

Chapter 4

RDF: Resource Description Framework

Recall (cf. Slide 37)

The *Relational Model* is a specialization of First-Order Logic:

- no function symbols. Only constant literals.
- entity-type relations:
collect data about instances of a certain entity type,
property names given by the attributes of the relation schema
- relationship-type relations:
represent instances (binary or n -ary) relationship types,
relationship name given by the table name

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THE SEMANTIC WEB DATA AND KNOWLEDGE MODEL

Combination of several concepts:

- Data Model: RDF (Resource Description Framework)
 - simple logical data model
 - things: resources; Web aspect: *Web-wide Uniform Resource Identifiers*
 - statements express properties: subject-predicate-object
- Metadata: RDF Schema
 - conceptual model: classes, subclasses and properties
 - classes and properties are also resources and can be described.
(i.e., “second-order”)
 - descriptions about classes and properties allow to draw conclusions for their instances.
- database-style format + XML representation
- so far: more database-style than knowledge-base or ontology
- OWL: higher-level conceptual model
based on description logic (a fragment of FOL), “sliced” in complexity levels

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DESIGN AND USE OF A DOMAIN ONTOLOGY

Design

- define the concepts (using RDFS): names of classes, class hierarchy, properties
- define a schema for URIs
- all people then use this schema and these names

Use

- make statements with the given vocabulary about things identified by the URIs

Global Semantics

- ... just collect all statements.
- since all use the same URIs things will easily fit together.

⇒ The Web as a global data source

- query evaluation?
- incompleteness, inconsistencies, junk & fakes.

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RDF: RESOURCE DESCRIPTION FRAMEWORK

RDF is another specialization of First-Order Logic without function symbols.

Extension of the ideas of conceptual modeling (ER-Model, UML) and a restricted subset of first-order logic:

- (globally) agreed identifiers of elements of the domain as constants,
- literal constants,
- concepts (as unary predicates, e.g., *Country(germany)*; usually with capital first letter),
- properties as binary relationships, e.g.,
capital(germany,berlin) , or *(germany, capital, berlin)*; usually with non-capital first letter.

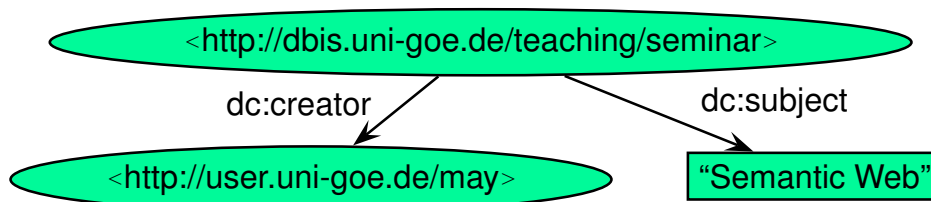
Model: RDF Graph + derived knowledge

- derived knowledge: by RDFS and OWL built-in notions

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4.1 RDF: Idea and Overview

- first Working Draft: 1997
- triple-based “RDF statements”: (*subject*, *predicate*, *object*)
- graphical representation (\Rightarrow RDF graph), “N3” Unicode representation, XML representation
- *subject* and *object* are *resources* (cf. terminology for XLink)
the object can also be a literal value (of an XML Schema datatype).
- a resource is everything ... that can be described by a URI
(graphical notation: an ellipse)
 - a Web page, a book, a lecture ...
 - the resource identifiers are usually denoted with `<...>` to distinguish them from simple strings



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Example: Dublin Core

“Dublin Core”: a set of properties for describing (HTML Web) documents (defined at a metadata workshop in Dublin/Ohio 1995).

- Title: A name given to the resource.
- Creator: An entity primarily responsible for making the content of the resource.
- Subject: The topic of the content of the resource.
- Description: An account of the content of the resource.
- Publisher: An entity responsible for making the resource available.
- Contributor: An entity responsible for making contributions to the content of the resource.
- Date
- Type: The nature or genre of the content of the resource.
- Language: A language of the intellectual content of the resource.

etc ... see `<http://dublincore.org/documents/dces/>`

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RDF MODEL AND TRIPLES

- Initial goal: semantic description of things on the Web (i.e., Web pages and parts of them)
author, keywords, *annotation* of links
goal: semantics-driven Web indexing and search engines
 - Information about real (Web) resources (*Triples, Statements*):
(<http://dbis.uni-goe.de> <dc:creator> “Wolfgang May”)
(<http://dbis.uni-goe.de> <dc:subject> “Database Group”)
(<http://dbis.uni-goe.de/teaching/semweb/> <dc:type> “Lecture”)
 - The Semantic Web intention was not only to annotate things, but also to *relate* them:
(<http://dbis.uni-goe.de> <uni:offers-lecture>
 <http://dbis.uni-goe.de/teaching/semweb/>)
 - This requires *relationships* from other domains.
 - some “things” are also not real HTTP Web pages (e.g., persons)
(the above “early” examples mix Web pages, strings, and persons or lectures in a dirty way)
- ⇒ generic notion of *resources*
(note: properties are also resources)

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URIs AND URLS

Things that are not “real” resources that have a URL (e.g. in HTTP) get a virtual *Unified Resource Identifier (URI)*, e.g.

(<http://user.cs.uni-goe.de/~may> <dc:creator> <de:person-D-12345678>)

and can then be described:

(<http://user.cs.uni-goe.de/~may> <uni:position> <uni:Professor>)
(<http://user.cs.uni-goe.de/~may> <bla:lives> <geo://country-de/city-goettingen>)
(<http://user.cs.uni-goe.de/~may> <bla:e-mail> <mailto:may@cs.uni-goe.de>)

RDF for Data Integration

- information contained in the triples is independent from where they are located, and from their order.
- RDF files (knowledge bases) in different places that use the same URIs for “things” and the same “names” for properties can be easily combined.
- these “names” are taken from *domain ontologies*.

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URIs AND URLs

URI according to RFC 2396 (<<http://www.ietf.org/rfc/rfc2396.txt>>)

- a URI can be a locator (URL), a “name” (URN), or a “general” URI.
General form: <*scheme:hierarchical_part*>
- URIs: a sequence of characters; often with a hierarchical structure
- URLs are those URIs that identify resources via their physical access mechanism (i.e., http, ftp, gopher, file, ...), in general their *schema* part names the protocol.
<<http://www.informatik.uni-goettingen.de/people.html>>
<<mailto:may@informatik.uni-goettingen.de>>
<<news:de.comp.text.tex>>
- URI schemes can be “registered” at <<http://www.IANA.org>>(Internet Assigned Numbers Authority).
example (non-registered): <[isbn:3-89722-153-5](http://www.isbn.org)>
- URIs serve as agreed *identifiers* in a certain community
- some of them are valid URLs, some of them not.

RDF uses general URIs, not only URLs.

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SEMANTICS OF URIs AND URLs

URIs: mainly just identifiers, can be URLs

“Typical” Objects

- Objects are resources. Their URIs can be URLs or purely virtual.
- applications that use them load some given RDF files that describe them and evaluate these files.

Properties and Classes

- They are also resources (i.e., not the name string like “City”, but some URI like <[geo://country-de/city-goettingen](http://www.geonames.org)>)
(note for later: classes do not have “names”, since any user-defined properties must only be applied to first-order objects)
- for querying, their URIs are just identifiers
- for an application, there *can* be an actual description of a notion at the place that is identified by the URL,
- then, an application can find this information.

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SYNTAX OF URIS AND URLS

- General form: *scheme:hierarchical_part*
- short form: when only a single document is used, *#name* is sufficient – it is expanded to *url-of-the-document#name*.
- all representations (N3, RDF/XML) allow to use *prefixes* (cf. XML Namespaces) that hide the actual schema, e.g.,
 - declare `prefix monmeta: <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#>`
`prefix mon: <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/>`
 - use `monmeta:Country` as class name
(stands for `<http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#Country>`)
 - use `monmeta:capital` as property name
 - use `<http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/countries/D>` as URI for Germany
 - use
`<http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/countries/D/provinces/Berlin/cities/Berlin>`
as URI for Berlin
- there is no commitment that these URLs actually exist or what can be found there!

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URIS AS WEB-WIDE IDENTIFIERS

- The identifiers carry non-logical semantics as “names” throughout the (Semantic) Web.
- URIs are agreed in the same way as property names by the domain ontology designer. Real URLs and virtual URIs can be arbitrarily mixed.
- URIs to be used Web-wide can be defined freely
 - referring to the URL of the file where they are defined
(this becomes more concrete with “Linked Open Data (LOD)” (since ~2010); cf. Slides 267 ff.).
 - defining a URI that is completely different from the file’s URL
- all members of a “community” can describe the resources in RDF.

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RDF REPRESENTATIONS AND NOTATIONS

- as triple “database”: “N-triple” (next section)
- graphical: as a graph (illustrated in the next section)
- an RDF/XML representation that represents the RDF data, used for data exchange (for every RDF database there are multiple RDF/XML serializations)
- note that although RDF data looks like a large table with three columns, it cannot be stored directly in SQL: the *subject* and *object* column must hold URIs, strings and numbers.
 - similarity with *vertically partitioned* storage of relational databases (cf. Slide 37): each predicate is stored in a binary relation.

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TOOLS

The W3C RDF Validator

- <http://www.w3.org/RDF/Validator/>
- input: RDF/XML
- output: Graph and/or triples

A lightweight JENA-based locally installed tool

- JENA (<http://jena.sourceforge.net>) is a Java-based Semantic Web Framework that supports RDF/RDFS, several types of OWL reasoning, and the SPARQL language; optionally an underlying relational database system can be used.
- see Web page of the lecture for further information.

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4.2 The “N3” RDF Notation

- Triple-“Statements” `subj pred obj .`
(Alternatives: `subj has pred obj .` or `obj is pred of subj .`)
- URIs: as `<uri>`
- Literals may occur as objects: as numbers (e.g. 42) or strings (e.g., “John Doe”).
- Short form for `x p y1 .` and `x p y2 .`: `x p y1, y2 .`
`<#john> <#child> <#alice>, <#bob> .`
- Short form for `x p1 x1 .` and `x p2 x2 .`: `x p1 y1; p2 y2 .`
`<#alice> <#age> 10; <#name> “Alice” .`

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EXAMPLE: N3

- example: use most simple “URI”s

```
<family:john> <family:name> "John"; <family:age> 35;
    <family:hasChild> <family:alice>, <family:bob> .
<family:alice> <family:name> "Alice"; <family:age> 10 .
<family:bob> <family:name> "Bob"; <family:age> 8 .
```

[Filename: RDF/family.n3]

Query language: SPARQL (details later)

```
select ?X ?N
from <file:family.n3>
where {?X <family:name> ?N}
```

[Filename: RDF/family.sparql]

- user interface of the local Jena-based tool: see Web page
here: `jena -q -qf family.sparql`
- more on the use of URIs later.

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LITERALS IN RDF

- Literals are strings ("John") and numbers (42, 3.1415, 1.23E26)

```
select ?X ?N ?A
from <file:family.n3>
where {?X <family:name> ?N . ?X <family:age> ?A }
```

[Filename: RDF/family-age.sparql]

- Literals can be associated with *XML Schema Datatypes* xsd:int (numbers), xsd:decimal (with dec. point) , xsd:double (with exponent/mantissa).
- full syntax `"string"^^datatype-url`,
e.g. `"42"^^<http://www.w3.org/2001/XMLSchema#int>`
(note: the "... " must also be present for numeric datatypes)
- String literals can be associated with languages, e.g. "München"@DE, "Munich"@EN, "Monaco"@IT.

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URIS AS IDENTIFIERS ACROSS RDF FILES

- URIs: allow for "referencing" things across RDF files
- simplest "full" form: <schema:name>; typical for examples:

```
<family:john> <family:name> "John"; <family:age> 35;
    <family:hasChild> <family:alice>, <family:bob> .
<family:alice> <family:name> "Alice"; <family:age> 10 .
<family:bob> <family:name> "Bob"; <family:age> 8 .
```

[Filename: RDF/family.n3]

```
<family:mary> <family:name> "Mary"; <family:age> 32;
    <family:married> <family:john>;
    <family:hasChild> <family:alice>, <family:bob> .
```

[Filename: RDF/family2.n3]

```
select ?X ?C ?A
from <file:family.n3>
from <file:family2.n3>
where {?X <family:hasChild> ?C . ?C <family:age> ?A }
```

[Filename: RDF/family-both.sparql]

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URIs: LOCAL IDENTIFIERS

- if only a local part of the URI is given, it is by default extended with the document URL (yielding a *local* uri):

```
<#john> <#name> "John"; <#age> 35; <#child> <#alice>, <#bob> .  
<#alice> <#name> "Alice"; <#age> 10 .  
<#bob> <#name> "Bob"; <#age> 8 .
```

[Filename: RDF/john-local.n3]

```
select ?X ?Y ?N  
from <file:john-local.n3>  
where {?X ?Y ?N}
```

[Filename: RDF/john-local.sparql]

Result (among others):

```
X / <file:///homewap1/may/teaching/SemWeb/RDF/john-local.n3#alice>  
Y / <file:///homewap1/may/teaching/SemWeb/RDF/john-local.n3#name>  
N / "Alice"
```

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URIs: LOCAL IDENTIFIERS IN QUERIES

- files with local URIs can be queried via HTTP
- combine the URI of the file + local part

```
select ?X ?N  
from <http://dbis.informatik.uni-goettingen.de/Teaching/SemWeb/RDF/john-local.n3>  
where {?X <http://dbis.informatik.uni-goettingen.de/Teaching/SemWeb/RDF/john-local.n3#name> ?N}
```

[Filename: RDF/john-http.sparql]

- change the default expansion: use “base” for a relative addressing in the query:

```
base <http://dbis.informatik.uni-goettingen.de/Teaching/SemWeb/RDF/john-local.n3>  
select ?X ?Y  
from <http://dbis.informatik.uni-goettingen.de/Teaching/SemWeb/RDF/john-local.n3>  
where {?X <#name> ?Y}
```

[Filename: RDF/john-base.sparql]

- result e.g.,
X/<http://dbis.informatik.uni-goettingen.de/Teaching/SemWeb/RDF/john-local.n3#bob>,
Y/“Bob”
- Note: “base” is used in the application (here: SPARQL),
not in N3 (although, RDF/XML has xml:base!)

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LOCAL URIs: ADDING STATEMENTS TO “REMOTE” SCOPES

Even the use of *local* URIs cannot prevent others (by other RDF files) from adding statements to that scope:

```
<http://dbis.informatik.uni-goettingen.de/Teaching/SemWeb/RDF/john-local.n3#mary>  
<http://dbis.informatik.uni-goettingen.de/Teaching/SemWeb/RDF/john-local.n3#married>  
<http://dbis.informatik.uni-goettingen.de/Teaching/SemWeb/RDF/john-local.n3#john>.
```

[Filename: RDF/mary-remote.n3]

```
base <http://dbis.informatik.uni-goettingen.de/Teaching/SemWeb/RDF/john-local.n3>  
select ?X ?Y ?A  
from <http://dbis.informatik.uni-goettingen.de/Teaching/SemWeb/RDF/john-local.n3>  
from <file:mary-remote.n3>  
where {?X <#married> ?Y . ?Y <#age> ?A}
```

[Filename: RDF/mary-http.sparql]

- note that adding resources or facts to things in “foreign” scopes is also a danger in RDF and in the Semantic Web.

⇒ “Trust” is an important keyword for SW applications.

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URIs IN THE SEMANTIC WEB

Base URIs are often used for distinguishing ontologies

- e.g., <http://purl.org/dc/elements/1.1/> is the base URL for the Dublin Core Ontology that defines notions for annotating documents with authors etc.
- <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/> could be a base URI for defining the notions used in Mondial
 - entity types (Country, City) and property names (has-capital) as e.g. [.../10/meta#Country](http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#Country)
 - recall that entity instances are also resources that have a URI in this scope: e.g. [.../10/countries/D/provinces/Berlin/cities/Berlin](http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/countries/D/provinces/Berlin/cities/Berlin)
 - see later for details how to design this.
- ... first continue with syntax.

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N3 PREFIX NOTATION

define *@prefix pre:* *<uri>*.

and then use expressions *pre:qname*

These expressions expand to *<uri qname>*.

```
@prefix : <foo://bla/names#> .
@prefix family: <foo://bla/persons/> .
  family:john :name "John"; :age 35; :hasChild family:alice, family:bob.
  family:alice :name "Alice"; :age 10 .
  family:bob :name "Bob"; :age 8 .
```

[Filename: RDF/john.n3]

Equivalent:

```
<foo://bla/persons/john> <foo://bla/names#name> "John"; <foo://bla/names#age> 35;
  <foo://bla/names#child> <foo://bla/persons/alice>, <foo://bla/persons/bob>.
<foo://bla/persons/alice> <foo://bla/names#name> "Alice"; <foo://bla/names#age> 10 .
<foo://bla/persons/bob> <foo://bla/names#name> "Bob"; <foo://bla/names#age> 8 .
```

[Filename: RDF/john-expanded.n3]

- Note: hierarchically structured URLs begin with “//”
(the Jena SPARQL tool otherwise complains)

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EXPANSION OF PREFIXES

illustrate the equivalence by stating the same query against both N3 “fact bases”:

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>      # we need only this for the :name predicate
select ?X ?N
from <file:john.n3>
where {?X :name ?N}
```

[Filename: RDF/john.sparql]

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
select ?X ?N
from <file:john-expanded.n3>
where {?X :name ?N}
```

[Filename: RDF/john-expanded.sparql]

- all positions are subject to expansion.

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N3 PREFIX NOTATION: COMMENTS

- empty prefix: define “@prefix : uri” and just use “:qname”
- additionally, a set of non-empty prefixes can be defined as “@prefix pre: uri” and use “pre:qname”
- the results are URIs “below” the URI that is defined for the prefix
- usually, the prefix uris end with “#”, or with “/”
 - “#”: generates expressions like (“hash-namespace”) `foo://bla/names#age` (which is a property), or `foo://bla/names#Country` (which is a class), or `foo://bla/names#alice` (which is an individual).
 - “/”: generates expressions like (“slash-namespace”) `<foo://bla/persons/alice>` (which is an individual).
 - without these that results just in a string concatenation.
- note that after *prefix*: only qnames are allowed. Usage with paths like `pre:qname1/qname2` is not allowed.
- note the similarity with the use of *namespaces* in XML:
`xmlns = uri use <elementname>`
`xmlns:ns = uri use <uri:elementname>`

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MERGING RDF DATA

- easy Web-wide data integration when using agreed *URIs* and *notions*.
- just load several RDF files into one model: same URIs are identified.

```
@prefix : <foo://bla/names#> .
@prefix family: <foo://bla/persons/> .
  family:jack :name "Jack"; :age 65; :hasChild family:john .
  family:kate :name "Kate"; :hasChild family:john .
```

[Filename: RDF/parents.n3]

- `foo://bla/names#` is the same URL base as earlier in `john.n3`:

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
select ?P ?N
from <file:john.n3>
from <file:parents.n3>
where {?X :name ?P . ?X :hasChild ?Y . ?Y :name ?N }
```

[Filename: RDF/parents.sparql]

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URIs AND ONTOLOGIES

- the URIs will usually be organized in an *ontology*.
- note: these URIs can also be URLs that refer to something useful – the RDF+Metadata world is a complex one.
 - later with RDFS and OWL.

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4.3 SPARQL: An RDF Query Language

- Basis: conjunctive queries over triples,
- syntactically very similar and equivalent to Datalog queries,
- variables with multiple occurrences act as *join variables*,
- mixed with SQL-style syntax.

```
// SPARQL
select ?P ?N
from <url>                # optional, multiple input graphs
where {?X :name ?P . ?X :hasChild ?Y . ?Y :name ?N }
```

is the same as

```
// DATALOG
?- name(_X, P), child(_X, _Y), name(_Y, N).
```

- instead ?X, also \$X can be written.
- SPARQL's FROM does not correspond to SQL's selection of input relations, but to accessing multiple databases (cf. SchemaSQL)

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BASIC SPARQL SYNTAX

```
SELECT result variables
FROM input
WHERE { dot-separated sequence of triple-patterns and FILTER expressions }
```

- capitalization of keywords is optional
- triple-pattern: $x\ y\ z$ as above
- FILTER expression: `FILTER (predicate expression over variables and literals)`
(see also Functions & Operators in SPARQL)

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
select ?P ?A
from <file:john.n3>
where {?X :name ?P . ?X :age ?A . FILTER ( ?A > 30 ) }
```

[Filename: RDF/age-test.sparql]

- Object lists: $x\ p\ y_1, y_2$
- Predicate lists: $x\ p_1\ y_1; p_2\ y_2;$

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SPARQL on a Database: Playing with Mondial

- above family examples: minimal toy examples
- Mondial: `mondial.n3` and `mondial-europe.n3` see Web page

RDF and SPARQL: Class Membership

- RDF built-in predicate: `rdf:type` for “is a” in RDF namespace
`<http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#>`
`family:john rdf:type family:Person .`
- Short form: “a” (to be used without prefix!)

```
prefix mon: <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#>

SELECT ?C ?N
FROM <file:mondial-europe.n3>
WHERE { ?C a mon:Country; mon:name ?N }
```

[Filename: RDF/mondial-simple.sparql]

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SPARQL: BASICS OF FORMAL SEMANTICS

- RDF Terms: (“terms” is a bad terminology; actually these are the constant symbols)
 - IRI: the set of all IRIs (Internationalized Resource Identifiers)
 - RDF-L: the set of all RDF Literals
 - RDF-B: the set of all blank nodes (see later)
 - RDF-T = IRI \cup RDF-L \cup RDF-B
- Var: set of variables
- *Triple Pattern P*: an element of (RDF-T \cup Var) \times (IRI \cup Var) \times (RDF-T \cup Var)
(this allows literals at subject position which does not match anything)
- *Basic Graph Pattern*: a set of triple patterns.

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SPARQL: Basics of Formal Semantics (Cont'd)

... consider again BGPs over RDF-Terms and variables:

- a *mapping* μ from Var to RDF-T is a *partial* function $\mu : \text{Var} \rightarrow \text{RDF-T}$.
(also called “(answer) substitutions” or “tuples of variable bindings”; cf. Datalog)
for (*?X mon:capital ?Y*), e.g. $\mu_1 = \{X \mapsto \langle \text{germany} \rangle, Y \mapsto \langle \text{berlin} \rangle\}$
- $\text{dom}(\mu) := \{v \in \text{Var} : \mu(v) \text{ is defined}\}$
- for a BGP P , let $\text{var}(P) \subseteq \text{Var}$ denote the set of variables that occur in P .
- for a BGP P and a mapping μ s.t. $\text{dom}(\mu) \supseteq \text{var}(P)$, $\mu(P)$ denotes the replacement of every $v \in \text{Var}$ in P by $\mu(v)$.
 - $\mu(P)$ is a (ground) instance of P , i.e. a small RDF graph;
 - standard logic terminology: here the mapping is seen as a substitution (i.e., a syntactic mapping) that yields a ground instance of an expression.
- for a BGP P and an RDF graph G , an *answer substitution* is any substitution $\mu : \text{var}(P) \rightarrow \text{RDF-T}$ such that $\mu(P) \subseteq G$
(modulo blank node renaming, which can be done by using don't care variables in the query).
- The answer set to a BGP wrt. a graph G is the set of all answer substitutions.

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SPARQL: QUERYING METADATA

It is totally natural in RDF and SPARQL to query also metadata:

- which properties does John have?

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
prefix family: <foo://bla/persons/>
select ?P
from <file:john.n3>
where { family:john ?P ?Y }
```

[Filename: RDF/john-properties.sparql]

- cf. SchemaSQL and F-Logic (“history” part of the SSD&XML lecture)
- especially, F-Logic (1989) had a strong influence on later languages for semistructured data, knowledge representation and the Semantic Web.

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SPARQL: DISTINCT

- which properties does John have, remove duplicates?

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
prefix family: <foo://bla/persons/>
select distinct ?P
from <file:john.n3>
where { family:john ?P ?Y }
```

[Filename: RDF/john-distinct-properties.sparql]

- correctly removes duplicates.

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SPARQL: OPTIONAL CONJUNCTS

{ OPTIONAL { *group pattern* } }

binds the variables in the inner pattern if it is satisfied:

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
SELECT ?N ?A
FROM <file:john.n3>
FROM <file:parents.n3>
WHERE { ?X :name ?N . OPTIONAL { ?X :age ?A } }
```

[Filename: RDF/optional-age.sparql]

will always bind ?N, but ?A will be bound only if the age is known.

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SPARQL: OPTIONAL (Cont'd)

- note: Filter inside OPTIONAL have local scope:

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
SELECT ?N ?A
FROM <file:john.n3>
FROM <file:parents.n3>
WHERE { ?X :name ?N .
        OPTIONAL { ?X :age ?A . FILTER (?A < 60) } }
```

[Filename: RDF/optional-age-2.sparql]

will always bind ?N, but ?A will be bound only if the age is known, and is less than 60.

If the age of ?X is known, but ≥ 60 , the OPTIONAL part will simply bind nothing, but it will not evaluate to “false”.

- How to express “list ?X if no age is known or if its age is known to be less than 60”?
(i.e. “if the age may be less than 60”)
(see later)

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SPARQL: OPTIONAL (Cont'd)

Example

OPTIONAL is bound all-or-nothing:

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
SELECT ?N1 ?N2 ?A1 ?A2
FROM <file:john.n3>
FROM <file:parents.n3>
WHERE { ?X1 :name ?N1 . ?X2 :name ?N2 . FILTER (?X1 != ?X2)
        OPTIONAL { ?X1 :age ?A1 . ?X2 :age ?A2}}
```

[Filename: RDF/age-pairs.sparql]

The result bindings contain the ages only if for *both* persons, the age is given.

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SPARQL: Nested OPTIONAL

Nested OPTIONAL:

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
SELECT ?N ?A ?C
FROM <file:john.n3>
FROM <file:parents.n3>
WHERE { ?X :name ?N .
        OPTIONAL { ?X :age ?A . FILTER (?A < 60)
                  OPTIONAL { ?X :hasChild ?Y . ?Y :name ?C }}}}
```

[Filename: RDF/age-and-children.sparql]

Only when an age less than 60 is given, then also the children are optionally returned.

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SPARQL FILTER CONDITIONS

- atomic comparisons (=, <, ≤, >, ≥) with variables and constants as usual, string, date etc. predicates (see manual),
- logical connectives NOT (“!”), AND (“&&”), OR (“||”) as usual,
- BOUND(?X) ... evaluates to true if ?X is bound in an answer,
- special predicates isIRI(?X), isLiteral(?X), etc. (see manual)

Semantics of Predicates on unbound variables

- (?X=?Y) when one of them is not bound: unknown (W3C Doc: error)

```
prefix mon: <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#>
select ?N ?P
from <file:mondial-europe.n3>
where { {?C a mon:City; mon:name ?N . OPTIONAL { ?C mon:population ?P } }
        # FILTER ((?P > 10000)) # try this also
        FILTER (!(?P > 10000)) }
```

[Filename: RDF/negatedcomparison.sparql]

- returns only those where population is known and < 10000.

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SPARQL: NEGATION

- !BOUND(?X) is the only form of negation in SPARQL.
- OPTIONAL together with filtering can be used for checking that a property is *not* satisfied:

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
SELECT ?N ?A
FROM <file:john.n3>
FROM <file:parents.n3>
WHERE { ?X :name ?N .
        OPTIONAL { ?X :age ?A . FILTER (?A > 60) }
        FILTER (!BOUND(?A)) } [Filename: RDF/optional-age-negated.sparql]
```

- OPTIONAL binds ?A if an age is given and > 60, and then FILTER removes those where ?A is bound.
- people without an age or with age < 60 are returned.
- equivalent to “Negation as Failure” in Logic Programming.
- equivalent semantics in *defeasible logics*: “people where it is consistent to assume that their age could be < 60”.

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Another Example: Closed World Negation

- all countries that are not (known to be) neighbors of each other
- Close the predicate “neighbor” for the query: “neighbor does *only* hold for the pairs where it is explicitly known”.

```
prefix  mon: <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#>

SELECT  ?C1 ?C2
FROM <file:mondial-europe.n3>
WHERE
  { ?C1 a mon:Country . ?C2 a mon:Country
  OPTIONAL
  { ?C1 mon:neighbor ?X . FILTER ( ?X = ?C2 ) }
  FILTER ( ! BOUND(?X) ) }
```

[Filename: RDF/no-neighbor1.sparql]

- The closing of the predicate is restricted to the *query*, but cannot be used in the OWL part.
- more intuitive syntactic sugar has been introduced with SPARQL 1.1 (cf. Slide 159).

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Another Variant of the same Query

- all countries that are not (known to be) neighbors of each other.
- closed predicate “neighbor”: “neighbor does *only* hold for the pairs where it is explicitly known”.

```
prefix  mon: <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#>

SELECT  ?C1 ?C2
FROM <file:mondial-europe.n3>
WHERE
  { ?C1 a mon:Country . ?C2 a mon:Country
  OPTIONAL
  { ?C1 mon:neighbor ?C2 . ?C1 mon:name ?N }
  FILTER ( ! BOUND(?N) ) }
```

[Filename: RDF/no-neighbor2.sparql]

- note: the additional property used in the OPTIONAL must be present for every ?C1 (and should be easy to compute)
- more intuitive syntactic sugar has been introduced with SPARQL 1.1 (cf. Slide 159).

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EXERCISE

- For each country, give the name, and the population.
If more than 1/4 of the population are living in its capital, give also the name and the population of the capital.
- ... to be done before discussing the formal semantics.
- Give the same queries in SQL and in XML/XQuery.

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SPARQL: UNION

- { *subpattern*₁ } UNION { *subpattern*₂ }
- *subpatterns* can bind different variables (recall that in contrast, safety in the *relational calculus* requires that both disjuncts bind the same variables):

```
@prefix : <foo://bla/names#> .      @prefix family: <foo://bla/persons/> .
family:paul :name "Paul"; :age 30; :mother family:kate; :father family:jack.
family:sue :name "Sue"; :age 32; :mother family:kate.
family:peter :name "Peter"; :age 28; :father family:jack; :hasChild family:andy.
family:andy :name "Andy"; :age 4 .  family:kate :name "Kate".
```

[Filename: RDF/father-mother.n3]

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
select ?N ?M ?MN ?F ?FN
from <file:father-mother.n3>
where { ?X :name ?N .
  {{ ?X :mother ?M . OPTIONAL { ?M :name ?MN }} UNION
  { ?X :father ?F . OPTIONAL { ?F :name ?FN }}}}
```

 [Filename: RDF/father-mother.sparql]

- Exercise: if both parents are given, put both into the *same* answer.
(Note: in the relational algebra, this is called a *full outer join*).

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SPARQL: NAMED GRAPHS

The RDF model can distinguish between stored graphs:

- Default Graph and Named Graphs
- Default Graph specified by FROM *<uri>*
- Named Graphs specified by FROM NAMED *<uri>*.

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
SELECT ?X ?N ?Y ?M
FROM NAMED <file:john.n3>
FROM NAMED <file:father-mother.n3>
WHERE { { GRAPH <file:john.n3> { ?X :name ?N }}
        UNION
        { GRAPH <file:father-mother.n3> { ?Y :name ?M }}}}
```

[Filename: RDF/read-graph.sparql]

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SPARQL: Named Graphs

- which individuals are listed with properties in both graphs?

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
SELECT ?X ?P1 ?P2
FROM NAMED <file:parents.n3>
FROM NAMED <file:father-mother.n3>
WHERE { { GRAPH <file:parents.n3> { ?X ?P1 ?Y1 }}
        .
        { GRAPH <file:father-mother.n3> { ?X ?P2 ?Y2 }}}}
```

[Filename: RDF/both-graphs.sparql]

- Can be used e.g. for loading multiple graphs and constraining properties to the data of only some of them.

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SPARQL: Disjunction

- Recall: logical “or” is allowed inside filters on conditions.

```
prefix : <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#>
select ?XN ?P ?A
from <file:mondial-europe.n3>
where { ?X a :Country; :name ?XN; :population ?P; :area ?A
       filter (?P > 50000000 || ?A > 400000) }
```

[Filename: RDF/or.sparql]

How to express a more complex disjunction?

Give all cities that are the capital of a country or the headquarter of an organization, or both.

Give also the respective country and/or organization

```
PREFIX : <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#>
SELECT ?XN ?CC ?A
FROM <file:mondial-europe.n3>
WHERE { ?X a :City; :name ?XN
        OPTIONAL { ?C a :Country ; :carCode ?CC; :capital ?X }
        OPTIONAL { ?O :hasHeadq ?X; :abbrev ?A }
        FILTER (BOUND(?C) || BOUND(?O)) }
```

[Filename: RDF/disjunction.sparql]

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SPARQL RESULT MODIFIERS

- formal semantics: yields a set of *answer substitutions* $\mu : \text{var}(P) \rightarrow \text{RDF-T}$.
- cf. SQL: SELECT *expression*, XQuery: return *expression*
- ORDER BY: SELECT ... WHERE ... ORDER BY *directives*
where *directives* is a sequence of expressions of the forms
 - *variable*, equivalent ASC(*variable*), and
 - DESC(*variable*)
- Projection: SELECT *variables* FROM ... WHERE ...
- DISTINCT: SELECT DISTINCT *variables*
- LIMIT *n*: only a given number of results
- OFFSET *k*: start with the *k*-th solution
- Syntax: SELECT ... WHERE ... [ORDER BY ...] [LIMIT *n*] [OFFSET *k*].
(note that combination of ORDER BY, LIMIT and OFFSET can be used for e.g. returning the 3rd to 6th largest items etc.)

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VARIABLE ALIASING (E.G. FOR ARITHMETIC EXPRESSIONS)

- similar as in SQL; but always in parentheses:
(*expression AS variable*)

```
prefix  mon: <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#>

SELECT  ?C (?P/?A AS ?Density)
FROM    <file:mondial-europe.n3>
WHERE
  { ?C a mon:Country; mon:population ?P; mon:area ?A }
ORDER BY DESC(?Density)
```

[Filename: RDF/density.sparql]

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SPARQL GRAPH CONSTRUCTORS

- use CONSTRUCT { *dot-separated sequence of triple patterns* } instead of simple SELECT
- returns an RDF Graph instead of variable bindings
- result triples that contain unbound variables (e.g. due to an OPTIONAL) are not added to the graph

```
prefix  : <foo://bla/names#>
construct { ?G :grandchild ?X . ?X :name ?N }
from    <file:john.n3>
from    <file:parents.n3>
where   {?G :hasChild ?P . ?P :hasChild ?X . ?X :name ?N}
```

[Filename: RDF/construct.sparql]

- just to test RDF/XML (see later for details):

```
jena -q -qf construct.sparql -ol RDF/XML -of grandchildren.rdf
```

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SHORTCOMINGS

Some can be solved by extended clause syntax

- No explicit difference/negation operation, only via OPTIONAL + FILTER + !BOUND(X),
- no grouping/aggregation.

Some are inherent to the language design

- SPARQL is not a closed language: input model (RDF) different from result model (sets of variable bindings).

⇒ no nested queries.

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SPARQL AS A CLOSED LANGUAGE?

... would look like this:

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
select ?X
from
  { construct { ?G :grandchild ?X . ?X :name ?N}
    from <file:john.n3>
    from <file:parents.n3>
    where {?G :hasChild ?P . ?P :hasChild ?X . ?X :name ?N}
  }
where { ?X ?P ?Y }
```

[Filename: RDF/construct-nested.sparql]

- Note: this is not yet possible in SPARQL
- Possible Master's Thesis: extend the JENA SPARQL module accordingly.

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COMPARISON WITH MULTIDATABASES

- Multidatabases in the “old” times: a set of autonomous databases that provide correlated contents
- cf. the section on SchemaSQL in the SSD&XML lecture:
SELECT ... FROM db₁::rel₁, db₂::rel₂, ...
(and similar expressions)
- the SPARQL FROM clause also selects multiple input RDF data sources

Current Situation

Seeing the RDF Web as a multidatabase, RDF and SPARQL provide a unified model and language for data integration (via the URIs).

Semantic Web Vision

The actual origin of the RDF data is *not* specified by the user: users query “the Semantic Web” (via a portal) and relevant data sources will be selected transparently.

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4.4 SPARQL: Formal Semantics

SPARQL is based on graph pattern matching:

- input: a graph G ,
- query: consists of
 - Basic Graph Patterns (where clause) – conjunctive query (join)
 - Filters (where clause)
 - Optional (outer join)
 - Union

result modifiers:

- order by (evaluated after query evaluation)
- projection (in the select clause)
- duplicate elimination (in the select clause)
- Similarity with the relational model and a similar algebraic characterization.
- Note that similar to SQL, actual evaluation does not use the algebra directly, but applies optimized algorithms).

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Formal Semantics – Considerations

- strong similarity with relational model
- algebraic, compositional semantics desirable (cf. SQL, OQL, XQuery)
- SPARQL W3C Candidate Recommendation until v.20061004 gave a non-algebraic semantics informally in “natural language” – which is problematic for some cases.
- Strongly Recommended: Jorge Pérez, Marcelo Arenas, Claudio Gutierrez: Semantics and Complexity of SPARQL. International Semantic Web Conference 2006: 30-43 (use <http://www.dblp.org>) [PAG06]
 - develops an algebraic, compositional semantics,
 - gives a formalization of the W3C Semantics, compares both semantics.
- optional, more complex: Renzo Angles, Claudio Gutierrez: The Expressive Power of SPARQL. International Semantic Web Conference 2008: 114-129 [AG08]
- optional, lots of proofs: Jorge Pérez, Marcelo Arenas, Claudio Gutierrez: Semantics and Complexity of SPARQL. ACM Trans. on Database Systems, 34(3):16, 45 pages; 2009.
- title says it all: Jorge Pérez: Semantic Web Research Inspired by W3C Standards, or the Hell of the Practice without Theory. AMW 2012: 19 (tutorial available at <http://users.dcc.uchile.cl/~jperez/talks/amw2012-tutorial.pdf>)

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Formal Semantics – Comparison with SQL

- both are basically conjunctive queries (CQs) – joins;
- SQL: base relations and views: schema: (A_1, \dots, A_n) – attributes are (usually) DB column names;
- SPARQL: tuples of variable bindings (cf. Datalog: matching variables with patterns): (X_1, \dots, X_n) ;
- FILTER is a selection;
- select clause (SPARQL: only finally) applies a projection;
- SPARQL: no nesting of subqueries (but nesting of $\{ \dots \}$ -groups with CQs, OPTIONAL and FILTER);
- OPTIONAL is an outer join (with was a rather rarely used operator in SQL)
⇒ introduces lots of NULL values
(which are much more frequent in the scenario of incomplete knowledge in the Web than in SQL)
- details of NULL values have only been sketched (pragmatically) in the DB lecture (and in the SQL lab)!

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NULL VALUES IN SQL

- NULLs do not violate any integrity constraint, e.g.,

```
CREATE TABLE Country
  ( ..., population NUMBER CHECK (population >= 0), ...)
```
- note that this also holds for referential integrity constraints! e.g.

```
INSERT INTO located VALUES('Berlin',null,'A','Rhein',null,null);
```


is not forbidden!
- NULLs do not satisfy any WHERE condition (except IS NULL)
- Join conditions in SQL are *null-rejecting*;
a join including a null-containing column must use separate IS NULL checks or COALESCE.
(example see next slide)

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NULL Values in SQL - Join Example

```
CREATE VIEW OneProvCountry AS
SELECT country FROM province GROUP BY country HAVING COUNT(*) = 1;

CREATE TABLE city2 as
(
  (SELECT name, province, country, population FROM city
   WHERE country NOT IN (SELECT country FROM OneProvCountry))
 UNION (SELECT name, NULL, country, population FROM city
        WHERE country IN (SELECT country FROM OneProvCountry)));

CREATE TABLE located2 AS
(
  (SELECT city, province, country, river, lake, sea FROM located
   WHERE country NOT IN (select country from OneProvCountry))
 UNION (SELECT city, NULL, country, river, lake, sea FROM located
        WHERE country IN (SELECT country FROM OneProvCountry)));

SELECT c.name, c.population, l.river FROM city2 c, located2 l
WHERE c.name=l.city AND c.province=l.province AND c.country=l.country;
-- 958 results, the ones with NULL province are missing.

SELECT c.name, c.population, l.river FROM city2 c, located2 l
WHERE c.name=l.city
      AND COALESCE(c.province,'bla')=COALESCE(l.province,'bla')
-- note that the condition is not satisfied if one value is null, and the other is not!
      AND c.country=l.country;
-- 1157 results
```

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4.4.1 SPARQL Algebra

(according to [PAG06])

Algebraic Syntax of SPARQL Queries

- deals with the graph pattern part, not the result modifiers (which contains projection and some operators that are also not covered by the relational algebra, like DISTINCT, ORDER BY, LIMIT, OFFSET)
- fully parenthesized
- Triple patterns (cf. Slide 111) in $(\text{RDF-T} \cup \text{Var}) \times (\text{IRI} \cup \text{Var}) \times (\text{RDF-T} \cup \text{Var})$ are graph patterns;
- For graph patterns P_1 and P_2 , the expressions $(P_1 \text{ AND } P_2)$, $(P_1 \text{ OPT } P_2)$, and $(P_1 \text{ UNION } P_2)$ are graph patterns;
- For a graph pattern P and a condition R , $(P \text{ FILTER } R)$ is a graph pattern. (Require filter-safeness: $\text{var}(R) \subseteq \text{var}(P)$; cf. Slide 140)
- $\text{var}(P)$ denotes the variables occurring in a graph pattern P .

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Filter-Safe Graph Patterns

Definition 4.1 ([PAG06, AG 08])

A SPARQL algebra expression is *filter-safe*, if for every subexpression of the form $(P \text{ FILTER } R)$, $\text{var}(R) \subseteq \text{var}(P)$. □

- for the *compositional* semantics the requirement is absolutely necessary – what should be the semantics of $\{(?X \text{ p } ?Y) \text{ FILTER } (?Y > ?Z)\}$?
- The commonly used SPARQL pattern

```
{ ?P1 a :Person;   :age ?A1. ?P2 a :Person
  OPTIONAL { ?P2 :age ?A2 . FILTER ( ?A2 > ?A1 ) }}
```

is not filter-safe. The filter actually formulates a join condition on the outer join:

$$(P_1 \text{ a Person; age } A_1 . P_2 \text{ a Person}) \stackrel{\text{not filter-safe}}{\underset{A_1 < A_2}{\bowtie}} (P_2 \text{ age } A_2)$$

- [AG08] gives an algorithm that transforms a non-filter-safe SPARQL query into a filter-safe algebra expression. (DBTheory: similar to the transformation of general safe formulas into RANF when moving conjuncts into negated subformulas to make them *self-contained*; cf. exercises).
- Non-compositional sideways-information-passing evaluation is often also much more efficient, cf. evaluation of SQL vs. relational algebra.

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Exercise

Recall Slide 123:

- “For each country, give the name, and the population.
If more than 1/4 of the population are living in its capital, give also the name and the population of the capital.”
- check whether your solution is filter-safe. If not, transform it into an equivalent filter-safe query.

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SPARQL Algebra: Mappings/Answer Substitutions

- a *mapping* μ from Var to RDF-T is a *partial* function $\mu : \text{Var} \rightarrow \text{RDF-T}$.
(also called “answer substitutions” or “tuples of variable bindings”; cf. Datalog)
for $(?X \text{ mon:capital } ?Y)$, e.g. $\mu_1 = \{X \mapsto \langle \text{germany} \rangle, Y \mapsto \langle \text{berlin} \rangle\}$
- $\text{dom}(\mu) := \{v \in \text{Var} : \mu(v) \text{ is defined}\}$
- for a SPARQL query P , let $\text{var}(P) \subseteq \text{Var}$ denote the set of variables that occur in P .
- for a triple pattern t , and a mapping μ s.t. $\text{dom}(\mu) \supseteq \text{var}(P)$, $\mu(t)$ denotes the triple obtained by replacing all variables $v \in \text{Var}$ in P by $\mu(v)$.
- two mappings μ_1 and μ_2 are *compatible* if for all $v \in \text{dom}(\mu_1) \cap \text{dom}(\mu_2)$, $\mu_1(v) = \mu_2(v)$, i.e., when $\mu_1 \cup \mu_2$ is also a mapping (with $\text{dom}(\mu) = \text{dom}(\mu_1) \cup \text{dom}(\mu_2)$).
 - cf. definition of joining tuples $\mu_1\mu_2$ in the relational algebra,
 - here using $\text{dom}(\mu)$ (which is flexible wrt. null values) instead of the fixed schema/format of an expression.
- **now consider sets Ω of such mappings (instead of sets of fixed-format tuples in the relational algebra) ...**

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Semantics of Expressions and Operations on Sets of Mappings

Recall: Relational Algebra defines operators π , σ , \bowtie etc. on sets of tuples.

Common general notation: $\llbracket P \rrbracket$ for “semantics of P ”; $\llbracket P \rrbracket_D$ for “wrt. a given graph D ”.

- base case: triple patterns:
 $\llbracket t \rrbracket_D = \{\mu \mid \text{dom}(\mu) = \text{var}(t) \text{ and } \mu(t) \in D\}$.
- operations on sets of mappings:
- projection: not needed here; as a result modifier, it is external to the core algebra.
- selection: next slide.
- $\llbracket (P_1 \text{ UNION } P_2) \rrbracket_D = \llbracket P_1 \rrbracket_D \cup \llbracket P_2 \rrbracket_D$;
- $\llbracket (P_1 \text{ AND } P_2) \rrbracket_D = \llbracket P_1 \rrbracket_D \bowtie \llbracket P_2 \rrbracket_D$ with
 $\Omega_1 \bowtie \Omega_2 = \{\mu_1 \cup \mu_2 \mid \mu_1 \in \Omega_1 \text{ and } \mu_2 \in \Omega_2 \text{ are compatible}\}$;
- $\llbracket (P_1 \text{ OPT } P_2) \rrbracket_D = \llbracket P_1 \rrbracket_D \bowtie \llbracket P_2 \rrbracket_D$ with
 $\Omega_1 \bowtie \Omega_2 = (\Omega_1 \bowtie \Omega_2) \cup (\Omega_1 \setminus \Omega_2)$ where \setminus is defined as
 $\Omega_1 \setminus \Omega_2 = \{\mu_1 \in \Omega_1 \mid \text{for all } \mu_2 \in \Omega_2, \mu_1 \text{ and } \mu_2 \text{ are not compatible}\}$;
 (note that “ \setminus ” here does not denote set difference, but has a different definition).

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Semantics of Expressions and Operations on Sets of Mappings: Filters

Three-valued logic for evaluating conditions when variables are not bound:

- truth values t (true, 1), u (undefined, 0.5), f (false, 0), ordered by $t > u > f$.
- All three-valued logics coincide in the definition of \wedge , \vee , and \neg :

$A \wedge B = \min(A, B)$	$A \vee B = \max(A, B)$	$\neg A = 1 - a$
---------------------------	-------------------------	------------------

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- selection: $\llbracket (P \text{ FILTER } R) \rrbracket_D = \{\mu \in \llbracket P \rrbracket_D \mid \text{val}(R, \mu) = t\}$ with
 - $\text{val}(\text{bound}(?X), \mu) = (X \in \text{dom}(\mu))$ with $(X \in \text{dom}(\mu))$ as truth value $t, f \in \{t, u, f\}$;
 - $\text{val}(?X = ?Y, \mu) = \begin{cases} t & \text{if } X \in \text{dom}(\mu), Y \in \text{dom}(\mu), \text{ and } \mu(X) = \mu(Y) \\ f & \text{if } X \in \text{dom}(\mu), Y \in \text{dom}(\mu), \text{ and } \mu(X) \neq \mu(Y) \\ u & \text{if } X \notin \text{dom}(\mu) \text{ or } Y \notin \text{dom}(\mu); \end{cases}$
 - $\text{val}(?X = c, \mu)$ analogously;
 - for $(R_1 \wedge R_2)$, $(R_1 \vee R_2)$, and $(\neg R_1)$ see above truth tables.

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Bag vs. Set Semantics

- SPARQL (like SQL) has a bag (=multiset) semantics.
- the above algebra (like the relational algebra) is defined wrt set semantics;
- can be generalized to bag semantics.

Exercises

1. define a relational “null-tolerant join” that acts like \bowtie above.
2. which SQL construct is similar to the “\” operator in the above SPARQL algebra?
3. in the above algebra, OPT is expressed via left outer join, which is defined via “\” (while a corresponding MINUS does not exist in the SPARQL syntax).
Such a MINUS (cf. Exercise (2)) provides a more intuitive idea of negation than “!bound(?X)”. Give a general pattern how to express $(P_1 \text{ MINUS } P_2)$ in SPARQL syntax.
4. recall the definition of \bowtie in the relational algebra (DB lecture) and define SPARQL's \bowtie in a similar way.

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Exercise

Prove or show a counterexample:

The statement (from W3C SPARQL Working Draft 20061004)

If $\text{OPT}(A, B)$ is an optional graph pattern, where A and B are graph patterns, then S is a solution of $\text{OPT}(A,B)$ if

- S is a pattern solution of A and of B , or
- S is a solution to A , but not to A and B .

describes the same semantics as above.

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Relationship with Datalog and the Relational Algebra

Theorem 4.1 ([AG08])

- SPARQL (=version 1.0, = the above algebra) has the same expressive power as *non-recursive safe Datalog with negation*.
(recall: non-recursive with negation is stratifiable)
- SPARQL (=version 1.0, = the above algebra) has the same expressive power as the relational algebra (under set semantics, and under bag semantics). □

Proof ([AG08]):

- mapping from SPARQL to the filter-safe algebra expressions;
- mappings between the (filter-safe) SPARQL algebra and Datalog/relational algebra.

Normal Form

Theorem 4.2 ([PAG06])

Every graph pattern is equivalent to a pattern in the *normal form*

$$(P_1 \text{ UNION } \dots \text{ UNION } P_n)$$

where each P_i is a UNION-free graph pattern. □

Proof: UNION is distributive wrt. each of the operators:

- $(P_1 \text{ AND } (P_2 \text{ UNION } P_3)) \equiv (P_1 \text{ AND } P_2) \text{ UNION } (P_1 \text{ AND } P_3)$,
- $((P_1 \text{ UNION } P_2) \text{ OPT } P_3) \equiv (P_1 \text{ OPT } P_3) \text{ UNION } (P_2 \text{ OPT } P_3)$,
- $((P_1 \text{ UNION } P_2) \text{ FILTER } R) \equiv (P_1 \text{ FILTER } R) \text{ UNION } (P_2 \text{ FILTER } R)$,
- note that the case for $(P_1 \text{ OPT } (P_2 \text{ UNION } P_3))$ is harder to prove [PAG09].

Complexity

[PAG06] Consider the problem “is $\mu \in \llbracket P \rrbracket_D$ ”?

So-called “**data complexity**” for fixed P as a function of the size of D :

- The problem is in LOGSPACE (which is a subset of the complexity class P, i.e., it is polynomial).

So-called “**combined complexity**” as a function of P and D :

- Conjunctive queries: the problem is in $O(|P| \cdot |D|)$ for graph patterns containing only AND and FILTER. [PAG06]
- the problem is NP-complete for graph patterns containing only AND, FILTER, and UNION. [PAG06]
- the problem is PSPACE-complete for graph patterns in general. [PAG06]
- the problem is PSPACE-complete for graph patterns over OPT only. [SML10]
[SML10]: M. Schmidt, M. Meier, and G. Lausen: Foundations of SPARQL Query Optimization. In *International Conference on Database Theory (ICDT)*, pp. 4–33. ACM, 2010.

WELL-DESIGNED GRAPH PATTERNS

Definition 4.2 ([PAG06])

A graph pattern is *well-designed* if for every subpattern $P' = (P_1 \text{ OPT } P_2)$: every variable $?X$ that occurs inside P_2 and also outside P' , also occurs in P_1 . □

- Some non-well-designed graph patterns exhibit weird behavior (cf. exercises).
- **Note that “well-designedness” according to [PAG06] excludes negation:** usage of

```
{ pattern(?X1, ..., ?Xn) OPTIONAL { pattern(?Xi1, ..., ?Xik, ?Y) } }  
FILTER (!BOUND(?Y))
```

requires **?Y** to occur inside P_2 , outside P' , but not inside P_1 .

([AP11] argues that (SPARQL closed-world) negation is not appropriate for the open Web scenario with incomplete data)

- The role of well-designed patterns for SPARQL is comparable to the role of conjunctive queries for the relational algebra.

Theorem 4.3 ([PAG09])

Evaluation is coNP-complete for the fragment of SPARQL consisting of well-designed patterns. (which is significantly cheaper than PSPACE for whole SPARQL) □

Well-Designed Graph Patterns (Cont'd)

Theorem 4.4 ([PAG06])

Every *union-free* well-designed graph pattern (without filters) is equivalent to a pattern in the *normal form*

$$((\dots(((t_1 \text{ AND } \dots \text{ AND } t_k) \text{ OPT } O_1) \text{ OPT } O_2) \dots) \text{ OPT } O_n)$$

where each t_i is a triple pattern and each O_j is also in this normal form. □

- + UNION: push up/out according to Theorem 4.2,
- + FILTERS: apply them as early as possible.

ASIDE: WEAK MONOTONICITY

Recall Monotonicity of queries:

- A query Q is *monotonic* if for any databases $D_1 \subseteq D_2$, $\llbracket Q \rrbracket_{D_1} \subseteq \llbracket Q \rrbracket_{D_2}$.

Example 4.1 (A monotonic query)

$Q_1 = \text{select } ?X \text{ where } \{?X \text{ a } :\text{Person}\}$

$D_1 = \{:\text{john a } :\text{Person.}\}$ $D_2 = \{:\text{john a } :\text{Person. } :\text{mary a } :\text{Person.}\}$

$\llbracket Q_1 \rrbracket_{D_1} = \{\{ ?X \mapsto :\text{john}\}\}$ $\llbracket Q_1 \rrbracket_{D_2} = \{\{ ?X \mapsto :\text{john}\}, \{ ?X \mapsto :\text{mary}\}\}$

$\llbracket Q_1 \rrbracket_{D_1} \subseteq \llbracket Q_1 \rrbracket_{D_2}$. □

Example 4.2

$Q_2 = \text{select } ?X ?A \text{ where } \{?X \text{ a } :\text{Person OPTIONAL } \{ ?X :age ?A\}\}$

$D_3 = \{:\text{john a } :\text{Person}; :age 35.\}$

Again, $\llbracket Q_2 \rrbracket_{D_1} = \{\{ ?X \mapsto :\text{john}\}\}$

$\llbracket Q_2 \rrbracket_{D_3} = \{\{ ?X \mapsto :\text{john}, ?A \mapsto 35\}\}$

Here, $\llbracket Q_2 \rrbracket_{D_1} \not\subseteq \llbracket Q_2 \rrbracket_{D_3}$, but “nearly”.

The answer tuple in $\llbracket Q_2 \rrbracket_{D_3}$ *extends* the tuple in $\llbracket Q_2 \rrbracket_{D_1}$ - “more information” □

Weak Monotonicity (cont'd)

[AP11] Marcelo Arenas, Jorge Pérez: Querying Semantic Web data with SPARQL. PODS'11

Definition 4.3 ([AP11])

- For mappings μ_1 and μ_2 , μ_1 *is subsumed by* μ_2 , denoted by $\mu_1 \preceq \mu_2$, if $\text{dom}(\mu_1) \subseteq \text{dom}(\mu_2)$ and $\mu_1(?X) = \mu_2(?X)$ for every $?X \in \text{dom}(\mu_1)$.
- For sets Ω_1 and Ω_2 of mappings, Ω_1 *is subsumed by* Ω_2 , denoted by $\Omega_1 \sqsubseteq \Omega_2$, if for every $\mu_1 \in \Omega_1$, there exists $\mu_2 \in \Omega_2$ such that $\mu_1 \preceq \mu_2$.
- A SPARQL graph pattern P is said to be weakly monotonic if for every pair G_1, G_2 of RDF graphs such that $G_1 \subseteq G_2$, it holds that $\llbracket P \rrbracket_{G_1} \sqsubseteq \llbracket P \rrbracket_{G_2}$. □

The above Q_2 is weakly monotonic.

Theorem 4.5 ([AP11])

Every well-designed graph pattern is weakly monotonic. □

- the converse direction is an open question, but is expected to hold.

Some Observations

- Recall: **Closed-World negation is nonmonotonic**
(additional knowledge may invalidate before conclusions)
- Recall: **Open-World negation is monotonic**
(learning something that was not known to hold or not to hold before may not invalidate any conclusion made before).
- Recall: **Default reasoning (like “normally ... holds”) is nonmonotonic**
(learning that something is an exception from normality may invalidate some conclusions made before).
- weak monotonicity itself excludes that any conclusion made before may be invalidated.

Some Observations (cont'd)

Consider queries Q with an arbitrary `construct` clause instead of a `select` clause (using the same variables):

- for every input RDF graph G , their result $\llbracket Q \rrbracket_G^{\text{construct}}$ is an RDF graph,
 - $\llbracket Q \rrbracket_{G_1} \sqsubseteq \llbracket Q \rrbracket_{G_2}$ implies $\llbracket Q \rrbracket_{G_1}^{\text{construct}} \subseteq \llbracket Q \rrbracket_{G_2}^{\text{construct}}$.
- ⇒ weak monotonicity wrt. sets of tuples of variable bindings implies monotonicity wrt. the constructed graph.
- ⇒ the definition of “weak monotonicity” is only necessary because of the (relational-style) output format of SPARQL queries.
- from the informational point of view, weak monotonicity means monotonicity.

BACK TO “WELL-DESIGNED” QUERIES

Theorem 4.5 then reads as

- Every well-designed graph pattern with `construct` output is monotonic. (which is rather obvious from its normal form)
- if the converse direction –which is expected to hold– holds, every monotonic SPARQL graph mapping can be expressed in the above normal form.

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4.5 SPARQL 1.1 - Syntactic Extensions

- path expressions (by “/”) that consist of two or more subexpressions
- $\wedge \text{expr}$ for inverse (and $\text{expr} \wedge \text{expr}$ for $\text{expr} / \wedge \text{expr}$),
- $\text{expr} \mid \text{expr}$ for alternative,
- expr^+ for transitive closure, $\text{expr}\{n,m\}$ for n to m expr steps.

```
prefix  mon: <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#>
# http://jena.apache.org/documentation/query/property_paths.html

SELECT  ?C ?P ?O ?C2
FROM <file:mondial-europe.n3>
WHERE
  { ?C a mon:Country ;
    mon:capital/mon:population ?P ;
    mon:capital/~mon:hasHeadq ?O ;
    # mon:neighbor+ ?C2 ;
    mon:neighbor{2,4} ?C2 }
```

[Filename: RDF/mondial-path-exprs.sparql]

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SPARQL 1.1 - Syntactic Extensions

- arithmetic and string expressions + aliasing in the select clause
- `str(expr)` for converting URIs into strings, `uri(string)` for creating URIs from strings.

```
prefix mon: <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#>
# http://jena.apache.org/documentation/query/select_expr.html

SELECT ?C (?P/?A as ?D) (uri(concat(str(?CAP),'bla')) as ?U)
FROM <file:mondial-europe.n3>
WHERE
  { ?C a mon:Country ; mon:population ?P ; mon:area ?A;
    mon:capital ?CAP }
```

[Filename: RDF/mondial-select-exprs.sparql]

- “if(a,b,c)” for “if a is true, then use b, else c”,
- “coalesce(*expr*₁, . . . , *expr*_{*n*})” returns the value of the first *expr*_{*i*} that evaluated without error (unbound counts as error).

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SPARQL 1.1 - Syntactic Extensions

- NOT EXISTS pattern in FILTER (syntactic sugar for the !BOUND(*var*) construct)

```
prefix mon: <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#>
# http://jena.apache.org/documentation/query/negation.html

SELECT ?C
FROM <file:mondial-europe.n3>
WHERE
  { ?C a mon:Country
    FILTER NOT EXISTS { ?C mon:neighbor ?C2 } }
```

[Filename: RDF/mondial-not-exists.sparql]

- Official syntax:
 - NOT EXISTS is a boolean truth value function used as *filter*,
 - some implementations accept SQL-style NOT EXISTS in a BGP without the FILTER keyword.

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NOT EXISTS as Relational Difference

Consider again Slide 121:

- “all pairs of countries that are not (known to be) neighbors of each other”.
- The FILTER NOT EXISTS *pattern* can be used for complex negation (relational “anti-join”, including the relational difference).

```
prefix  mon: <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#>
SELECT  ?C1 ?C2
FROM    <file:mondial-europe.n3>
WHERE
  { ?C1 a mon:Country . ?C2 a mon:Country
    FILTER NOT EXISTS { ?C1 mon:neighbor ?C2 }
  }
```

[Filename: RDF/no-neighbor3.sparql]

- Recall: this is *closed-world negation*.

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GROUP BY + HAVING and aggregations

```
prefix  mon: <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#>
# http://jena.apache.org/documentation/query/group-by.html

SELECT  ?C (count(?Cty) AS ?CT)
FROM    <file:mondial-europe.n3>
WHERE
  { ?C a mon:Country ;
    (mon:hasCity|mon:hasProvince/mon:hasCity) ?Cty
  }
GROUP BY ?C
HAVING (count(?Cty) > 1)
```

[Filename: RDF/mondial-group-by.sparql]

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Subqueries

- WHERE { *basic graph pattern* . { SELECT ... [FROM ...] WHERE ... }
- cf. SQL: subqueries in the SQL FROM clause contributing to the join,
- *implicit* join variables,
- no subqueries in the FILTER (SQL's where clause).
- recall from SQL/rel.Algebra: every SQL query with a subquery can be rewritten into an algebra query (which does not allow for subqueries in selection predicates).
- main use: compute some aggregate in the subquery:

```
prefix  mon: <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#>
SELECT  ?X ?MAXPOP
FROM <file:mondial.n3>
WHERE {
    ?X a mon:Country; mon:population ?MAXPOP .
    { SELECT (MAX(?YP) AS ?MAXPOP)
      WHERE { ?Y a mon:Country; mon:population ?YP } }
}
```

[Filename: RDF/biggestcountry.sparql]

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Example with Subquery + GROUP BY

- for each country, give its biggest city, if this has more than 1000000 inhabitants:

```
prefix  mon: <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#>

SELECT  ?Y ?C ?CN ?MP
FROM <file:mondial.n3>
WHERE
  { ?Y a mon:Country ; mon:carCode ?C ;
    mon:hasProvince/mon:hasCity
    [ mon:name ?CN ; mon:population ?MP] .
  { SELECT ?Y (MAX(?YP) AS ?MP)
    WHERE {
      ?Y a mon:Country;
      mon:hasProvince [ mon:hasCity [ mon:population ?YP ]].
      ## mon:hasProvince/mon:hasCity/mon:population ?YP. does not work!
    } GROUP BY ?Y
    HAVING (?MP > 1000000)
  }}
ORDER BY ?MP
```

[Filename: RDF/biggestcities.sparql]

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4.6 RDF vs. Object Identity

- So far, RDF is just a restricted variant of ground (sorted) relational First-Order Logic atoms:
(cf. Slides 200 for a more detailed consideration)
 - only binary predicates
 - literal values and relationships carry semantics
 - URIs as constant symbols
 - no function symbols other than constants
- Sorted domain: URIs and Literals

Existential Knowledge

Sometimes the existence of things is relevant, without actually naming and giving an ID to an object.

- “A parent is a person that has at least one child”
- “John has a child of 12 years”

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BLANK NODES – EXISTENTIAL QUANTIFICATION

- Short form for $\langle x \text{ p } y_1 \cdot \rangle$, $\langle y_1 \text{ q}_1 \text{ z}_1 \cdot \rangle$ and $\langle x \text{ p } y_2 \cdot \rangle$, $\langle y_2 \text{ q}_2 \text{ z}_2 \cdot \rangle$ when the URIs for y_1 and y_2 are not relevant (purely existential “blank nodes”):

$\langle x \text{ p } [q_1 \text{ z}_1], [q_2 \text{ z}_2] \cdot \rangle$

$\langle \#john \rangle \langle \#name \rangle \text{ “John”}; \langle \#age \rangle 35 ;$

$\langle \#child \rangle [\langle \#name \rangle \text{ “Alice”}; \langle \#age \rangle 10] , [\langle \#name \rangle \text{ “Bob”}; \langle \#age \rangle 8] , [\langle \#age \rangle 12] .$

- note that also $\#john$ is just an identifier that contains no actual information (we could also have chosen $\#pers123$ instead). It can also be replaced by using a blank node:

$[\langle \#name \rangle \text{ “John”}; \langle \#age \rangle 35;$

$\langle \#child \rangle [\langle \#name \rangle \text{ “Alice”}; \langle \#age \rangle 10] , [\langle \#name \rangle \text{ “Bob”}; \langle \#age \rangle 8] , [\langle \#age \rangle 12]] .$

RDF “Model”

Equivalent expression in FOL:

$$\begin{aligned} \exists j : & (\text{name}(j, \text{“John”}) \wedge \text{age}(j, 35) \wedge \\ & \wedge \exists a, b, c : (\text{child}(j, a) \wedge \text{child}(j, b) \wedge \text{child}(j, c) \wedge \\ & \wedge \text{name}(a, \text{“Alice”}) \wedge \text{age}(a, 10) \wedge \text{name}(b, \text{“Bob”}) \wedge \text{age}(b, 8) \wedge \text{age}(c, 12))) \end{aligned}$$

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Example: Blank Nodes

```
@prefix : <foo://bla/names#>.
[ :name "John"; :age 35;
  :hasChild [:name "Alice"; :age 10] ,
            [:name "Bob"; :age 8] , [:age 12 ] ] .
```

[Filename: RDF/john-blank.n3]

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
select ?X ?N
from <file:john-blank.n3>
where {?X :name ?N ; :hasChild [:age 12] }
```

[Filename: RDF/john-blank.sparql]

- generated by “[...]” above: “something that satisfies”
- nested “term” syntax for implicit conjunction of atoms, without using identifiers or key references.

[Note that F-Logic terms have a very similar structure]

Example:

Extend the database such that John is married to Mary, who is the mother of both children.

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NAMED BLANK NODES

- blank nodes can also be named by local identifiers of the form “_:localname” that allow for “referencing” things again (existential variables).

```
@prefix : <foo://bla/names#>.
[ :name "John"; :age 35;
  :hasChild _:a, _:b ;
  :married [ :name "Mary"; :hasChild _:a, _:b ] ] .
_:a :name "Alice"; :age 10 .
_:b :name "Bob"; :age 8 .
```

[Filename: RDF/john-married.n3]

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
select ?N ?C ?A
from <file:john-married.n3>
where {?X :hasChild ?C . ?X :name ?N . ?C :age ?A }
```

[Filename: RDF/john-married.sparql]

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PITFALLS OF EXISTENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

Consider again John's family and its logical formalization (Slides 165 and 164).

```
@prefix : <foo://bla/names#>.
[ :name "John"; :age 35;
  :hasChild [:name "Alice"; :age 10] ,
            [:name "Bob"; :age 8] , [:age 12 ] ] .
```

[Filename: RDF/john-blank.n3]

How many children does John have?

- what does a human reader understand?
- is this entailed by the logical formalization?

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Pitfalls of Existential Knowledge (Cont'd)

- Alice:

```
[ :name "John"; :hasChild [:name "Alice"]]
```

- His health insurance:

```
[ :name "John"; :hasChild [:age 10]]
```

- Grandmother:

```
[ :name "John"; :hasChild [:nickname "My sunshine" ]
```

- A neighbor:

```
[ :name "John"; :hasChild [:nickname "The little beast" ] ]
```

How many children does John have?

- merging this yields one RDF graph.
- the *logical formalization* is very similar to the one from the previous slide.

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Pitfalls of Existential Knowledge (Cont'd)

- from the first example, most people conclude that John has three children.
(note that “at least three” would be more exact)
- from the second example (text) many people conclude that all statements describe Alice
- the RDF graph of the second example, most people conclude that there are four children
- formally in all cases: the knowledge bases entail only that John has at least one child!
- for the first example:
 - there is a logical model where there is only one child with three names and a property “age” that has three values.
 - people use meta knowledge that age and name are functional properties. This is not contained in the RDF data!
- OWL allows to express such additional information.
- the next slides anticipate some OWL stuff that will be discussed in detail later.

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Pitfalls of Existential Knowledge (Cont'd)

Show that it is consistent to assume that John has exactly one child:

- define a class `OneChildParent` that restricts the cardinality of `child` to one and make John an instance of it (using OWL; see later):

```
@prefix : <foo://bla/names#>.
@prefix rdf: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#>.
@prefix owl: <http://www.w3.org/2002/07/owl#>.
[ :name "John"; :age 35;
  :hasChild [:name "Alice"; :age 10], [:name "Bob"; :age 8], [:age 12 ];
  rdf:type :OneChildParent].
:OneChildParent owl:equivalentClass [rdf:type owl:Restriction;
  owl:onProperty :hasChild; owl:cardinality 1].
```

[Filename: RDF/john-silly-example.n3]

- how old is Alice (invoke with `-pellet`)?

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
select ?X ?A from <file:john-silly-example.n3>
where {?X :name "Alice" . ?X :age ?A}
```

[Filename: RDF/john-silly-example.sparql]

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Pitfalls of Existential Knowledge (Cont'd)

- Assert that age is a functional property:

```
@prefix : <foo://bla/names#>.
@prefix rdf: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#>.
@prefix owl: <http://www.w3.org/2002/07/owl#>.
[ :name "John"; :age 35;
  :hasChild [:name "Alice"; :age 10], [:name "Bob"; :age 8], [:age 12 ];
  rdf:type :OneChildParent].
:OneChildParent owl:equivalentClass [rdf:type owl:Restriction;
  owl:onProperty :hasChild; owl:cardinality 1].
:age rdf:type owl:FunctionalProperty.
```

[Filename: RDF/john-silly-example-2.n3]

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
select ?X ?A from <file:john-silly-example-2.n3>
where {?X :name "Alice" . ?X :age ?A}
```

[Filename: RDF/john-silly-example-2.sparql]

- pellet complains about an inconsistent ontology.

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Aside: Reasoning under Inconsistency

Consider the situation of the previous slide.

- Semantics of boolean implication:
Any formula of the form $\text{false} \rightarrow \varphi$ is true in any interpretation (equivalent to $\neg \text{false} \vee \varphi$, which is in turn equivalent to $\text{true} \vee \varphi$).
- Given an inconsistent ontology formalization Φ , for every formula φ , $\Phi \models \varphi$ holds:
for every model \mathcal{M} such that $\mathcal{M} \models \Phi$ (note that there are no such \mathcal{M}), also $\mathcal{M} \models \varphi$ holds.
- Tableau Calculus: Given an ontology formalization Φ ,
prove $\Phi \models \varphi$ by starting a tableau over $\Phi \wedge \neg\varphi$ and trying to close it.
If already Φ is inconsistent, any tableau over Φ can be closed without using $\neg\varphi$. Thus,
 $\Phi \vdash_{\text{Tableau}} \varphi$.

For that reason, it is reasonable that a prover even does not start working with an inconsistent ontology.

- research issue: reduce an inconsistent ontology to a consistent subset and prove or refute φ from this.

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Pitfalls of Existential Knowledge (Cont'd)

- Assert that age is a functional property and look what is entailed ...

```
@prefix : <foo://bla/names#>.
@prefix rdf: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#>.
@prefix owl: <http://www.w3.org/2002/07/owl#>.
[ :name "John"; :age 35;
  :hasChild [:name "Alice"; :age 10], [:name "Bob"; :age 8], [:age 12 ]].
:OneChildParent owl:equivalentClass [rdf:type owl:Restriction;
  owl:onProperty :hasChild; owl:cardinality 1].
:TwoChildrenParent owl:equivalentClass [rdf:type owl:Restriction;
  owl:onProperty :hasChild; owl:cardinality 2].
:ThreeChildrenParent owl:equivalentClass [rdf:type owl:Restriction;
  owl:onProperty :hasChild; owl:minCardinality 3].
:age rdf:type owl:FunctionalProperty.
```

[Filename: RDF/john-three-children.n3]

(continue next slide)

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Pitfalls of Existential Knowledge (Cont'd)

```
prefix : <foo://bla/names#>
prefix rdf: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#>
select ?X ?C
from <file:john-three-children.n3>
where { ?X :name "John" . ?X rdf:type ?C }
```

[Filename: RDF/john-three-children.sparql]

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UNIQUE NAME ASSUMPTION (DATALOG)

Datalog makes the *Unique Name Assumption*: different constants denote different things, e.g.

$$\text{sibling}(X, Y) \text{ :- child}(_Z, X), \text{ child}(_Z, Y), X \neq Y.$$

will derive $\text{sibling}(\text{alice}, \text{bob})$ when facts $\text{child}(\text{john}, \text{alice})$ and $\text{child}(\text{john}, \text{bob})$ are given.

NO UNIQUE NAME ASSUMPTION IN RDF

- RDF model theory: objects described by different URIs may be the same!
- even if the children are explicitly described by URIs, the consequences are the same as in the previous example,
- in OWL, it can be explicitly stated that two URIs denote the same or different things.
- equivalence: e.g. used in ontology mapping.
- if no such information is explicitly given, both is assumed to be possible.
- equality or non-equality can be derived (e.g., by declaring a property to be functional) (Note that the same is the case for F-Logic model theory with functional methods.)

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ASIDE: SOME THEORY

Consider the N3 fragment consisting of expressions as follows:

- no explicit subjects,
- no URIs at object positions (only literals and [...] expressions),
- no named blank nodes,
- i.e., constants are only literals and property name URIs.

Expressiveness:

- Only existentially quantified variables.
- can only represent tree-like relationship structures. No cycles (cf. the “mary” example).
- The expressiveness is exactly that of FOL formulas over an alphabet of only two variables. (note that these can be used several times)

Exercise: express the RDF/N3 “database” given on Slide 164 by a first-order formula that uses only two variables.

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SOME THEORY (CONT'D)

- FOL with two variables is decidable,
- satisfiability of first-order formulas that use three variables is in general undecidable (“3-SAT”)!
- restriction to two variables: guarantees a tree-like “structure” of the models (“tree model property”). This locality guarantees decidability.
- for the same reason, also many variants of Description Logics (see later) are decidable. Proofs use the equivalence to modal logics over tree-like Kripke Structures.

This RDF fragment will be relevant later when considering decidable fragments of Description Logics and OWL.

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SEMANTICS: NEGATION

- compare the FOL axiomatizations of John and his family – they always describe only the things that are there, and say nothing about the (non)-existence of other things:
Has John a child of the age of 14?

The database does not find any, but the formula

$$\exists j : (\dots \wedge \exists d : \text{child}(j, d) \wedge \text{age}(d, 14))$$

is consistent – thus it has models. It is actually possible that John has such a child which is simply unknown to the database (“**Open-World-Assumption**” (OWA)).

- another RDF Web source could add RDF triples that describe additional children of John.
- Minimal-Model-based reasoning or SQL databases would answer “no” “**Closed-World-Assumption**” (CWA).
- SPARQL has no negation except the restricted value-based negation shown on Slide 120.
- in general: OWA is more appropriate to the Web.
- so far: SPARQL does only matching on an RDF graph. Later: RDF/RDFS/OWL *model* that extends the graph by further knowledge that is also presented in RDF format.

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4.7 RDF Conceptual Model and Built-in Predicates

... so far, RDF defines just an edge-labeled graph.

RDF provides also a simple type system (which is extended later by RDF Schema):

- the RDF conceptual model knows about class/type membership and properties,
- **rdf:type**: is a special property that assigns a type (means: class membership) to something

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TYPES AND PROPERTIES AS RESOURCES

Extend the “Persons” running example from Slide 103:

```
@prefix : <foo://bla/names#> .
@prefix family: <foo://bla/persons/> .
@prefix rdf: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#> .
  family:john rdf:type :Person; :name "John"; :age 35;
    :hasChild family:alice, family:bob.
  family:alice :name "Alice"; :age 10 .
  family:bob :name "Bob"; :age 8 .
```

[Filename: RDF/john.n3]

- [<foo://bla/persons/john>](#) (and others) are the URIs of objects that are described by the database,
- [<foo://bla/names#Person>](#) is the URI of the class “Person”
- [<foo://bla/names#name>](#) and [<foo://bla/names#age>](#) are the URIs of the property names.

Design *ontologies* in RDF like this.

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ONTOLOGY DESIGN

- separate part for “notions” (often as a “#”-namespace)
- separate part for objects (either as “#”-namespace or as “/”-namespace)
- note that after *prefix*: only qnames are allowed. Usage with paths like *pre:qname₁/qname₂* is not allowed.
- [later in RDF/XML `xml:base` can be used together with paths]

```
@prefix rdf: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#> .
@prefix : <foo://bla/names#> .
@prefix persons: <foo://bla/persons/> .
@prefix cats: <foo://bla/cats/> .
  persons:john rdf:type :Person; :name "John"; :age 35;
    :has_cat cats:garfield.
  cats:garfield rdf:type :Cat; :name "Garfield"; :age 4 .
```

[Filename: RDF/john-and-the-cat.n3]

- There are `<foo://bla/persons/john>` and `<foo://bla/cats/garfield>`.

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ONTOLOGY DESIGN AND QUERY FORMULATION

```
prefix terms: <foo://bla/names#>
prefix rdf: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#>
select ?X ?T ?A
from <file:john-and-the-cat.n3>
where { ?X rdf:type ?T . ?X terms:age ?A }
```

[Filename: RDF/john-and-the-cat.sparql]

- note that most queries only need the prefix for the metadata
- the prefix/base for data is only used when a query explicitly accesses an object by its URI

```
base <foo://bla/>
prefix rdf: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#>
select ?T ?A
from <file:john-and-the-cat.n3>
where { <persons/john> rdf:type ?T ; <names#age> ?A }
```

[Filename: RDF/sparql-base.sparql]

- Alternative: value-based selection of an object
... where { [:name "John" ; rdf:type ?T; :age ?A] }

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METADATA AS RESOURCES

... on the way to more expressive ontology languages:

- Some metadata notions are defined in the rdf namespace
 - @prefix rdf: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#>
 - @prefix rdfs: <http://www.w3.org/2000/01/rdf-schema#>
 - `rdf:type` as a property: `:john rdf:type :Person`
(short syntax in N3: `:john a :Person`)
 - `rdf:Property` as a class: `:hasChild rdf:type rdf:Property`
 - `rdfs:Class` (and `owl:Class`) as a class: `:Person rdf:type rdfs:Class`
- transition/not-so-well-defined language border to RDF Schema (RDFS)
- RDF tools know about `rdf:type`, `rdf:Property`, `rdfs:Class` etc.

note: `rdf:type` non-capitalized (is a property), `rdf:Property` (is a type) capitalized.

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TYPES AND PROPERTIES

- these things are built-in notions that have in pure RDF still no meaning.
- Types are *not* XML Schema complex types (structural typing), but *semantical types*.
- Types/classes and properties are also resources that can be described this way.
- nevertheless, in pure RDF there is no kind of signature or schema; especially also no type constraints on properties.
- it's just data.

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RDF Instance Data and Metadata Examples

- Consider

reasonable: (<http://.../geo#germany> `rdf:type` <http://.../geo#Country>)

reasonable: (<http://.../geo#berlin> `rdf:type` <http://.../geo#City>)

non-reasonable: (<http://.../geo#germany> `rdf:type` <http://.../geo#berlin>)

⇒ things that are of some type should not be types themselves?

- but this crashes with meta-metadata:

reasonable: (<http://.../bio#Penguin> `rdf:type` <http://.../bio#Species>)

reasonable: (<http://.../bio#tweety> `rdf:type` <http://.../bio#Penguin>)

- Consider

reasonable: (http://...#has_capital `rdf:type` `rdf:Property`)

not reasonable: (http://...#has_capital `http://...#has_population` 42)

⇒ a property does not have other properties?

- but this crashes with meta-metadata:

reasonable: (http://.../geo#has_capital `rdf:type` `rdf:Property`)

reasonable: (http://.../geo#has_capital `http://.../meta#has_range` <http://.../geo#City>)

⇒ these “legal” and “non-legal” usages are not enforced by anything. Non-legal usage can lead to severe problems (see Slide 208).

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4.8 Example: Mondial in RDF

- RDF level: structure of URIs, types and relationships
- later: RDFS and OWL add further metadata information and knowledge

Design of the Mondial Ontology

- we chose classes and properties of the Mondial ontology to be identified by
<http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#classname>
- the URIs for identifying countries, organizations etc. are actual URLs formed like
<http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/countries/code>
<http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/countries/code/cities/name>
- Alternatives will be discussed later (with RDF/XML).

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EXAMPLE FRAGMENT

```
@prefix monmeta: <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#> .
@prefix rdf: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#> .
<http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/countries/D>
  rdf:type monmeta:Country ;
  monmeta:name "Germany" ;
  monmeta:code "D" ;
  monmeta:population 83536115 ;
  monmeta:capital
    <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/countries/D/provinces/Berlin/cities/Berlin>.
```

[Filename: RDF/a-bit-mondial.n3]

- Mondial N3 available on the Web site
(note: not yet stable ... still experimenting)
- the type “Country” is <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#Country>
- the property “capital” is <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#capital>
- it would be nice to be able to set @base <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/> for the individuals’ URIs, but this is not supported in N3; see later for RDF/XML.

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```
base <http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/>
prefix rdf: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#>
select ?Y
from <file:a-bit-mondial.n3>
where { <countries/D> rdf:type ?Y }
```

[Filename: RDF/a-bit-mondial.sparql]

Relationship with XML Namespaces

Consider the following XML fragment:

```
<mon:mondial xmlns:mon="http://www.semwebtech.org/mondial/10/meta#">
  <mon:Country car_code="D">
    <mon:name>Germany</mon:name>
  </mon:Country>
</mon:mondial>
```

There’s more behind these namespaces, which is not used in plain XML.

See later with RDF/XML.

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RDF SUMMARY

- more or less simple data model,
- possibility to use property and class names that are agreed Web-wide,
- the idea of URIs,
- the contents of RDF files can be integrated in a natural way via URIs and names.

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4.9 Further Topics

- some additional RDF syntax: Reification and Collections. Later.
- Schema information: RDF Schema
- RDF/RDFS Model Theory + Reasoning
- More than schema information: Ontology specification by Description Logics and OWL
- How to provide RDF data and metadata on the Web?
Later: RDF/XML. It's just another representation of RDF, RDF Schema and OWL data in a special XML syntax.
- What's missing?
- Rules?

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