i = \{ M_i \} \) if \( \text{lab}(y_i) = f_i \) and \( s_i(M_i) \to q_i \) is the (unique) rule in \( r_i \) having \( q_i \) as final state.

Theorem 19. [20]+[22] nuta-equiv is EXP-complete.

Theorem 20. Problems nuta-loc, nuta-ml, nuta-perf are EXP-hard.

Proof. It follows by slightly modifying the proof of Theorem 5 where \( A \) and \( A_1 \) are here replaced by nUTAs. The logspace transformation \( \varphi \) does not change, namely it works in such a way that nuta-equiv \( \leq_m \) nuta-loc. \( \square \)

Theorem 21. nuta-loc is EXP-complete.

Proof. (Membership) Let \( T(f_n) \) be a distributed string, \( \tau \) be an nUTA, and \( (\tau_n) \) be a typing. Build \( T(\tau_n) \) (in polynomial time) and check in exponential time if \( T(\tau_n) \equiv \tau \).

(Hardness) By Theorem 20. \( \square \)

Theorem 22. nuta-ml is EXP-complete.

Proof. It follows by slightly modifying the proof of Theorem 7 where \( \tau \) is an nUTA and \( w \) is a tree \( T \). We have proved that locality is feasible in EXP. Moreover, as \( \tau \) is nondeterministic, nUTA \( \tau \) accepting the complement of language \( \tau_1 \) may be exponentially larger in size. For finite tree automata the nonemptiness problem is P-complete [24]. We can avoid the materialization of \( T(\tau_n) \cap \tau \) with an “on-the-fly” construction of the direct product of \( T(\tau_n) \) and \( \tau \). Hence, a polynomial time algorithm on a non-materialized (single) exponential automaton leads to EXP. \( \square \)

Perfect tree automaton. We next extend the construction of the perfect automaton for words to nUTAs. Perfect typings may be obtained using this construction.

Let \( A = (K, \Sigma, \Delta, F) \) be an nUTA and \( T(f_n) \) be a distributed document on alphabet \( \Sigma_L \cap \Sigma_F \). Since we consider normalized nUTAs, we denote by \( M(a,q) \) the NFA in the rule \( M \to q \) for each \( a \in \Sigma \) and \( q \in K \).

Step 1. For each node \( x \) of \( T \) having label \( a \in \Sigma_L \) do:

Step 1.1. Consider the set of all rules in \( \Delta \) of the form
\[ a(M_1) \to q_1, \ldots, a(M_n) \to q_n \]

Step 1.2. Guess a subset of states \( S^x \subseteq \{ q_1, \ldots, q_k \} \).

Step 1.3. Build for node \( x \) the NFA
\[ M^x = \bigcup_{q \in S^x} M(a,q) \]

Step 2. For each node \( x \) of \( T \) having label \( a \in \Sigma_L \) do:

Step 2.1. Consider the labels of the children of \( x \)
\[ w^x = \text{lab}(\text{cn}(x)) = w_0 f_1 w_1 \ldots f_t w_h \quad (h \geq 0) \]

Step 2.2. For each \( w_i = w_i[1], \ldots, w_i[l] \) build the set \( M^x(w_i) \) of automata as follows. An automaton \( M^x(w_i) \) is in \( M^x(w_i) \) if \( M^x \) allows a sequence of transitions
\[ (p_0, q_1, p_1), \ldots, (p_{l-1}, q_l, p_l) \]
such that \( q_i \in S^x \), where \( y_i \) is the node of \( T \) associated to the label \( w_i[j] \), for each \( j \in \{1, \ldots, l\} \).

Step 2.3. Build the perfect automaton \( \Omega^x \) for \( M^x \) and \( w^x \) as shown for words, by using the new definition of \( M^x(w_i) \).

Step 2.4. Construct the type \( w^x(\Omega^x) \) accepting the language \( L_0 \cap \Omega^x \) of \( L_1 \ldots \Omega^x \) \( L_h \) such that \( L_i \) is the language \( S^{i-1} \ldots S^0 \) and where any \( y_j \) is the node of \( T \) associated to the label \( w_i[j] \).

7. CONCLUSION

As explained in the introduction, this work can serve as a basis for designing the distribution of a document. It would be interesting to extend to richer Web data. First, this would involve graph data and not just tree data. Then one should consider unordered collections and functional dependencies as in the relational model. Other dependencies and in particular inclusion dependencies would also clearly make sense in this setting.

Database design has a long history, see most database text book. Distributed database design has also been studied since the early days of databases, but much less, because distributed data management was limited by the difficulty to deploy distributed databases. The techniques that were developed, e.g., vertical and horizontal partitioning, are very different from the ones presented here because we focus on ordered trees and collections are not ordered in relational databases. We believe that traditional database studies even on mainly theoretical topics such as normal forms are also relevant in a Web setting. An interesting direction of research is to introduce some of these techniques in our setting.

In the paper, the focus was on local typing that forces verification to be purely local. More generally, it would also be interesting to consider typings of the resources that would minimize the communications needed for type checking (and not completely avoid them.) Also, the tree automata that are considered in Section 6 are nondeterministic. For performance reasons, typing is typically performed by much more
restricted automata that are not only deterministic but furthermore unambiguous [4]. Finally, it would be interesting to study the effect of such restrictions on checking properties of distributed typings, consider cases where a distributed document $T$ may change from time to time by adhering to some global DTD which uses function symbols in the DTD itself, as well as to study the impact of distributed typing (as studied here) on query optimization.

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