

Knowledge Bases and Databases

Part 2: Ontology-Based Access to Information

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Overview of Part 2: Ontology-based access to information

- ④ Introduction to ontology-based access to information
 - ① Introduction to ontologies
 - ② Ontology languages
- ② Description Logics and the *DL-Lite* family
 - ① An introduction to DLs
 - ② DLs as a formal language to specify ontologies
 - ③ Queries in Description Logics
 - ④ The *DL-Lite* family of tractable DLs
- ③ Linking ontologies to relational data
 - ① The impedance mismatch problem
 - ② OBDA systems
 - ③ Query answering in OBDA systems
- ④ Reasoning in the *DL-Lite* family
 - ① TBox reasoning
 - ② TBox & ABox reasoning
 - ③ Complexity of reasoning in Description Logics
 - ④ Reasoning in the Description Logic *DL-Lite_A*

Static vs. dynamic aspects

The aspects of the domain of interest that can be modeled by an ontology language can be classified into:

- **Static aspects**
 - Are related to the structuring of the domain of interest.
 - Supported by virtually all languages.
- Dynamic aspects
 - Are related to how the elements of the domain of interest evolve over time.
 - Supported only by some languages, and only partially (cf. services).

Before delving into the dynamic aspects, we need a good understanding of the static ones.

In this course we concentrate essentially on the static aspects.



Intensional level of an ontology language

An ontology language for expressing the intensional level usually includes:

- Concepts
- Properties of concepts
- Relationships between concepts, and their properties
- Axioms
- Queries

Ontologies are typically **rendered as diagrams** (e.g., Semantic Networks, Entity-Relationship schemas, UML Class Diagrams).



Properties

Def.: **Property**

Is an element of an ontology that qualifies another element (e.g., a concept or a relationship).

Property definition (intensional and extensional):

- Name
- Type: may be either
 - atomic (integer, real, string, enumerated, ...), or
e.g., *eye-color* → { *blu*, *brown*, *green*, *grey* }
 - structured (date, set, list, ...)
e.g., *date* → *day/month/year*
- The definition may also specify a default value.

Properties are also called **attributes**, **features**, **slots**.



Relationships

Def.: **Relationship**

Is an element of an ontology that expresses an association among concepts.

We distinguish between:

- **Intensional definition:**
specification of involved **concepts**
e.g., *worksFor* is defined on *Employee* and *Project*
- **Extensional definition:**
specification of the instances of the relationship, called **facts**
e.g., *worksFor(domenico, tones)*

Relationships are also called **associations**, **relationship types**, **roles**.



Axioms

Def.: **Axiom**

Is a logical formula that expresses at the intensional level a condition that must be satisfied by the elements at the extensional level.

Different kinds of axioms/conditions:

- subclass relationships, e.g., $\text{Manager} \sqsubseteq \text{Employee}$
- equivalences, e.g., $\text{Manager} \equiv \text{AreaManager} \sqcup \text{TopManager}$
- disjointness, e.g., $\text{AreaManager} \sqcap \text{TopManager} \equiv \perp$
- (cardinality) restrictions,
e.g., each Employee worksFor at least 3 Project
- ...

Axioms are also called **assertions**.

A special kind of axioms are **definitions**.



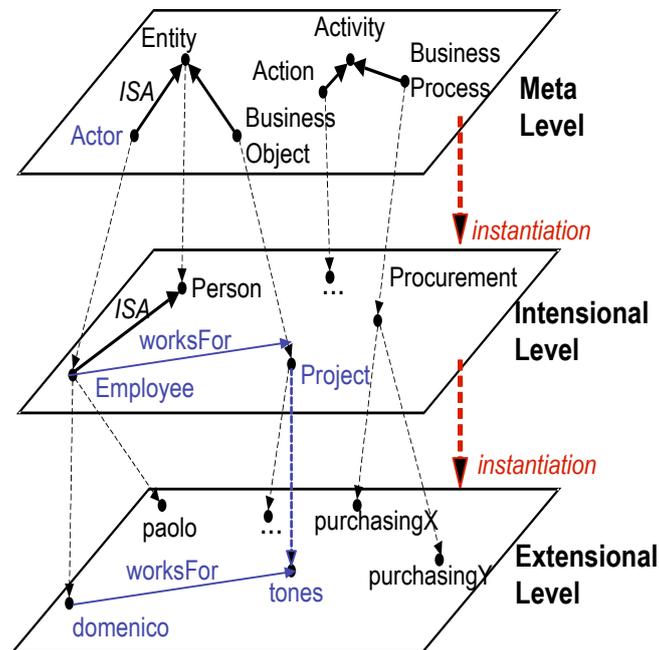
Extensional level of an ontology language

At the extensional level we have individuals and facts:

- An **instance** represents an individual (or object) in the extension of a concept.
e.g., domenico is an instance of Employee
- A **fact** represents a relationship holding between instances.
e.g., $\text{worksFor}(\text{domenico}, \text{tones})$



The three levels of an ontology



Comparison with other formalisms

- Ontology languages vs. knowledge representation languages:
Ontologies **are** knowledge representation schemas.
- Ontology vs. logic:
Logic is **the** tool for assigning semantics to ontology languages.
- Ontology languages vs. conceptual data models:
Conceptual schemas **are** special ontologies, suited for conceptualizing a **single** logical model (database).
- Ontology languages vs. programming languages:
Class definitions **are** special ontologies, suited for conceptualizing a **single** structure for computation.



Classification of ontology languages

- Graph-based
 - Semantic networks
 - Conceptual graphs
 - UML class diagrams, Entity-Relationship schemas
- Frame based
 - Frame Systems
 - OKBC, XOL
- Logic based
 - **Description Logics** (e.g., *SHOIQ*, *DLR*, *DL-Lite*, *OWL*, ...)
 - Rules (e.g., RuleML, LP/Prolog, F-Logic)
 - First Order Logic (e.g., KIF)
 - Non-classical logics (e.g., non-monotonic, probabilistic)



Queries

Queries may be posed over an ontology.

Def.: **Query**

Is an expression at the intensional level denoting a (possibly structured) collection of individuals satisfying a given condition.

Def.: **Meta-Query**

Is an expression at the meta level denoting a collection of ontology elements satisfying a given condition.

Note: One may also conceive queries that span across levels (**object-meta queries**), cf. [RDF], [CK06]



Ontology languages vs. query languages

Ontology languages:

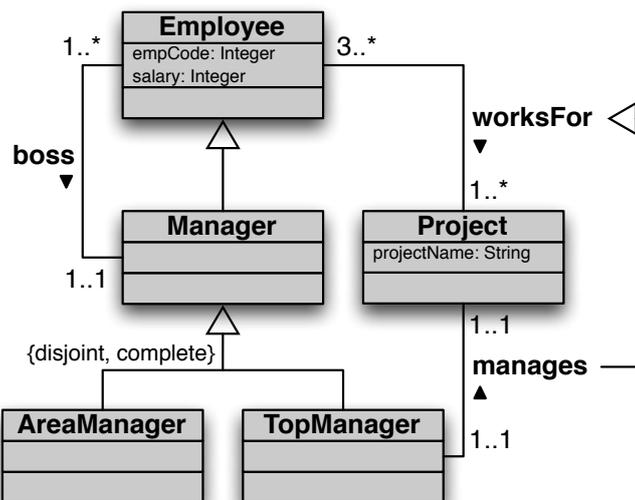
- Tailored for capturing intensional relationships.
- Are quite **poor as query languages**:
 - Cannot refer to same object via multiple navigation paths in the ontology,
 - i.e., allow only for a limited form of JOIN, namely chaining.

Instead, **when querying** a data source (either directly, or via the ontology), to retrieve the data of interest, general forms of **joins** are required.

It follows that the constructs for queries may be quite different from the constructs used in the ontology to form concepts and relationships.



Example of query



$q(ce, cm, se, sm) \leftarrow \exists e, p, m.$
 $worksFor(e, p) \wedge manages(m, p) \wedge boss(m, e) \wedge empCode(e, ce) \wedge$
 $empCode(m, cm) \wedge salary(e, se) \wedge salary(m, sm) \wedge se \geq sm$



Query answering under different assumptions

Depending on the setting, query answering may have different meanings:

- Traditional databases \leadsto **complete information**
- Ontologies (or knowledge bases) \leadsto **incomplete information**



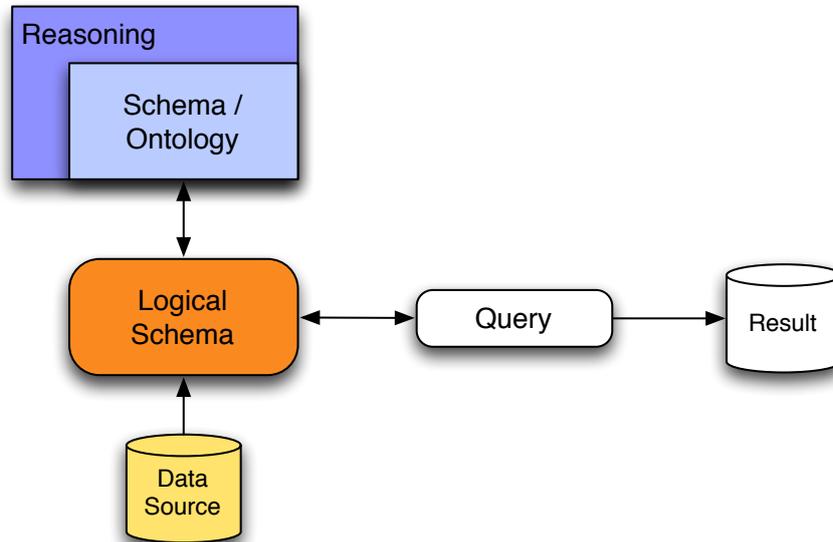
Query answering in traditional databases

- Data are completely specified (CWA), and typically large.
- Schema/intensional information used in the design phase.
- At **runtime**, the data is assumed to satisfy the schema, and therefore the **schema is not used**.
- Queries allow for complex navigation paths in the data (cf. SQL).

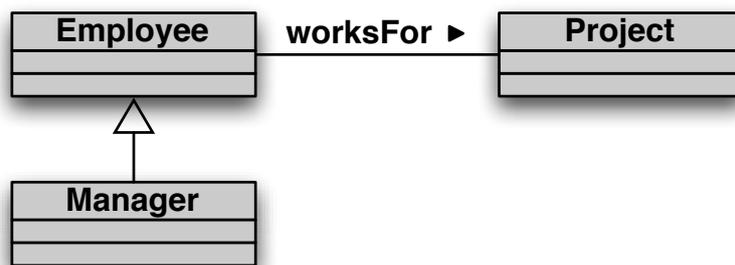
\leadsto Query answering amounts to **query evaluation**, which is computationally easy.



Query answering in traditional databases (cont'd)



Query answering in traditional databases – Example



For each concept/relationship we have a (complete) table in the DB.

DB: Employee = { john, mary, nick }
 Manager = { john, nick }
 Project = { prA, prB }
 worksFor = { (john,prA), (mary,prB) }

Query: $q(x) \leftarrow \exists p. \text{Manager}(x), \text{Project}(p), \text{worksFor}(x, p)$

Answer: { john }



Query answering over ontologies

- An ontology (or conceptual schema, or knowledge base) imposes constraints on the data.
- Actual data may be incomplete or inconsistent w.r.t. such constraints.
- The system has to take into account the constraints during query answering, and overcome incompleteness or inconsistency.

↪ Query answering amounts to **logical inference**, which is computationally more costly.

Note:

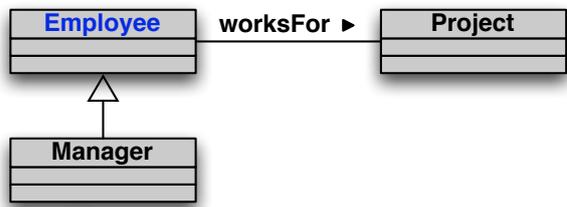
- The size of the data is not considered critical (comparable to the size of the intensional information).
- Queries are typically simple, i.e., atomic (a class name), and query answering amounts to instance checking.



Query answering over ontologies (cont'd)



Query answering over ontologies – Example



The tables in the database may be **incompletely specified**, or even missing for some classes/properties.

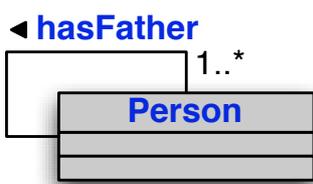
DB: $\text{Manager} \supseteq \{ \text{john, nick} \}$
 $\text{Project} \supseteq \{ \text{prA, prB} \}$
 $\text{worksFor} \supseteq \{ (\text{john,prA}), (\text{mary,prB}) \}$

Query: $q(x) \leftarrow \text{Employee}(x)$

Answer: $\{ \text{john, nick, mary} \}$



Query answering over ontologies – Example 2



Each person has a father, who is a person.

DB: $\text{Person} \supseteq \{ \text{john, nick, toni} \}$
 $\text{hasFather} \supseteq \{ (\text{john,nick}), (\text{nick,toni}) \}$

Queries: $q_1(x, y) \leftarrow \text{hasFather}(x, y)$
 $q_2(x) \leftarrow \exists y. \text{hasFather}(x, y)$
 $q_3(x) \leftarrow \exists y_1, y_2, y_3. \text{hasFather}(x, y_1), \text{hasFather}(y_1, y_2), \text{hasFather}(y_2, y_3)$
 $q_4(x, y_3) \leftarrow \exists y_1, y_2. \text{hasFather}(x, y_1), \text{hasFather}(y_1, y_2), \text{hasFather}(y_2, y_3)$

Answers: to q_1 : $\{ (\text{john,nick}), (\text{nick,toni}) \}$
 to q_2 : $\{ \text{john, nick, toni} \}$
 to q_3 : $\{ \text{john, nick, toni} \}$
 to q_4 : $\{ \}$



Query answering in Ontology-Based Data Access

In OBDA, we have to face the difficulties of both assumptions:

- The actual **data** is stored in external information sources (i.e., databases), and thus its size is typically **very large**.
- The ontology introduces **incompleteness** of information, and we have to do logical inference, rather than query evaluation.
- We want to take into account at **runtime** the **constraints** expressed in the ontology.
- We want to answer **complex database-like queries**.
- We may have to deal with multiple information sources, and thus face also the problems that are typical of data integration.

Researchers are starting only now to tackle this difficult and challenging problem. In this course we will study state-of-the-art technology in this area.



Chapter II

Description Logics and the *DL-Lite* family



Outline

- 3 A gentle introduction to Description Logics
- 4 DLs as a formal language to specify ontologies
- 5 Queries in Description Logics
- 6 The *DL-Lite* family of tractable Description Logics

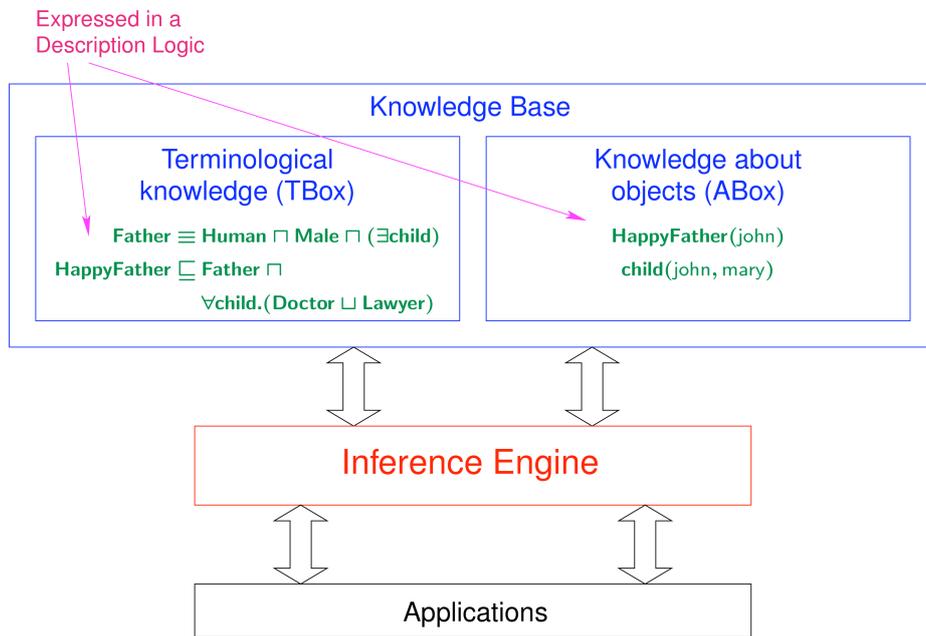


Outline

- 3 A gentle introduction to Description Logics
 - Ingredients of Description Logics
 - Description language
 - Description Logics ontologies
 - Reasoning in Description Logics
- 4 DLs as a formal language to specify ontologies
- 5 Queries in Description Logics
- 6 The *DL-Lite* family of tractable Description Logics



Architecture of a Description Logic system



Description language

A description language provides the means for defining:

- **concepts**, corresponding to classes: interpreted as sets of objects;
- **roles**, corresponding to relationships: interpreted as binary relations on objects.

To define concepts and roles:

- We start from a (finite) alphabet of **atomic concepts** and **atomic roles**, i.e., simply names for concept and roles.
- Then, by applying specific **constructors**, we can build **complex concepts** and **roles**, starting from the atomic ones.

A **description language** is characterized by the set of constructs that are available for that.



Semantics of a description language

The **formal semantics** of DLs is given in terms of interpretations.

Def.: An **interpretation** $\mathcal{I} = (\Delta^{\mathcal{I}}, \cdot^{\mathcal{I}})$ consists of:

- a nonempty set $\Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$, the domain of \mathcal{I}
- an interpretation function $\cdot^{\mathcal{I}}$, which maps
 - each individual a to an element $a^{\mathcal{I}}$ of $\Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$
 - each atomic concept A to a subset $A^{\mathcal{I}}$ of $\Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$
 - each atomic role P to a subset $P^{\mathcal{I}}$ of $\Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \times \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$

Note: A DL interpretation is analogous to a FOL interpretation, except that, by tradition, it is specified in terms of a function $\cdot^{\mathcal{I}}$ rather than a set of (unary and binary) relations.

The interpretation function is extended to complex concepts and roles according to their syntactic structure.



Concept constructors

Construct	Syntax	Example	Semantics
atomic concept	A	Doctor	$A^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$
atomic role	P	hasChild	$P^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \times \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$
atomic negation	$\neg A$	\neg Doctor	$\Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \setminus A^{\mathcal{I}}$
conjunction	$C \sqcap D$	Hum \sqcap Male	$C^{\mathcal{I}} \cap D^{\mathcal{I}}$
(unqual.) exist. res.	$\exists R$	\exists hasChild	$\{ a \mid \exists b. (a, b) \in R^{\mathcal{I}} \}$
value restriction	$\forall R.C$	\forall hasChild.Male	$\{ a \mid \forall b. (a, b) \in R^{\mathcal{I}} \rightarrow b \in C^{\mathcal{I}} \}$
bottom	\perp		\emptyset

(C, D denote arbitrary concepts and R an arbitrary role)

The above constructs form the basic language \mathcal{AL} of the family of \mathcal{AL} languages.



Additional concept and role constructors

Construct	\mathcal{AL}	Syntax	Semantics
disjunction	\mathcal{U}	$C \sqcup D$	$C^{\mathcal{I}} \cup D^{\mathcal{I}}$
top		\top	$\Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$
qual. exist. res.	\mathcal{E}	$\exists R.C$	$\{ a \mid \exists b. (a, b) \in R^{\mathcal{I}} \wedge b \in C^{\mathcal{I}} \}$
(full) negation	\mathcal{C}	$\neg C$	$\Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \setminus C^{\mathcal{I}}$
number restrictions	\mathcal{N}	$(\geq k R)$	$\{ a \mid \#\{b \mid (a, b) \in R^{\mathcal{I}}\} \geq k \}$
		$(\leq k R)$	$\{ a \mid \#\{b \mid (a, b) \in R^{\mathcal{I}}\} \leq k \}$
qual. number restrictions	\mathcal{Q}	$(\geq k R.C)$	$\{ a \mid \#\{b \mid (a, b) \in R^{\mathcal{I}} \wedge b \in C^{\mathcal{I}}\} \geq k \}$
		$(\leq k R.C)$	$\{ a \mid \#\{b \mid (a, b) \in R^{\mathcal{I}} \wedge b \in C^{\mathcal{I}}\} \leq k \}$
inverse role	\mathcal{I}	R^{-}	$\{ (a, b) \mid (b, a) \in R^{\mathcal{I}} \}$
role closure	reg	\mathcal{R}^*	$(R^{\mathcal{I}})^*$

Many different DL constructs and their combinations have been investigated.



Further examples of DL constructs

- Disjunction: $\forall \text{hasChild} . (\text{Doctor} \sqcup \text{Lawyer})$
- Qualified existential restriction: $\exists \text{hasChild} . \text{Doctor}$
- Full negation: $\neg(\text{Doctor} \sqcup \text{Lawyer})$
- Number restrictions: $(\geq 2 \text{ hasChild}) \sqcap (\leq 1 \text{ sibling})$
- Qualified number restrictions: $(\geq 2 \text{ hasChild} . \text{Doctor})$
- Inverse role: $\forall \text{hasChild}^{-} . \text{Doctor}$
- Reflexive-transitive role closure: $\exists \text{hasChild}^* . \text{Doctor}$



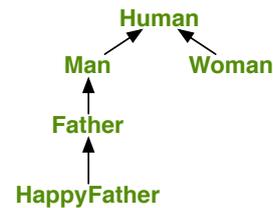
Reasoning on concept expressions

An interpretation \mathcal{I} is a **model** of a concept C if $C^{\mathcal{I}} \neq \emptyset$.

Basic reasoning tasks:

- 1 **Concept satisfiability**: does C admit a model?
- 2 **Concept subsumption** $C \sqsubseteq D$: does $C^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq D^{\mathcal{I}}$ hold for all interpretations \mathcal{I} ?

Subsumption is used to build the concept hierarchy:



Note: (1) and (2) are mutually reducible if DL is propositionally closed.



Complexity of reasoning on concept expressions

Complexity of concept satisfiability: [DLNN97]

AL, ALN	PTIME
$ALU, ALUN$	NP-complete
ALE	coNP-complete
$ALC, ALCN, ALCI, ALCQI$	PSPACE-complete

Observations:

- Two sources of complexity:
 - union (\cup) of type NP,
 - existential quantification (\exists) of type coNP.
 When they are combined, the complexity jumps to PSPACE.
- Number restrictions (N) do not add to the complexity.



Structural properties vs. asserted properties

We have seen how to build complex **concept and roles expressions**, which allow one to denote classes with a complex structure.

However, in order to represent real world domains, one needs the ability to **assert properties** of classes and relationships between them (e.g., as done in UML class diagrams).

The assertion of properties is done in DLs by means of an **ontology** (or knowledge base).



Description Logics ontology (or knowledge base)

Is a pair $\mathcal{O} = \langle \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A} \rangle$, where \mathcal{T} is a **TBox** and \mathcal{A} is an **ABox**:

Def.: Description Logics **TBox**

Consists of a set of **assertions** on concepts and roles:

- Inclusion assertions on concepts: $C_1 \sqsubseteq C_2$
- Inclusion assertions on roles: $R_1 \sqsubseteq R_2$
- Property assertions on (atomic) roles:

(transitive P)	(symmetric P)	(domain $P C$)	
(functional P)	(reflexive P)	(range $P C$)	\dots

Def.: Description Logics **ABox**

Consists of a set of **membership assertions** on individuals:

- for concepts: $A(c)$
- for roles: $P(c_1, c_2)$ (we use c_i to denote individuals)



Description Logics knowledge base – Example

Note: We use $C_1 \equiv C_2$ as an abbreviation for $C_1 \sqsubseteq C_2, C_2 \sqsubseteq C_1$.

TBox assertions:

- Inclusion assertions on concepts:
 - $\text{Father} \equiv \text{Human} \sqcap \text{Male} \sqcap \exists \text{hasChild}$
 - $\text{HappyFather} \sqsubseteq \text{Father} \sqcap \forall \text{hasChild}.(\text{Doctor} \sqcup \text{Lawyer} \sqcup \text{HappyPerson})$
 - $\text{HappyAnc} \sqsubseteq \forall \text{descendant}.\text{HappyFather}$
 - $\text{Teacher} \sqsubseteq \neg \text{Doctor} \sqcap \neg \text{Lawyer}$
- Inclusion assertions on roles:
 - $\text{hasChild} \sqsubseteq \text{descendant}$ $\text{hasFather} \sqsubseteq \text{hasChild}^{-}$
- Property assertions on roles:
 - (**transitive descendant**), (**reflexive descendant**), (**functional hasFather**)

ABox membership assertions:

- $\text{Teacher}(\text{mary}), \text{hasFather}(\text{mary}, \text{john}), \text{HappyAnc}(\text{john})$



Semantics of a Description Logics knowledge base

The semantics is given by specifying when an interpretation \mathcal{I} **satisfies** an assertion:

- $C_1 \sqsubseteq C_2$ is satisfied by \mathcal{I} if $C_1^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq C_2^{\mathcal{I}}$.
- $R_1 \sqsubseteq R_2$ is satisfied by \mathcal{I} if $R_1^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq R_2^{\mathcal{I}}$.
- A property assertion (**prop P**) is satisfied by \mathcal{I} if $P^{\mathcal{I}}$ is a relation that has the property **prop**.
 (Note: domain and range assertions can be expressed by means of concept inclusion assertions.)
- $A(c)$ is satisfied by \mathcal{I} if $c^{\mathcal{I}} \in A^{\mathcal{I}}$.
- $P(c_1, c_2)$ is satisfied by \mathcal{I} if $(c_1^{\mathcal{I}}, c_2^{\mathcal{I}}) \in P^{\mathcal{I}}$.

We adopt **the unique name assumption**, i.e., $c_1^{\mathcal{I}} \neq c_2^{\mathcal{I}}$, for $c_1 \neq c_2$.



Models of a Description Logics ontology

Def.: **Model** of a DL knowledge base

An interpretation \mathcal{I} is a **model** of $\mathcal{O} = \langle \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A} \rangle$ if it satisfies all assertions in \mathcal{T} and all assertions in \mathcal{A} .

\mathcal{O} is said to be **satisfiable** if it admits a model.

The fundamental reasoning service from which all other ones can be easily derived is . . .

Def.: **Logical implication**

\mathcal{O} **logically implies** an assertion α , written $\mathcal{O} \models \alpha$, if α is satisfied by all models of \mathcal{O} .



TBox reasoning

- **Concept Satisfiability:** C is satisfiable wrt \mathcal{T} , if there is a model \mathcal{I} of \mathcal{T} such that $C^{\mathcal{I}}$ is not empty, i.e., $\mathcal{T} \not\models C \equiv \perp$.
- **Subsumption:** C_1 is subsumed by C_2 wrt \mathcal{T} , if for every model \mathcal{I} of \mathcal{T} we have $C_1^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq C_2^{\mathcal{I}}$, i.e., $\mathcal{T} \models C_1 \sqsubseteq C_2$.
- **Equivalence:** C_1 and C_2 are equivalent wrt \mathcal{T} if for every model \mathcal{I} of \mathcal{T} we have $C_1^{\mathcal{I}} = C_2^{\mathcal{I}}$, i.e., $\mathcal{T} \models C_1 \equiv C_2$.
- **Disjointness:** C_1 and C_2 are disjoint wrt \mathcal{T} if for every model \mathcal{I} of \mathcal{T} we have $C_1^{\mathcal{I}} \cap C_2^{\mathcal{I}} = \emptyset$, i.e., $\mathcal{T} \models C_1 \sqcap C_2 \equiv \perp$.
- **Functionality implication:** A functionality assertion (**funct** R) is logically implied by \mathcal{T} if for every model \mathcal{I} of \mathcal{T} , we have that $(o, o_1) \in R^{\mathcal{I}}$ and $(o, o_2) \in R^{\mathcal{I}}$ implies $o_1 = o_2$, i.e., $\mathcal{T} \models (\text{funct } R)$.

Analogous definitions hold for role satisfiability, subsumption, equivalence, and disjointness.



Reasoning over an ontology

- **Ontology Satisfiability:** Verify whether an ontology \mathcal{O} is satisfiable, i.e., whether \mathcal{O} admits at least one model.
- **Concept Instance Checking:** Verify whether an individual c is an instance of a concept C in \mathcal{O} , i.e., whether $\mathcal{O} \models C(c)$.
- **Role Instance Checking:** Verify whether a pair (c_1, c_2) of individuals is an instance of a role R in \mathcal{O} , i.e., whether $\mathcal{O} \models R(c_1, c_2)$.
- **Query Answering:** see later ...



Reasoning in Description Logics – Example

TBox:

- Inclusion assertions on concepts:
 - $\text{Father} \equiv \text{Human} \sqcap \text{Male} \sqcap \exists \text{hasChild}$
 - $\text{HappyFather} \sqsubseteq \text{Father} \sqcap \forall \text{hasChild}.(\text{Doctor} \sqcup \text{Lawyer} \sqcup \text{HappyPerson})$
 - $\text{HappyAnc} \sqsubseteq \forall \text{descendant}.\text{HappyFather}$
 - $\text{Teacher} \sqsubseteq \neg \text{Doctor} \sqcap \neg \text{Lawyer}$
- Inclusion assertions on roles:
 - $\text{hasChild} \sqsubseteq \text{descendant}$ $\text{hasFather} \sqsubseteq \text{hasChild}^{-}$
- Property assertions on roles:
 - (**transitive descendant**), (**reflexive descendant**), (**functional hasFather**)

The above TBox logically implies: $\text{HappyAncestor} \sqsubseteq \text{Father}$.

- Membership assertions:
 - $\text{Teacher}(\text{mary}), \text{hasFather}(\text{mary}, \text{john}), \text{HappyAnc}(\text{john})$

The above TBox and ABox logically imply: $\text{HappyPerson}(\text{mary})$



Complexity of reasoning over DL ontologies

Reasoning over DL ontologies is much more complex than reasoning over concept expressions:

Bad news:

- without restrictions on the form of TBox assertions, reasoning over DL ontologies is already **ExpTime-hard**, even for very simple DLs (see, e.g., [Don03]).

Good news:

- We can add a lot of expressivity (i.e., essentially all DL constructs seen so far), while still staying within the `EXPTIME` upper bound.
- There are DL reasoners that perform reasonably well in practice for such DLs (e.g, Racer, Pellet, Fact++, ...) [MH03].



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 - DLs to specify ontologies
 - DLs vs. OWL
 - DLs vs. UML Class Diagrams
- 5 Queries in Description Logics
- 6 The *DL-Lite* family of tractable Description Logics



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 - The *DL-Lite* family
 - Syntax of *DL-Lite_F* and *DL-Lite_R*
 - Semantics of *DL-Lite*
 - Properties of *DL-Lite*
 - Syntax and Semantics of *DL-Lite_A*



The *DL-Lite* family

- Is a family of DLs optimized according to the tradeoff between expressive power and data complexity of query answering.
- We present first two incomparable languages of this family, *DL-Lite_F*, *DL-Lite_R* (we use *DL-Lite* to refer to both).
- We will see that *DL-Lite* has nice computational properties:
 - PTIME in the size of the TBox (schema complexity)
 - LOGSPACE in the size of the ABox (data complexity)
 - enjoys FOL-rewritability
- We will see that *DL-Lite_F* and *DL-Lite_R* are in some sense the maximal DLs with these nice computational properties, which are lost if the two logics are combined, and with minimal additions of constructs.
- We will see, however, that a restricted combination of *DL-Lite_F* and *DL-Lite_R* is possible, without losing the computational properties.

Hence, *DL-Lite* provides a positive answer to our basic questions, and sets the foundations for Ontology-Based Data Access.

Chapter III

Linking ontologies to data



Outline

- 7 The impedance mismatch problem
- 8 Ontology-Based Data Access Systems
- 9 Query answering in Ontology-Based Data Access Systems



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- 7 The impedance mismatch problem
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Managing ABoxes

In the traditional DL setting, it is assumed that the data is maintained in the **ABox** of the ontology:

- The ABox is perfectly compatible with the TBox:
 - the vocabulary of concepts, roles, and attributes is the one used in the TBox.
 - The ABox “stores” abstract objects, and these objects and their properties are those returned by queries over the ontology.
- There may be different ways to manage the ABox from a physical point of view:
 - Description Logics reasoners maintain the ABox in main-memory data structures.
 - When an ABox becomes large, managing it in secondary storage may be required, but this is again handled directly by the reasoner.



Data in external sources

There are several situations where the assumptions of having the data in an ABox managed directly by the ontology system (e.g., a Description Logics reasoner) is not feasible or realistic:

- When the ABox is very large, so that it requires relational database technology.
- When we have no direct control over the data since it belongs to some external organization, which controls the access to it.
- When multiple data sources need to be accessed, such as in Information Integration.

We would like to deal with such a situation by keeping the data in the external (relational) storage, and performing **query answering** by leveraging the capabilities of the **relational engine**.



The impedance mismatch problem

We have to deal with the **impedance mismatch problem**:

- Sources store data, which is constituted by values taken from concrete domains, such as strings, integers, codes, ...
- Instead, instances of concepts and relations in an ontology are (abstract) objects.

Solution:

- We need to specify how to construct from the data values in the relational sources the (abstract) objects that populate the ABox of the ontology.
- This specification is embedded in the mappings between the data sources and the ontology.

Note: the **ABox** is only **virtual**, and the objects are not materialized.



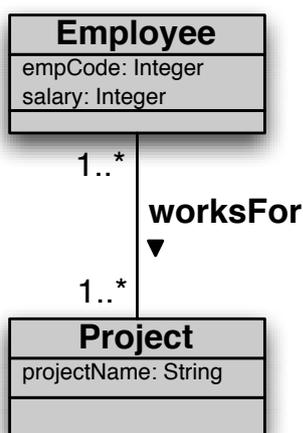
Solution to the impedance mismatch problem

We need to define a **mapping language** that allows for specifying how to transform data into abstract objects:

- Each mapping assertion maps:
 - a query that retrieves values from a data source to ...
 - a set of atoms specified over the ontology.
- Basic idea: use **Skolem functions** in the atoms over the ontology to “generate” the objects from the data values.
- Semantics of mappings:
 - Objects are denoted by terms (of exactly one level of nesting).
 - Different terms denote different objects (i.e., we make the unique name assumption on terms).



Impedance mismatch – Example



Actual data is stored in a DB:

- An Employee is identified by her *SSN*.
- A Project is identified by its *name*.

$D_1[SSN: String, PrName: String]$

Employees and Projects they work for

$D_2[Code: String, Salary: Int]$

Employee's Code with salary

$D_3[Code: String, SSN: String]$

Employee's Code with SSN

...

Intuitively:

- An employee should be created from her *SSN*: **pers(SSN)**
- A project should be created from its *Name*: **proj(PrName)**



Creating object identifiers

We need to associate to the data in the tables objects in the ontology.

- We introduce an alphabet Λ of **function symbols**, each with an associated arity.
- To denote values, we use value constants from an alphabet Γ_V .
- To denote objects, we use **object terms** instead of object constants. An object term has the form $f(d_1, \dots, d_n)$, with $f \in \Lambda$, and each d_i a value constant in Γ_V .

Example

- If a person is identified by its *SSN*, we can introduce a function symbol **pers/1**. If *VRD56B25* is a *SSN*, then **pers(VRD56B25)** denotes a person.
- If a person is identified by its *name* and *dateOfBirth*, we can introduce a function symbol **pers/2**. Then **pers(Vardi, 25/2/56)** denotes a person.



Mapping assertions

Mapping assertions are used to extract the data from the DB to populate the ontology.

We make use of **variable terms**, which are like object terms, but with variables instead of values as arguments of the functions.

Def.: **Mapping assertion** between a database and a TBox

A **mapping assertion** between a database \mathcal{D} and a TBox \mathcal{T} has the form

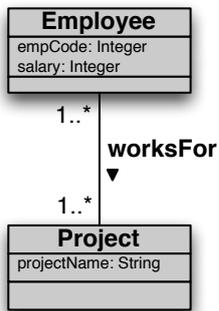
$$\Phi \rightsquigarrow \Psi$$

where

- Φ is an arbitrary SQL query of arity $n > 0$ over \mathcal{D} .
- Ψ is a conjunctive query over \mathcal{T} of arity $n' > 0$ **without non-distinguished variables**, possibly involving variable terms.



Mapping assertions – Example



- $D_1[SSN: String, PrName: String]$
Employees and Projects they work for
- $D_2[Code: String, Salary: Int]$
Employee's Code with salary
- $D_3[Code: String, SSN: String]$
Employee's Code with SSN
- ...

```

m1: SELECT SSN, PrName FROM D1           ~→ Employee(pers(SSN)),
                                           Project(proj(PrName)),
                                           projectName(proj(PrName), PrName),
                                           worksFor(pers(SSN), proj(PrName))

m2: SELECT SSN, Salary FROM D2, D3
      WHERE D2.Code = D3.Code           ~→ Employee(pers(SSN)),
                                           salary(pers(SSN), Salary)
    
```



Outline

- 7 The impedance mismatch problem
- 8 **Ontology-Based Data Access Systems**
- 9 Query answering in Ontology-Based Data Access Systems



Ontology-Based Data Access System

The mapping assertions are a crucial part of an Ontology-Based Data Access System.

Def.: **Ontology-Based Data Access System**

is a triple $\mathcal{O} = \langle \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{D} \rangle$, where

- \mathcal{T} is a TBox.
- \mathcal{D} is a relational database.
- \mathcal{M} is a set of mapping assertions between \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{D} .

We need to specify the syntax and semantics of mapping assertions.



Mapping assertions

A mapping assertion in \mathcal{M} has the form

$$\Phi(\vec{x}) \rightsquigarrow \Psi(\vec{t}, \vec{y})$$

where

- Φ is an arbitrary SQL query of arity $n > 0$ over \mathcal{D} ;
- Ψ is a conjunctive query over \mathcal{T} of arity $n' > 0$ **without non-distinguished variables**;
- \vec{x}, \vec{y} are variables, with $\vec{y} \subseteq \vec{x}$;
- \vec{t} are variable terms of the form $f(\vec{z})$, with $f \in \Lambda$ and $\vec{z} \subseteq \vec{x}$.

Note: we could consider also mapping assertions between the datatypes of the database and those of the ontology.



Semantics of mappings

To define the semantics of an OBDA system $\mathcal{O} = \langle \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{D} \rangle$, we first need to define the semantics of mappings.

Def.: Satisfaction of a mapping assertion with respect to a database

An interpretation \mathcal{I} **satisfies** a mapping assertion $\Phi(\vec{x}) \rightsquigarrow \Psi(\vec{t}, \vec{y})$ in \mathcal{M} **with respect to a database** \mathcal{D} , if for each tuple of values $\vec{v} \in \text{Eval}(\Phi, \mathcal{D})$, and for each ground atom in $\Psi[\vec{x}/\vec{v}]$, we have that:

- if the ground atom is $A(s)$, then $s^{\mathcal{I}} \in A^{\mathcal{I}}$.
- if the ground atom is $P(s_1, s_2)$, then $(s_1^{\mathcal{I}}, s_2^{\mathcal{I}}) \in P^{\mathcal{I}}$.

Intuitively, \mathcal{I} **satisfies** $\Phi \rightsquigarrow \Psi$ w.r.t. \mathcal{D} if all facts obtained by evaluating Φ over \mathcal{D} and then propagating the answers to Ψ , hold in \mathcal{I} .

Note: $\text{Eval}(\Phi, \mathcal{D})$ denotes the result of evaluating Φ over the database \mathcal{D} .
 $\Psi[\vec{x}/\vec{v}]$ denotes Ψ where each x_i has been substituted with v_i .



Semantics of an OBDA system

Def.: **Model** of an OBDA system

An interpretation \mathcal{I} is a **model** of $\mathcal{O} = \langle \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{D} \rangle$ if:

- \mathcal{I} is a model of \mathcal{T} ;
- \mathcal{I} satisfies \mathcal{M} w.r.t. \mathcal{D} , i.e., \mathcal{I} satisfies every assertion in \mathcal{M} w.r.t. \mathcal{D} .

An OBDA system \mathcal{O} is **satisfiable** if it admits at least one model.



Outline

- 7 The impedance mismatch problem
- 8 Ontology-Based Data Access Systems
- 9 Query answering in Ontology-Based Data Access Systems



Answering queries over an OBDA system

In an OBDA system $\mathcal{O} = \langle \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{D} \rangle$

- Queries are posed over the TBox \mathcal{T} .
- The data needed to answer queries is stored in the database \mathcal{D} .
- The mapping \mathcal{M} is used to bridge the gap between \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{D} .

Two approaches to exploit the mapping:

- bottom-up approach: simpler, but less efficient
- top-down approach: more sophisticated, but also more efficient

Note: Both approaches require to first **split** the TBox queries in the mapping assertions into their constituent atoms.



Splitting of mappings

A mapping assertion $\Phi \rightsquigarrow \Psi$, where the TBox query Ψ is constituted by the atoms X_1, \dots, X_k , can be split into several mapping assertions:

$$\Phi \rightsquigarrow X_1 \quad \dots \quad \Phi \rightsquigarrow X_k$$

This is possible, since Ψ does not contain non-distinguished variables.

Example

m_1 : SELECT SSN, PrName FROM D_1 \rightsquigarrow Employee(pers(SSN)),
Project(proj(PrName)),
projectName(proj(PrName), PrName),
worksFor(pers(SSN), proj(PrName))

is split into

m_1^1 : SELECT SSN, PrName FROM D_1 \rightsquigarrow Employee(pers(SSN))
 m_1^2 : SELECT SSN, PrName FROM D_1 \rightsquigarrow Project(proj(PrName))
 m_1^3 : SELECT SSN, PrName FROM D_1 \rightsquigarrow projectName(proj(PrName), PrName)
 m_1^4 : SELECT SSN, PrName FROM D_1 \rightsquigarrow worksFor(pers(SSN), proj(PrName))



Bottom-up approach to query answering

Consists in a straightforward application of the mappings:

- 1 Propagate the data from D through M , materializing an ABox $\mathcal{A}_{M,D}$ (the constants in such an ABox are values and object terms).
- 2 Apply to $\mathcal{A}_{M,D}$ and to the TBox \mathcal{T} , the satisfiability and query answering algorithms developed for $DL-Lite_{\mathcal{A}}$.

This approach has several drawbacks (hence is only theoretical):

- The technique is no more LOGSPACE in the data, since the ABox $\mathcal{A}_{M,D}$ to materialize is in general polynomial in the size of the data.
- $\mathcal{A}_{M,D}$ may be very large, and thus it may be infeasible to actually materialize it.
- Freshness of $\mathcal{A}_{M,D}$ with respect to the underlying data source(s) may be an issue, and one would need to propagate source updates (cf. Data Warehousing).



Top-down approach to query answering

Consists of three steps:

- ① **Reformulation:** Compute the perfect reformulation $q_{pr} = \text{PerfectRef}(q, \mathcal{T}_P)$ of the original query q , using the inclusion assertions of the TBox \mathcal{T} (see later).
- ② **Unfolding:** Compute from q_{pr} a new query q_{unf} by unfolding q_{pr} using (the split version of) the mappings \mathcal{M} .
 - Essentially, each atom in q_{pr} that unifies with an atom in Ψ is substituted with the corresponding query Φ over the database.
 - The unfolded query is such that $\text{Eval}(q_{unf}, \mathcal{D}) = \text{Eval}(q_{pr}, \mathcal{A}_{\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{D}})$.
- ③ **Evaluation:** Delegate the evaluation of q_{unf} to the relational DBMS managing \mathcal{D} .



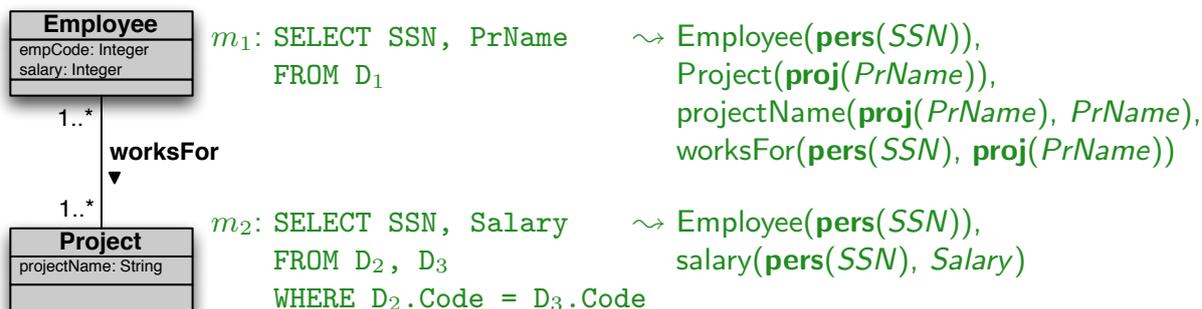
Unfolding

To unfold a query q_{pr} with respect to a set of mapping assertions:

- ① For each non-split mapping assertion $\Phi_i(\vec{x}) \rightsquigarrow \Psi_i(\vec{t}, \vec{y})$:
 - ① Introduce a **view symbol** Aux_i of arity equal to that of Φ_i .
 - ② Add a **view definition** $\text{Aux}_i(\vec{x}) \leftarrow \Phi_i(\vec{x})$.
- ② For each split version $\Phi_i(\vec{x}) \rightsquigarrow X_j(\vec{t}, \vec{y})$ of a mapping assertion, introduce a **clause** $X_j(\vec{t}, \vec{y}) \leftarrow \text{Aux}_i(\vec{x})$.
- ③ Obtain from q_{pr} in all possible ways queries q_{aux} defined over the view symbols Aux_i as follows:
 - ① Find a most general unifier ϑ that unifies each atom $X(\vec{z})$ in the body of q_{pr} with the head of a clause $X(\vec{t}, \vec{y}) \leftarrow \text{Aux}_i(\vec{x})$.
 - ② Substitute each atom $X(\vec{z})$ with $\vartheta(\text{Aux}_i(\vec{x}))$, i.e., with the body the unified clause to which the unifier ϑ is applied.
- ④ The unfolded query q_{unf} is the **union** of all queries q_{aux} , together with the view definitions for the predicates Aux_i appearing in q_{aux} .



Unfolding – Example



We define a view Aux_i for the source query of each mapping m_i .

For each (split) mapping assertion, we introduce a clause:

$\text{Employee}(\mathbf{pers}(\text{SSN})) \leftarrow Aux_1(\text{SSN}, \text{PrName})$
 $\text{projectName}(\mathbf{proj}(\text{PrName}), \text{PrName}) \leftarrow Aux_1(\text{SSN}, \text{PrName})$
 $\text{Project}(\mathbf{proj}(\text{PrName})) \leftarrow Aux_1(\text{SSN}, \text{PrName})$
 $\text{worksFor}(\mathbf{pers}(\text{SSN}), \mathbf{proj}(\text{PrName})) \leftarrow Aux_1(\text{SSN}, \text{PrName})$
 $\text{Employee}(\mathbf{pers}(\text{SSN})) \leftarrow Aux_2(\text{SSN}, \text{Salary})$
 $\text{salary}(\mathbf{pers}(\text{SSN}), \text{Salary}) \leftarrow Aux_2(\text{SSN}, \text{Salary})$



Unfolding – Example (cont'd)

Query over ontology: employees who work for tones and their salary:

$q(e, s) \leftarrow \text{Employee}(e), \text{salary}(e, s), \text{worksFor}(e, p), \text{projectName}(p, \text{tones})$

A unifier between the atoms in q and the clause heads is:

$\vartheta(e) = \mathbf{pers}(\text{SSN})$ $\vartheta(s) = \text{Salary}$
 $\vartheta(\text{PrName}) = \text{tones}$ $\vartheta(p) = \mathbf{proj}(\text{tones})$

After applying ϑ to q , we obtain:

$q(\mathbf{pers}(\text{SSN}), \text{Salary}) \leftarrow \text{Employee}(\mathbf{pers}(\text{SSN})), \text{salary}(\mathbf{pers}(\text{SSN}), \text{Salary}),$
 $\text{worksFor}(\mathbf{pers}(\text{SSN}), \mathbf{proj}(\text{tones})),$
 $\text{projectName}(\mathbf{proj}(\text{tones}), \text{tones})$

Substituting the atoms with the bodies of the unified clauses, we obtain:

$q(\mathbf{pers}(\text{SSN}), \text{Salary}) \leftarrow Aux_1(\text{SSN}, \text{tones}), Aux_2(\text{SSN}, \text{Salary}),$
 $Aux_1(\text{SSN}, \text{tones}), Aux_1(\text{SSN}, \text{tones})$



Exponential blowup in the unfolding

When there are multiple mapping assertions for each atom, the unfolded query may be exponential in the original one.

Consider a query: $q(y) \leftarrow A_1(y), A_2(y), \dots, A_n(y)$

and the mappings: $m_i^1: \Phi_i^1(x) \rightsquigarrow A_i(\mathbf{f}(x))$ (for $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$)
 $m_i^2: \Phi_i^2(x) \rightsquigarrow A_i(\mathbf{f}(x))$

We add the view definitions: $\text{Aux}_i^j(x) \leftarrow \Phi_i^j(x)$

and introduce the clauses: $A_i(\mathbf{f}(x)) \leftarrow \text{Aux}_i^j(x)$ (for $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}, j \in \{1, 2\}$).

There is a single unifier, namely $\vartheta(y) = \mathbf{f}(x)$, but each atom $A_i(y)$ in the query unifies with the head of two clauses.

Hence, we obtain one unfolded query

$$q(\mathbf{f}(x)) \leftarrow \text{Aux}_1^{j_1}(x), \text{Aux}_2^{j_2}(x), \dots, \text{Aux}_n^{j_n}(x)$$

for each possible combination of $j_i \in \{1, 2\}$, for $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$.

Hence, we obtain 2^n **unfolded queries**.



Computational complexity of query answering

From the top-down approach to query answering, and the complexity results for *DL-Lite*, we obtain the following result.

Theorem

Query answering in a *DL-Lite* OBDM system $\mathcal{O} = \langle \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{D} \rangle$ is

- ① **NP-complete** in the size of the query.
- ② **PTime** in the size of the **TBox** \mathcal{T} and the **mappings** \mathcal{M} .
- ③ **LogSpace** in the size of the **database** \mathcal{D} .

Note: The LOGSPACE result is a consequence of the fact that query answering in such a setting can be reduced to evaluating an SQL query over the relational database.



Query reformulation – Reduce step

Consider now the query $q(x) \leftarrow \text{teaches}(x, y), \text{teaches}(z, y)$

and the PI $\text{Professor} \sqsubseteq \exists \text{teaches}$

as a logic rule: $\text{teaches}(z, f(z)) \leftarrow \text{Professor}(z)$

This PI does not apply to $\text{teaches}(x, y)$ or $\text{teaches}(z, y)$, since y is in join, and we would introduce the skolem term in the rewritten query.

However, we can transform the above query by **unifying** the atoms $\text{teaches}(x, y)$ and $\text{teaches}(z, y)$. This rewriting step is called **reduce**, and produces the query

$$q(x) \leftarrow \text{teaches}(x, y)$$

Now, we can apply the PI above, and add to the reformulation the query

$$q(x) \leftarrow \text{Professor}(x)$$



Query reformulation – Summary

Reformulate the CQ q into a set of queries: apply to q and the computed queries in all possible ways the PIs in the TBox \mathcal{T} :

$$\begin{array}{llll}
 A_1 \sqsubseteq A_2 & \dots, A_2(x), \dots & \rightsquigarrow & \dots, A_1(x), \dots \\
 \exists P \sqsubseteq A & \dots, A(x), \dots & \rightsquigarrow & \dots, P(x, _), \dots \\
 \exists P^- \sqsubseteq A & \dots, A(x), \dots & \rightsquigarrow & \dots, P(_, x), \dots \\
 A \sqsubseteq \exists P & \dots, P(x, _), \dots & \rightsquigarrow & \dots, A(x), \dots \\
 A \sqsubseteq \exists P^- & \dots, P(_, x), \dots & \rightsquigarrow & \dots, A(x), \dots \\
 \exists P_1 \sqsubseteq \exists P_2 & \dots, P_2(x, _), \dots & \rightsquigarrow & \dots, P_1(x, _), \dots \\
 P_1 \sqsubseteq P_2 & \dots, P_2(x, y), \dots & \rightsquigarrow & \dots, P_1(x, y), \dots \\
 \dots & & &
 \end{array}$$

($_$ denotes an **unbound** variable, i.e., a variable that appears only once)

This corresponds to exploiting ISAs, role typing, and mandatory participation to obtain new queries that could contribute to the answer.

Unifying atoms can make rules applicable that were not so before.

The UCQ resulting from this process is the **perfect reformulation** $r_{q, \mathcal{T}}$.



Query reformulation algorithm

Algorithm $PerfectRef(q, \mathcal{T}_P)$

Input: conjunctive query q , set of $DL-Lite_{\mathcal{R}}$ Pls \mathcal{T}_P

Output: union of conjunctive queries PR

$PR := \{q\};$

repeat

$PR' := PR;$

for each $q \in PR'$ **do**

for each g in q **do**

for each Pl I in \mathcal{T}_P **do**

if I is applicable to g

then $PR := PR \cup \{q[g/(g, I)]\}$

for each g_1, g_2 in q **do**

if g_1 and g_2 unify

then $PR := PR \cup \{\tau(reduce(q, g_1, g_2))\};$

until $PR' = PR;$

return PR

Notice that NIs do not play any role in the reformulation of the query.



ABox storage

ABox \mathcal{A} stored as a **relational database** in a standard RDBMS as follows:

- For each **atomic concept** A used in the ABox:
 - define a **unary relational table** tab_A
 - populate tab_A with each $\langle c \rangle$ such that $A(c) \in \mathcal{A}$
- For each **atomic role** P used in the ABox,
 - define a **binary relational table** tab_P
 - populate tab_P with each $\langle c_1, c_2 \rangle$ such that $P(c_1, c_2) \in \mathcal{A}$

We denote with **DB**(\mathcal{A}) the database obtained as above.



Query answering in $DL-Lite_{\mathcal{F}}$

If we limit our attention to PIs, we can say that $DL-Lite_{\mathcal{F}}$ ontologies are $DL-Lite_{\mathcal{R}}$ ontologies of a special kind (i.e., with no PIs between roles).

As for NIs and functionality assertions, it is possible to prove that they can be disregarded in query answering over satisfiable $DL-Lite_{\mathcal{F}}$ ontologies.

From this the following result follows immediately.

Theorem

Let \mathcal{T} be a $DL-Lite_{\mathcal{F}}$ TBox, \mathcal{T}_P the set of PIs in \mathcal{T} , q a CQ over \mathcal{T} , and let $r_{q,\mathcal{T}} = \text{PerfectRef}(q, \mathcal{T}_P)$. Then, for each ABox \mathcal{A} such that $\langle \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A} \rangle$ is satisfiable, we have that $\text{cert}(q, \langle \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A} \rangle) = \text{Eval}(\text{SQL}(r_{q,\mathcal{T}}), \text{DB}(\mathcal{A}))$.

In other words, query answering over a satisfiable $DL-Lite_{\mathcal{F}}$ ontology is FOL-rewritable.



Satisfiability of ontologies with only PIs

Let us now consider the problem of establishing whether an ontology is satisfiable.

Remember that solving this problem allow us to solve TBox reasoning and identify cases in which query answering is meaningless.

A first notable result tells us that PIs alone cannot cause an ontology to become unsatisfiable.

Theorem

Let $\mathcal{O} = \langle \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A} \rangle$ be either a $DL-Lite_{\mathcal{R}}$ or a $DL-Lite_{\mathcal{F}}$ ontology, where \mathcal{T} contains **only PIs**. Then, \mathcal{O} is satisfiable.



Complexity of query answering over satisfiable ontologies

Theorem

Query answering over both $DL-Lite_{\mathcal{R}}$ and $DL-Lite_{\mathcal{F}}$ ontologies is

- 1 **NP-complete** in the size of **query and ontology** (combined comp.).
- 2 **PTime** in the size of the **ontology**.
- 3 **LogSpace** in the size of the **ABox** (data complexity).

Proof (sketch).

- 1 **Guess** the derivation of one of the CQs of the perfect reformulation, and an assignment to its existential variables. Checking the derivation and evaluating the guessed CQ over the ABox is then polynomial in combined complexity. NP-hardness follows from combined complexity of evaluating CQs over a database.
- 2 The number of CQs in the perfect reformulation is polynomial in the size of the TBox, and we can compute them in PTIME.
- 3 Is the data complexity of evaluating FOL queries over a DB. □



Complexity of ontology satisfiability

Theorem

Checking satisfiability of both $DL-Lite_{\mathcal{R}}$ and $DL-Lite_{\mathcal{F}}$ ontologies is

- 1 **PTime** in the size of the **ontology** (combined complexity).
- 2 **LogSpace** in the size of the **ABox** (data complexity).

Proof (sketch).

Follows directly from the algorithm for ontology satisfiability and the complexity of query answering over satisfiable ontologies. □



Complexity of TBox reasoning

Theorem

TBox reasoning over both $DL-Lite_{\mathcal{R}}$ and $DL-Lite_{\mathcal{F}}$ ontologies is **PTime** in the size of the **TBox** (schema complexity).

Proof (sketch).

Follows from the previous theorem, and from the reduction of TBox reasoning to ontology satisfiability. Indeed, the size of the ontology constructed in the reduction is polynomial in the size of the input TBox. \square



Beyond $DL-Lite$

Can we further extend these results to more expressive ontology languages?

Essentially NO!
(unless we take particular care)



