Finite model reasoning over existential rules

GIOVANNI AMENDOLA, NICOLA LEONE, MARCO MANNA

Department of Mathematics and Computer Science, University of Calabria, Italy (e-mail: {amendola,leone,manna}@mat.unical.it)

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Abstract

Ontology-based query answering (OBQA) asks whether a Boolean conjunctive query is satisfied by all models of a logical theory consisting of a relational database paired with an ontology. The introduction of existential rules (i.e., Datalog rules extended with existential quantifiers in rule-heads) as a means to specify the ontology gave birth to Datalog+/-, a framework that has received increasing attention in the last decade, with focus also on decidability and finite controllability to support effective reasoning. Five basic decidable fragments have been singled out: linear, weakly-acyclic, guarded, sticky, and shy. Moreover, for all these fragments, except shy, the important property of finite controllability has been proved, ensuring that a query is satisfied by all models of the theory iff it is satisfied by all its finite models. In this paper we complete the picture by demonstrating that finite controllability of OBQA holds also for shy ontologies, and it therefore applies to all basic decidable Datalog+/- classes. To make the demonstration, we devise a general technique to facilitate the process of (dis)proving finite controllability of an arbitrary ontological fragment.

KEYWORDS: Existential rules, Datalog, Finite controllability, Finite model reasoning, Query answering.

1 Introduction

The problem of answering a Boolean query q against a logical theory consisting of an extensional database D paired with an ontology Σ is attracting the increasing attention of scientists in various fields of Computer Science, ranging from Artificial Intelligence (Baget et al. 2011; Calvanese et al. 2013; Gottlob et al. 2014) to Database Theory (Bienvenu et al. 2014; Gottlob et al. 2014; Bourhis et al. 2016) and Logic (Pérez-Urbina et al. 2010; Bárány et al. 2014; Gottlob et al. 2013). This problem, called *ontology-based query answering*, for short OBQA (Calì et al. 2009b), is usually stated as $D \cup \Sigma \models q$, and it is equivalent to checking whether q is satisfied by all models of $D \cup \Sigma$ according to the standard approach of first-order logics, yielding an open world semantics.

Description Logics (Baader et al. 2003) and Datalog[±] (Calì et al. 2009a) have been recognized as the two main families of formal knowledge representation languages to specify Σ , while union of (Boolean) conjunctive queries, U(B)CQs for short, is the most common and studied formalism to express q. For both these families, OBQA is generally undecidable (Rosati 2007; Calì et al. 2013). Hence, a number of syntactic decidable fragments of the above ontological languages have been singled out. However, decidability alone is not the only desideratum. For example, a good balance between computational complexity and expressive power is, without any doubt, of high importance too. But there is another property that is turning out to be as interesting as challenging to prove: it goes under the name of *finite controllability* (Rosati 2006). An ontological fragment \mathcal{F} is finitely controllable if, for each triple $\langle D, \Sigma, q \rangle$ with $\Sigma \in \mathcal{F}$, it holds

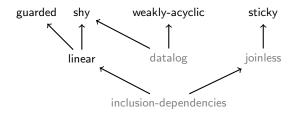


Fig. 1. Taxonomy of the basic Datalog^{\pm} classes.

that $D \cup \Sigma \not\models q$ implies that there is a finite model M of $D \cup \Sigma$ such that $M \not\models q$. This is usually stated as $D \cup \Sigma \models q$ if, and only if, $D \cup \Sigma \models_{fin} q$ (where \models_{fin} stands for entailment under finite models), as the "only if" direction is always trivially true. And there are contexts, like in databases (Johnson and Klug 1984; Rosati 2006; Bárány et al. 2014), in which reasoning with respect to finite models is preferred.

In this paper we focus on the Datalog[±] family, which has been introduced with the aim of "closing the gap between the Semantic Web and databases" (Calì et al. 2012) to provide the *Web* of Data with scalable formalisms that can benefit from existing database technologies. In fact, Datalog[±] generalizes two well-known subfamilies of Description Logics called \mathcal{EL} and DL-Lite, which collect the basic tractable languages for OBQA in the context of the Semantic Web and databases. In particular, we consider ontologies where Σ is a set of *existential rules*, each of which is a first-order formula ρ of the form $\forall X \forall Y(\phi(X, Y) \rightarrow \exists Z p(X, Z))$, where the *body* $\phi(X, Y)$ of ρ is a conjunction of atoms, and the *head* p(X, Z) of ρ is a single atom.

The main decidable Datalog^{\pm} fragments rely on the following five syntactic properties: *weak-acyclicity* (Fagin et al. 2005), *guardedness* (Calì et al. 2013), *linearity* (Calì et al. 2012), *stickiness* (Calì et al. 2010), and *shyness* (Leone et al. 2012). And these properties underlie the basic classes called weakly-acyclic, guarded, linear, sticky, and shy, respectively. Several variants and combinations of these classes have been defined and studied too (Baget et al. 2010; Krötzsch and Rudolph 2011; Calì et al. 2012; Civili and Rosati 2012; Gottlob et al. 2013), as well as semantic properties subsuming the syntactic ones (Baget et al. 2009; Leone et al. 2012).

The five basic classes above are pairwise uncomparable, except for linear which is strictly contained in both guarded and shy, as depicted in Figure 1. Interestingly, both weakly-acyclic and shy strictly contain datalog —the well-known class with rules of the form $\forall \mathbf{X} \forall \mathbf{Y}(\phi(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) \rightarrow p(\mathbf{X}))$, where existential quantification has been dropped. Moreover, sticky strictly contains joinless —the class collecting sets of rules where each body contains no repeated variable. The latter, introduced by Gogacz and Marcinkowski (2013) to prove that sticky is finitely controllable, plays a central role also in this paper. Finally, both linear and joinless strictly contain inclusiondependencies —the well-known class of relational database dependencies collecting sets of rules with one single body atom and no repeated variable.

Under arbitrary models, OBQA can be reduced to the problem of answering q over a universal (or canonical) model U that can be homomorphically embedded into every other model (both finite and infinite) of $D \cup \Sigma$. Therefore, $D \cup \Sigma \models q$ if, and only if, $U \models q$. A way to compute a universal model is to employ the so called *chase* procedure. Starting from D, the chase "repairs" violations of rules by repeatedly adding new atoms —introducing fresh values, called *nulls*, whenever required by an existential variable— until a fixed-point satisfying all rules is reached. In the classical setting, the chase is therefore sound and complete. But when *finite model reason*-

ing (namely reasoning over finite models only, here denoted by \models_{fin}) is required, then the chase is generally uncomplete, unless ontologies are finitely controllable. Hence, proving this property is of utmost importance, especially in those contexts where finite model reasoning is relevant.

Finite controllability of weakly-acyclic comes for free since every ontology here admits a finite universal model, computed by a variant of the chase procedure which goes under the name of *restricted chase* (Fagin et al. 2005). Conversely, the proof of this property for the subsequent three classes has been a very different matter. Complex, yet intriguing, constructions have been devised for linear (Rosati 2006; Bárány et al. 2014), guarded (Bárány et al. 2014), and more recently for sticky (Gogacz and Marcinkowski 2013). To complete the picture, we have addressed the same problem for shy and get the following positive result, which is the main contribution of the paper.

Theorem 1.1

Under shy ontologies, $D \cup \Sigma \models q$ if, and only if, $D \cup \Sigma \models_{fin} q$.

For the proof, we design in Section 3 and exploit in Section 4 a general technique (our second contribution), called *canonical rewriting*, to facilitate the process of (dis)proving finite controllability of an arbitrary ontological fragment of existential rules. By exploiting this technique, we can immediately (re)confirm that linear is finitely controllable since inclusion-dependencies is. In addition, we prove (our third contribution) that sticky-join (Calì et al. 2012), generalizing both sticky and linear, is finitely controllable since sticky is. However, differently from linear and sticky-join, the canonical rewriting of a shy ontology—although it is simpler and still a shy ontology—does not immediately fall in any other known class. Therefore, to prove that shy is finitely controllable, we devise three technical tools on top of the canonical rewriting from which we are able to exploit the fact that joinless is finitely controllable.

2 Ontology-based query answering

Basics. Let C, N and V denote pairwise disjoint discrete sets of *constants*, *nulls* and *variables*, respectively. An element t of $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{C} \cup \mathbf{N} \cup \mathbf{V}$ is called *term*. An *atom* α is a labeled tuple $p(t_1, \ldots, t_m)$, where p is a predicate symbol, m is the *arity* of both p and α , and t_1, \ldots, t_m are terms. An atom is *simple* if it contains no repeated term. We denote by $pred(\alpha)$ the predicate symbol p, and by $\alpha[i]$ the *i*-th term t_i of the α . We also consider *propositional* atoms, which are simple atoms of arity 0 written without brackets. Given two sets A and B of atoms, a homomorphism from A to B is a mapping $h: \mathbf{T} \to \mathbf{T}$ such that $c \in \mathbf{C}$ implies h(c) = c, and also $p(t_1, \ldots, t_m) \in A$ implies $p(h(t_1), \ldots, h(t_m)) \in B$. As usual, we denote by $h(A) = \{p(h(t_1), \ldots, h(t_m)) : p(t_1, \ldots, t_m) \in A\} \subseteq B$. An *instance I* is a discrete set of atoms where each term is either a constant or a null.

Syntax. A database *D* is a finite null-free instance. An (*existential*) rule ρ is a first-order formula $\forall \mathbf{X} \forall \mathbf{Y}(\phi(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) \to \exists \mathbf{Z} p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}))$, where $body(\rho) = \phi(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y})$ is a conjunction of atoms, and $head(\rho) = p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z})$ is an atom. Constants may occur in ρ . If $\mathbf{Z} = \emptyset$, then ρ is datalog rule. An *ontology* Σ is a set of rules. For each rule ρ of Σ , we denote by $\mathbf{V}(\rho)$ the set of variables appearing in ρ , by $\mathbf{EV}(\rho)$ the set of all existential variables of ρ , and by $\mathbf{UV}(\rho)$ the set of all universal variables of ρ . A *union of Boolean conjunctive query*, UBCQ for short, q is a firstorder expression of the form $\exists \mathbf{Y}_1 \psi_1(\mathbf{Y}_1) \lor \ldots \lor \exists \mathbf{Y}_k \psi_k(\mathbf{Y}_k)$, where each $\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j)$ is a conjunction of atoms. Constants may occur also in q. In case k = 1, then q is simply called BCQ.

Semantics. Consider a triple $\langle D, \Sigma, q \rangle$ as above. An instance *I satisfies* a rule $\rho \in \Sigma$, denoted by $I \models \rho$, if whenever there is a homomorphism *h* from $body(\rho)$ to *I*, then there is a homomorphism

 $h' \supseteq h|_{\mathbf{X}}$ from $\{head(\rho)\}$ to *I*. Moreover, *I satisfies* Σ , denoted by $I \models \Sigma$, if *I* satisfies each rule of Σ . The *models* of $D \cup \Sigma$, denoted by $mods(D, \Sigma)$, consist of the set $\{I : I \supseteq D \text{ and } I \models \Sigma\}$. An instance *I satisfies q*, written $I \models q$, if there is a homomorphism from some $\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j)$ to *I*. Also, *q* is *true* over $D \cup \Sigma$, written $D \cup \Sigma \models q$, if each model of $D \cup \Sigma$ satisfies *q*.

The chase. Consider a logical theory $\langle D, \Sigma \rangle$ as above. A rule ρ of Σ is *applicable* to an instance I if there is a homomorphism h from $body(\rho)$ to I that maps the existential variables of ρ to different nulls not occurring in I. If so, $\langle \rho, h \rangle (I) = I \cup h(head(\rho))$ defines a *chase step*. The *chase procedure* (Deutsch et al. 2008) of $D \cup \Sigma$ is any sequence $I_0 = D \subset I_1 \subset \ldots \subset I_m \subset \ldots$ of instances obtained by applying exhaustively the rules of Σ in a fair (e.g., breadth-first) fashion in such a way that, for each i > 0, $\langle \rho, h \rangle(I_{i-1}) = I_i$ defines a chase step for some ρ and h. We call $chase(D,\Sigma)$ the (possibly infinite) instance $\bigcup_{i\geq 0} I_i$. Importantly, different chase steps introduce different nulls. This variant of the chase is called *oblivious*, and defines a family of isomorphic instances, namely any two such instances are equal modulo renaming of nulls. Hence, without loss of generality, it is common practice to consider the oblivious chase as deterministic and its least fixpoint as unique. The restricted version of this procedure imposes a further condition on each chase step: $I \not\models h'(head(\rho))$, where $h' = h|_{UV(\rho)}$. Differently from the oblivious one, it defines a family of homomorphically equivalent instances, each generically denoted by $rchase(D,\Sigma)$. It is well-known that $(r)chase(D,\Sigma)$ is a *universal* model of $D\cup\Sigma$, namely for each $M \in mods(D,\Sigma)$, there is a homomorphism from $chase(D,\Sigma)$ to M. Hence, given a UBCQ q, it holds that $(r)chase(D,\Sigma) \models q$ if, and only if, $D \cup \Sigma \models q$ (Fagin et al. 2005).

Finite controllability. The *finite models* of a theory $D \cup \Sigma$, denoted by $fmods(D,\Sigma)$, are the finite instances in $\{I \in mods(D,\Sigma) : |I| \in \mathbb{N}\}$. An ontological fragment \mathcal{F} is *finitely controllable* if, for each database D, for each ontology Σ of \mathcal{F} , and for each UBCQ q, it holds that $D \cup \Sigma \not\models q$ implies that there exists a finite model M of $D \cup \Sigma$ such that $M \not\models q$. This is formally stated as $D \cup \Sigma \models q$ if and only if $D \cup \Sigma \models_{fin} q$, or equivalently *chase* $(D,\Sigma) \models q$ if and only if $D \cup \Sigma \models_{fin} q$.

2.1 Datalog^{\pm} fragments

Fix a database *D*, an ontology Σ , and a chase step involving some pair $\langle \bar{p}, h \rangle$. To lighten the presentation, we assume that different rules of Σ share no variable. Also, for every *m*-ary predicate *p* and every $i \in \{1, ..., m\}$, the pair (p, i) is called *position* and denoted by p[i]. Finally, given a set *A* of atoms, a term *t* occurs in *A* at position p[i] if there is $\alpha \in A$ s.t. $pred(\alpha) = p$ and $\alpha[i] = t$.

Local conditions. Σ belongs to: (*i*) datalog whenever $\rho \in \Sigma$ implies $\mathbf{EV}(\rho) = \emptyset$; (*ii*) inclusiondependencies whenever $\rho \in \Sigma$ implies that ρ contains only simple atoms and $|body(\rho)| = 1$; (*iii*) linear whenever $\rho \in \Sigma$ implies $|body(\rho)| = 1$; (*iv*) guarded whenever $\rho \in \Sigma$ implies that there is an atom of $body(\rho)$ containing all the variables of $\mathbf{UV}(\rho)$; (*v*) joinless whenever $\rho \in \Sigma$ implies that $head(\rho)$ is a simple atom and $body(\rho)$ contains no repeated variables.

Weak-acyclicity (Fagin et al. 2005). Informally, $\Sigma \in$ weakly-acyclic guarantees that: if X occurs in $body(\bar{\rho})$ at position p[i] and $h(X) \in \mathbb{N}$, then the number of distinct nulls occurring in $rchase(D,\Sigma)$ at position p[i] are finitely many. Formally, the labeled graph $G(\Sigma)$ associated to Σ is defined as the pair $\langle N, A \rangle$, where (i) N collects all the positions $p[1], \ldots, p[m]$ for each m-ary predicate p occurring in Σ ; (ii) $(p[i], r[j], plain) \in A$ if there is a rule $\rho \in \Sigma$ and a variable X of ρ such that: X occurs in the body of ρ at position p[i] and X occurs in the head of ρ at position r[j]; and (iii) $(p[i], r[j], special) \in A$ if there is a rule $\rho \in \Sigma$, a universal variable X occurring also in the head of ρ , and an existential variable Z of ρ such that: X occurs in the body of ρ at

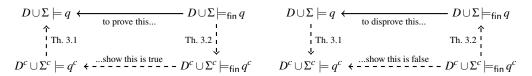


Fig. 2. Application of the canonical rewriting.

position p[i] and Z occurs in the head of ρ at position r[j]. Ontology Σ belongs to weakly-acyclic if $G(\Sigma)$ has no cycle going through an arc labeled as special.

Stickiness (Cali et al. 2012). Informally, $\Sigma \in \text{sticky guarantees that: if } X \text{ occurs multiple times}$ in $body(\bar{\rho})$, then X occurs in $head(\bar{\rho})$ and h(X) belongs to every atom of $chase(D, \Sigma)$ that depends on $h(head(\bar{\rho}))$. Formally, a variable X of Σ is marked if (i) there is a rule $\rho \in \Sigma$ such that X occurs in $body(\rho)$ but not in $head(\rho)$; or (ii) there are two rules $\rho, \rho' \in \Sigma$ such that a marked variable occurs in $body(\rho)$ at some position p[i] and X occurs in $head(\rho')$ at position p[i] too. Ontology Σ belongs to sticky if, for each $\rho \in \Sigma$, the following condition is satisfied: if X occurs multiple times in $body(\rho)$, then X is not marked. A more refined condition identifies interesting cases in which it is safe to allow rules containing some marked variable that occurs multiple times but in a single body atom only. This refinement gives rise to sticky-join, generalizing both sticky and linear.

Shyness (Leone et al. 2012). Informally, $\Sigma \in$ shy guarantees that: (1) if X occurs in two different atoms of $body(\bar{\rho})$, then $h(X) \in \mathbb{C}$; and (2) if X and Y occur both in $head(\bar{\rho})$ and in two different atoms of $body(\bar{\rho})$, then h(X) = h(Y) implies $h(X) \in \mathbb{C}$. Formally, consider an existential variable X of Σ . Position p[i] is *invaded* by X if there is a rule ρ of Σ such that: (*i*) X occurs in $head(\rho)$ at position p[i], or (*ii*) some universal variable Y of ρ is *attacked* by X — namely Y occurs in $body(\rho)$ only at positions invaded by X— and it also occurs in $head(\rho)$ at position p[i]. A universal variable is *protected* if it is attacked by no existential variable. Ontology Σ belongs to shy if, for each $\rho \in \Sigma$, the following conditions are both satisfied: (1) if X occurs in two different atoms of $body(\rho)$, then X is protected; and (2) if X and Y occur both in $head(\rho)$ and in two different atoms of $body(\rho)$, then X and Y are not attacked by the same variable.

3 Canonical rewriting

In this section we design a general technique to facilitate the process of (dis)proving finite controllability of an arbitrary ontological fragment of existential rules. More specifically, from a triple $\langle D, \Sigma, q \rangle$ we build the triple $\langle D^c, \Sigma^c, q^c \rangle$ enjoying the following properties: (1) D^c is propositional database; (2) Σ^c are constant-free rules containing only simple atoms; (3) q^c is a constant-free UBCQ with only simple atoms; (4) $chase(D^c, \Sigma^c)$ is a constant-free instance containing only simple atoms; and (5) there is a "semantic" correspondence between $mods(D, \Sigma)$ and $mods(D^c, \Sigma^c)$. By exploiting these properties, one can apply the technique shown in Figure 2.

3.1 Overview

Consider the database $D = \{person(tim), person(john), fatherOf(tim, john)\}$, and the ontology $\Sigma = \{person(X) \rightarrow \exists Y fatherOf(Y,X); fatherOf(X,Y) \rightarrow person(X)\}$. Let p, f, c_1 and c_2 be shorthands of person, fatherOf, tim and john, respectively. Hence, $chase(D,\Sigma)$ is the instance

 $D \cup \{f(n_1, c_1), f(n_2, c_2)\} \cup \{p(n_i), f(n_{i+2}, n_i)\}_{i>0}$, where each n_i denotes a distinct null of **N**. From *D* we construct the propositional database $D^c = \{p_{[c_1]}, p_{[c_2]}, f_{[c_1, c_2]}\}$ obtained by encoding in the predicates the tuples of *D*. Then, from Σ we construct Σ^c collecting the following rules:

$$\begin{array}{lll} p_{[c_1]} \to \exists Y f_{[1,c_1]}(Y) & f_{[c_1,c_1]} \to p_{[c_1]} & f_{[c_1,1]}(Y) \to p_{[c_1]} & f_{[1,1]}(X) \to p_{[1]}(X) \\ p_{[c_2]} \to \exists Y f_{[1,c_2]}(Y) & f_{[c_1,c_2]} \to p_{[c_1]} & f_{[c_2,1]}(Y) \to p_{[c_2]} & f_{[1,2]}(X,Y) \to p_{[1]}(X) \\ p_{[1]}(X) \to \exists Y f_{[1,2]}(Y,X) & f_{[c_2,c_1]} \to p_{[c_2]} & f_{[1,c_1]}(X) \to p_{[1]}(X) \\ & f_{[c_2,c_2]} \to p_{[c_2]} & f_{[1,c_2]}(X) \to p_{[1]}(X) \end{array}$$

The predicates here encode tuples of terms consisting of database constants $(c_1 \text{ and } c_2)$ and placeholders of nulls (1 and 2). Consider the first rule $\rho = p(X) \rightarrow \exists Y f(Y,X)$ applied by the chase over $D \cup \Sigma$, and $h = \{X \mapsto c_1, Y \mapsto n_1\}$ be its associated homomorphism. Hence, $h(body(\rho)) = p(c_1)$ and $h(head(\rho)) = f(n_1, c_1)$. Such an application is mimed by the "sister" rule $\rho^c = p_{[c_1]} \rightarrow \exists Y f_{[1,c_1]}(Y)$. By exploiting the same homomorphism we obtain $h(body(\rho^c)) = p_{[c_1]}$ and also $h(head(\rho^c)) = f_{[1,c_1]}(n_1)$. Actually, the encoded tuple $[c_1]$ in $p_{[c_1]}$ says that the original twin atom $p(c_1)$ is unary and its unique term is exactly c_1 . Moreover, the encoded tuple $[1,c_1]$ in $f_{[1,c_1]}(n_1)$ says that the original twin atom $f(n_1,c_1)$ is binary, that its first term is a null, and that its second term is exactly the constant c_1 . Since from predicate $f_{[1,c_1]}(X) \rightarrow p_{[1]}(X)$ mimics $f(X,Y) \rightarrow p(X)$ when X is mapped to a null and Y to c_1 ; and rule $f_{[1,c_1]}(X, Y) \rightarrow p_{[1]}(X)$ mimics $f(X,Y) \rightarrow p(X)$ when X and Y are mapped to different nulls. Hence, $chase(D^c, \Sigma^c)$ is:

$$D^{c} \cup \{p_{[1]}(n_{i})\}_{i>0} \cup \{f_{[1,c_{1}]}(n_{1}), f_{[1,c_{2}]}(n_{2})\} \cup \{f_{[1,2]}(n_{i+2},n_{i})\}_{i>0}.$$

As a result, the rewriting separates the interaction between the database constants propagated body-to-head via universal variables and the nulls introduced to satisfy existential variables. Also, since the predicates encode the "shapes" of the twin atoms —namely $f_{[1,2]}(X,Y)$ means different nulls while $f_{[1,1]}(X)$ the same null— repeated variables are encoded too. By following the same approach, we can rewrite also the query. Consider for example the BCQ $q = \exists X p(X), f(X,c_1)$. Therefore, q^c is the UBCQ: $(p_{[c_1]}, f_{[c_1,c_1]}) \lor (p_{[c_2]}, f_{[c_2,c_1]}) \lor (\exists X p_{[1]}(X), f_{[1,c_1]}(X))$.

3.2 Formal construction and properties

Let us fix a triple $\langle D, \Sigma, q \rangle$ through the rest of this section. Consider an atom $\alpha = p(t_1, \dots, t_m)$ with terms over $\mathbb{C} \cup \mathbb{V}$. The *canonical atom* of α is the atom $\alpha^c = p_{[\ell_1,\dots,\ell_m]}(\tau_1,\dots,\tau_\mu)$, where: $(a) \ \ell_i = t_i \text{ if } t_i \in \mathbb{C}; (b) \ \ell_i = \ell_j \text{ if } t_i = t_j; \text{ or } (c) \ \ell_i = 1 + \max(\{0\} \cup \{\ell_j \in \mathbb{N} : j < i\}) \text{ if } t_i \in \mathbb{V}$ and $t_j \neq t_i \ \forall j < i$ and $\tau_i = V \in \mathbb{V}$, if there exists t_j such that $\ell_j = i$ and $t_j = V$. Moreover, given a set of atoms A, we define $A^c = \{\alpha^c : \alpha \in A\}$, and give a rule ρ , we define ρ^c as the rule so that $body(\rho^c) = body(\rho)^c$ and $head(\rho^c) = head(\rho)^c$. For instance, let $\alpha = p(c_1, X, c_2, X, Y, Z, Y)$ be an atom. Then, the canonical atom α^c of α is given by $p_{[c_1,1,c_2,1,2,3,2]}(X,Y,Z)$. Note that, by definition of τ_i , for $i = 1, \dots, \mu$, we have that the arity $\mu \leq m$ of the canonical atom is equal to $\max(\{0\} \cup \{f(t_j) \in \mathbb{N} : j \leq m\})$.

Definition 3.1 (Safe and Canonical substitutions)

A map $\zeta : const(D \cup \Sigma) \cup \mathbf{V} \to const(D \cup \Sigma) \cup \mathbf{V}$ is called *canonical substitution* if $\zeta(c) = c$ for each $c \in const(D \cup \Sigma)$. Moreover, we say that a canonical substitution ζ is *safe* w.r.t. a rule $\rho \in \Sigma$ if $\zeta(\mathbf{UV}(\rho)) \subseteq const(D \cup \Sigma) \cup \mathbf{UV}(\rho)$, and $\zeta(V) = V$, for each $V \in \mathbf{EV}(\rho)$.

Intuitively, a safe substitution maps each existential variable to itself and no universal variable is mapped to an existential one. As usual, given a set of atoms *A*, we denote by $\zeta(A) = \{p(\zeta(t_1), \dots, \zeta(t_m)) : p(t_1, \dots, t_m)\}$, and given a rule ρ , we denote by $\zeta(\rho)$ the rule such that $body(\zeta(\rho)) = \zeta(body(\rho))$ and $head(\zeta(\rho)) = \zeta(head(\rho))$.

Example 3.1

Consider $D = \{r(c_1, c_3)\}$ and Σ consisting of the following rules: $\rho_1 = r(Y_1, Z_1), p(W_1, X_1, X_1, Y_1) \rightarrow \exists T_1 g(X_1, Y_1, T_1, X_1, Z_1)$ and $\rho_2 = s(X_2), t(Y_2) \rightarrow r(X_2, Y_2)$. For instance, $\varsigma_1 = \{c_1 \mapsto c_1, c_3 \mapsto c_3, Y_1 \mapsto X_1, Z_1 \mapsto c_3, W_1 \mapsto Y_1, X_1 \mapsto X_1, T_1 \mapsto T_1\}$ and $\varsigma'_1 = \{c_1 \mapsto c_1, c_3 \mapsto c_3, Y_1 \mapsto c_1, Z_1 \mapsto X_1, W_1 \mapsto c_1, X_1 \mapsto Y_1, T_1 \mapsto T_1\}$ are safe substitutions w.r.t. ρ_1 . Indeed, $const(D \cup \Sigma) = \{c_1, c_3\}, UV(\rho_1) = \{W_1, X_1, Y_1, Z_1\}, EV(\rho_1) = \{T_1\}$, the existential variable T_1 is mapped to itself, and no other variable is mapped to an existential one. Moreover, $\varsigma_1(\rho_1) = r(X_1, c_3), p(Y_1, X_1, X_1, X_1) \rightarrow \exists T_1 g(X_1, X_1, T_1, X_1, c_3)$ and $\varsigma'_1(\rho_1) = r(c_1, X_1), p(c_1, Y_1, Y_1, c_1) \rightarrow \exists T_1 g(Y_1, c_1, T_1, Y_1, X_1)$.

We denote by CS the set of all canonical substitutions and by $\beta(\rho) \subseteq CS$ the set of all safe substitutions w.r.t. ρ . Given a set of atoms A [resp. a rule ρ] and a canonical substitution [resp. safe substitution] ζ , we say that $\zeta(A)^c$ [resp. $\zeta(\rho)^c$] is the *canonical set of atoms* w.r.t A [resp. *canonical rule w.r.t.* ρ] and ζ . Observe that two different canonical substitutions could produce two isomorphic canonical set of atoms. For instance, let $A = \{p(X,Y)\}$, and consider $\zeta = \{X \mapsto X, Y \mapsto Y\}$ and $\zeta' = \{X \mapsto Y, Y \mapsto X\}$. Then, $\zeta(A)^c = \{p_{[1,2]}(X,Y)\}$, and $\zeta'(A)^c = \{p_{[1,2]}(Y,X)\}$ are isomorphic set of atoms. Therefore, to avoid redundancies, we denote by CS^* [resp. $\beta^*(\rho)$] any arbitrary maximal subset of CS [resp. of $\beta(\rho)$] producing canonical set of atoms [resp. canonical rules] containing no two isomorphic elements.

We denote by Σ^c the set of all canonical rules $\{\zeta(\rho)^c : \rho \in \Sigma \text{ and } \zeta \in \beta^*(\rho)\}$, and we call it the *canonical rewriting* of Σ . Also, given a UBCQ q of the form $\exists \mathbf{Y}_1 \psi_1(\mathbf{Y}_1) \vee \ldots \vee \exists \mathbf{Y}_k \psi_k(\mathbf{Y}_k)$, we denote by q^c the disjunction $\bigvee_{\zeta_1 \in CS^*} \zeta_1(\psi_1(\mathbf{Y}_1))^c \vee \ldots \vee \bigvee_{\zeta_k \in CS^*} \zeta_k(\psi_k(\mathbf{Y}_k))^c$. and we call it the *canonical rewriting* of q. Finally, we call D^c the *canonical rewriting* of D.

Proposition 3.1

The triple $\langle D^c, \Sigma^c, q^c \rangle$ can be constructed from $\langle D, \Sigma, q \rangle$ in polynomial time (in data complexity).

Example 3.2

Consider the ontology Σ with the safe substitutions ζ_1 and ζ'_1 w.r.t. ρ_1 of the Example 3.1. Therefore, we obtain the canonical rules: $\zeta_1(\rho_1)^c = r_{[1,c_3]}(X_1), p_{[1,2,2,2]}(Y_1,X_1) \to \exists T_1g_{[1,1,2,1,c_3]}(X_1,T_1)$ and $\zeta'_1(\rho_1)^c = r_{[c_1,1]}(X_1), p_{[c_1,1,1,c_1]}(Y_1) \to \exists T_1g_{[1,c_1,2,1,3]}(Y_1,T_1,X_1)$. Moreover, let ζ_2 and ζ'_2 be the safe substitutions containing $\{X_2 \mapsto X_2, Y_2 \mapsto X_2\}$ and $\{X_2 \mapsto c_1, Y_2 \mapsto c_3\}$ w.r.t. ρ_2 , respectively. Hence, we have $\zeta_2(\rho_2)^c = s_{[1]}(X_2), t_{[1]}(X_2) \to r_{[1,1]}(X_2)$ and $\zeta'_2(\rho_2)^c = s_{[c_1]}, t_{[c_3]} \to r_{[c_1,c_3]}$. Therefore, $\zeta_1(\rho_1)^c, \zeta'_1(\rho_1)^c, \zeta_2(\rho_2)^c$, and $\zeta'_2(\rho_2)^c$ are (some of the) rules of Σ^c .

We consider a function \mathfrak{R} from the set of atoms of $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$ to the set of atom of $D \cup \Sigma$. For each atom $\alpha = a_{[s_1,...,s_m]}(\sigma_1,...,\sigma_\mu)$, we build an atom $\mathfrak{R}(\alpha) = a(t_1,...,t_m)$ such that: (a) $t_i = s_i$ if $s_i \in \mathbf{C}$; (b) $t_i = \sigma_i$ if $s_i = k$ and $s_j \neq k$, for each j < i; or (c) $t_i = \sigma_j$ if $s_i = s_j$, for some j < i.

For instance, let $\alpha = p_{[1,c_1,2,1,c_2,1,2]}(X,Y)$ be an atom of the logical theory $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$. Then, $\Re(\alpha) = p(X,c_1,Y,X,c_2,X,Y)$. We call \Re the *unpacking function*. Given a set of atoms A of $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$, we denote by $\Re(A) = \{\Re(\alpha) : \alpha \in A\}$ the corresponding set of atoms of $D \cup \Sigma$. If I is an instance, we call $\Re(I)$ the *unpacked instance* of I. Given a rule ρ^c in Σ^c , we denote by $\Re(\rho^c)$ the rule obtained applying \Re to each atom in ρ^c , i.e. $\Re(\rho^c) : \Re(body(\rho^c)) \to \Re(head(\rho^c))$, and we call it the *unpacked rule* of ρ^c . Similarly, we denote by $\Re(q^c)$ the query obtained applying \Re to the atoms of the UBCQ q^c , and we call it the *unpacked query* of q^c . Informally, the unpacking function acts as the inverse operator to the canonical rewriting. Moreover, it enjoys an interesting and useful property: the chase of a logical theory coincides with the unpacking of the chase constructed from of the same theory given in canonical form:

Proposition 3.2

Consider a set Σ of existential rules. For each database D and for each UBCQ q, it holds that $\Re(chase(D^c, \Sigma^c)) = chase(D, \Sigma)$ and $\Re(q^c) \equiv q$.

By exploiting the above proposition, we can now prove that a UBCQ q is satisfied by all models of a theory $D \cup \Sigma$ if, and only if, each model of the canonical rewriting of the theory $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$ satisfies the canonical rewriting of the UBCQ q^c .

Theorem 3.1

 $D \cup \Sigma \models q$ if, and only if, $D^c \cup \Sigma^c \models q^c$.

Note that, if Σ is a constant-free ontology, then, for each model M^c of $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$, $\Re(M^c)$ is a model of $D \cup \Sigma$. The request for a constant-free ontology is needed. Indeed, for instance, let $\Sigma = \{p(a) \to r(a); r(x) \to p(x)\}$. So that, $\Sigma^c = \{p_{[a]} \to r_{[a]}; r_{[a]} \to p_{[a]}; r_{[1]}(V_1) \to p_{[1]}(V_1)\}$. Therefore, $M^c = \{p_{[1]}(a)\}$ is a model of Σ^c , but $\Re(M^c) = \{p(a)\}$ is not a model of Σ , as it does not satisfy the first rule. However, we can overcome this problem considering the following class of models. Given a model $M^c \in mods(D^c, \Sigma^c)$, we say that N^c is a *smooth* instance of M^c if there exists a bijective map $f : terms(M^c) \to terms(N^c)$ such that f(n) = n for each null $n \in terms(M^c)$; $f(c) = n_c$ for each constant $c \in terms(M^c)$, where n_c is a fresh null; and $f(M^c) = N^c$. Note that a smooth instance of a model M^c is also a model of $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$ and it is also constant-free.

Proposition 3.3

If $M^c \in mods(D^c, \Sigma^c)$, then $\Re(N^c) \in mods(D, \Sigma)$, for each smooth model N^c of M^c .

By exploiting the above proposition, we can now prove that a UBCQ q is satisfied by all finite models of a theory $D \cup \Sigma$ if, and only if, each finite model of the canonical rewriting of the theory $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$ satisfies the canonical rewriting of the UBCQ q^c .

Theorem 3.2 $D \cup \Sigma \models_{\text{fin}} q$ if, and only if, $D^c \cup \Sigma^c \models_{\text{fin}} q^c$.

Proof

Assume that $D \cup \Sigma \models_{fin} q$. Then, for each finite model M of $D \cup \Sigma$, there exists a homomorphism h from at least one disjunct of q, say $\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j)$ to M. Now, let M^c be a finite model of $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$. By Proposition 3.3, there exist a (finite) smooth model $N^c \in mods(D^c, \Sigma^c)$ of M^c and a bijective map f from $terms(M^c)$ to $terms(N^c)$ such that f(n) = n for each null $n \in terms(M^c)$; $f(c) = n_c$ for each constant $c \in terms(M^c)$, where n_c is a fresh null; $f(M^c) = N^c$, and $\Re(N^c) \in mods(D, \Sigma)$. Hence, by assumption, there exists a homomorphism h from some $\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j)$ to $\Re(N^c)$. Let $A = h(\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j)) \subseteq \Re(N^c)$. Then, for each atom $\alpha \in A$, we can choose an arbitrary atom $\beta \in N^c$ such that $\Re(\beta) = \alpha$. Let B such a subset of N^c . Therefore, by construction, there exists a BCQ in q^c isomorphic to B. In particular, there exists a homomorphism h from $terms(q^c)$ to $terms(M^c)$ such that $f^{-1} \circ h$ is a homomorphism from q^c to M^c . Indeed, $f^{-1} \circ h$ is a map from $terms(q^c)$ to $terms(M^c)$ such that $f^{-1}(h(q^c)) \subseteq f^{-1}(N^c) = M^c$. Now, assume that $D^c \cup \Sigma^c \models_{fin} q^c$. Let M be a finite model of $D \cup \Sigma$. By definition of canonical rules, can be easily proved that there exists a finite model

$$D^{c} \cup \Sigma^{c} \models q^{c} \xleftarrow{\text{Lemma. 4.1}} D^{c} \cup \Sigma^{c} \models_{\text{fin}} q^{c} \xrightarrow{\text{Th. 4.2}} D^{c} \cup \Sigma^{c} \models_{\text{wsf}} q^{c}$$

$$\uparrow Th. 4.1 \xrightarrow{\text{Th. 4.1}} D^{c} \cup \Sigma^{c} \models_{q} q^{c} \xleftarrow{\text{Gogacz and Marcinkowski (2013)}} D^{c} \cup \Sigma^{c} \models_{\text{fin}} q^{c} \xleftarrow{\text{Th. 4.2}} D^{c} \cup \Sigma^{c} \models_{\text{wsf}} q^{c}$$

Fig. 3. Chain of implications for the proof of Lemma 4.1.

 $M^c \in fmods(D^c, \Sigma^c)$ such that $\Re(M^c) = M$. Hence, let *h* be a homomorphism from q^c to M^c . So that, $h(\varsigma_j(\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j))^c) \subseteq M^c$, for some disjunct $\varsigma_j(\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j))^c$ of q^c . Therefore, by applying the unpacked function, we have that $\Re(h(\varsigma_j(\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j))^c)) = h(\Re(\varsigma_j(\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j))^c)) = h(\varsigma_j(\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j))) \subseteq \Re(M^c) = M$. Hence, *h* is also a homomorphism from *q* to *M*. \Box

3.3 Immediate consequences

By exploiting the properties of the canonical rewriting, one can reprove that linear is finitely controllable, and prove (for the first time) that also sticky-join enjoys this property. In fact, given a linear or sticky-join ontology Σ , its canonical rewriting Σ^c belongs to inclusion-dependencies or sticky, respectively. In the former case, it suffices to observe that any variable occurring multiple times in some atom α , by definition, occurs exactly once in its associated canonical atom α^c . In the latter case, additionally, consider a variable *X* violating the sticky property since it is marked and it occurs multiple times in the body of some rule ρ . By hypothesis, *X* may occur in exactly one atom of $body(\rho)$. However, even if marked, *X* now occurs exactly once in its canonical atom and it cannot violate the sticky property any more. The following result follows.

Theorem 3.3 Under sticky-join ontologies, $D \cup \Sigma \models q$ if, and only if, $D \cup \Sigma \models_{fin} q$.

4 Finite controllability of Shy ontologies

We open this section by observing that, differently from linear and sticky-join, the canonical rewriting of a shy ontology—although it is still a shy ontology—does not fall in any other known class. To prove that shy is finitely controllable, we therefore devise three technical tools on top of the canonical rewriting defined in Section 3. These tools allow us to show that $D^c \cup \Sigma^c \models_{fin} q^c$ if, and only if, $D^c \cup \Sigma^c \models q^c$ (Lemma 4.1). To this end, let us fix a triple $\langle D, \Sigma, q \rangle$, and the associated one $\langle D^c, \Sigma^c, q^c \rangle$ in canonical form. Our tools are as follows:

Active and harmless rules. Whenever Σ is shy, we can partition Σ^c in two sets, denoted by Σ_a^c and Σ_h^c —collecting active and harmless rules, respectively—enjoying the following properties: (1) Σ_h^c are the rules of Σ^c with at least a variable occurring in more than one body atom; (2) $\Sigma_a^c = \Sigma^c \setminus \Sigma_h^c$ is a joinless (and still shy) ontology; and (3) $chase(D^c, \Sigma^c) = chase(D^c, \Sigma_a^c)$.

Well-supported finite models. Inspired by well-supported interpretations of general logic programs (Fages 1991), we define *well-supported* finite models of $\langle D, \Sigma \rangle$, denoted by *wsfmods* (D, Σ) , which enjoy the following properties: (1) for each $M \in wsfmods(D, \Sigma)$, there exists an *ordering* $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m)$ of its atoms such that, for each α_j of M, either α_j belongs to D, or there exist a rule $\rho \in \Sigma$ and a homomorphism from the atoms of ρ to $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_i\}$ that maps $body(\rho)$ to

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 $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{j-1}\}$ and $head(\rho)$ to $\{\alpha_j\}$; (2) for each $M \in fmods(D, \Sigma)$, there exists a well-supported finite model $M' \subseteq M$; and (3) each minimal finite model of $D \cup \Sigma$ is a well-supported finite model.

Propagation ordering. Since $mods(D^c, \Sigma^c) \subseteq mods(D^c, \Sigma^c_a)$, in general it is definitely possible that a model M of $D^c \cup \Sigma^c_a$ is not a model of $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$. In case Σ is shy and M is a well-supported finite models of $D^c \cup \Sigma^c_a$, by exploiting an arbitrary ordering of M, we show how to rename and propagate some of the terms of M to construct an instance M' enjoying the following property: $(1) M' \in wsfmods(D^c, \Sigma^c)$; and (2) there exists a homomorphism from M' to M.

With these tools in place, we can now apply the technique shown in Figure 3, where we use the symbol \models_{wsf} to refer the satisfiability of the query under well-supported finite models only.

4.1 Active and harmless rules

As said, and next stated, the canonical rewriting of a shy ontology is again a shy ontology.

Proposition 4.1 If Σ is shy, then Σ^c is.

The goal of this section is therefore to identify a suitable subset of Σ^c that falls in some known finitely-controllable class, and that roughly "behaves" as Σ^c under both finite and arbitrary models. The idea is to collect in Σ_h^c the rules of Σ^c with at least a variable occurring in more than one body atom, and to define $\Sigma_a^c = \Sigma^c \setminus \Sigma_h^c$. In other words, Σ_a^c is exactly the maximal subset of Σ^c that belongs to joinless. Let us now provide some insights regarding this way of partitioning Σ^c . From the database $D = \{p(c)\}$ and the shy ontology $\Sigma = \{p(X) \to \exists Y f(Y,X); f(X,Y), p(X) \to p(Y)\}$ we first construct $D^c = \{p_{[c]}\}$ and Σ^c as the following set of rules:

Again, red rules are those applied by the chase on $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$. Now we observe that there is no way to trigger the rules in the first column: although the chase does produce an atom $f(t, n_i)$ for some term t and null n_i , it never produces any atom $p(n_i)$. This fact is detected by the syntactic conditions underlying shy (marking X in $f(X, Y), p(X) \rightarrow p(Y)$ as "protected"), which guarantee that X may be mapped by the chase to constants only. Hence, since by definition Σ_a^c consists of the joinless rules in the last two columns, it holds that $chase(D^c, \Sigma^c) = chase(D^c, \Sigma_a^c)$.

The reason underlying the fact that the chase never applies rules of Σ_h^c will be exploited in Section 4.3 to prove Theorem 4.3 (see Figure 3, right-hand side), namely that Σ_a^c roughly "behaves" as Σ^c under finite (well-supported) models. Conversely, to show Theorem 4.1 (see Figure 3, left-hand side) it suffices to observe the more general property that $\Sigma_a^c \subseteq \Sigma^c$, which immediately implies $mods(D^c, \Sigma^c) \subseteq mods(D^c, \Sigma_a^c)$. And the next result follows.

Theorem 4.1 If $D^c \cup \Sigma_a^c \models q^c$, then $D^c \cup \Sigma^c \models q^c$.

4.2 Well-supported finite models

We start by defining the notion of well-supported finite instances, which is inspired by the related notion of well-supported interpretations for general logic programs (Fages 1991).

Let *D* be a database, and Σ be an ontology. A finite instance *I* is called *well-supported* w.r.t. the theory $D \cup \Sigma$ if there is an ordering $(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_m)$ of its atoms such that, for each $j \in \{1, ..., m\}$, at least one of the following conditions is satisfied: (1) α_j is a database atom of *D*; and (2) there exist a rule ρ of Σ and a homomorphism *h* from $atoms(\rho)$ to $\{\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_j\}$ such that $h(head(\rho)) = \{\alpha_j\}$ and $h(body(\rho)) \subseteq \{\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_{j-1}\}$. In both cases, we will say that α_j is a *well-supported* atom w.r.t. $(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_m)$; while in the latter case we will also say that ρ is a *well-supporting rule* for α_j w.r.t. $(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_m)$. Such an ordering will be called a *well-supported ordering* of *I*.

We denote by $wsfmods(D,\Sigma) \subseteq fmods(D,\Sigma)$ the set of all well-supported finite models of $D \cup \Sigma$. Moreover, if a UBCQ *q* is satisfied by each model of $wsfmods(D,\Sigma)$, we write $D \cup \Sigma \models_{wsf} q$. Interestingly, each finite model of $D \cup \Sigma$ contains a well-supported finite model of the theory.

Proposition 4.2

For each $M \in fmods(D, \Sigma)$, there exists $M' \subseteq M$ such that $M' \in wsfmods(D, \Sigma)$. In particular, each minimal finite model of $D \cup \Sigma$ is a well-supported finite model.

Although each finite model of an ontological theory contains a well-supported finite model of the theory, the reverse inclusion does not hold. Consider for example the ontology Σ of Section 3.1, and the model $M = D \cup \{f(c_1, c_1), f(c_2, c_1)\}$. Since $(p(c_1), p(c_2), f(c_1, c_2), f(c_1, c_1), f(c_2, c_1))$ is a well-supported ordering of M, then M is well-supported. However, $M \setminus \{f(c_2, c_1)\}$ is a model of $D \cup \Sigma$. Therefore, M is not a minimal one. Using Proposition 4.2, we can now prove that if a UBCQ q can be satisfied by each well-supported finite model of a theory, then it can be satisfied by each finite model of the theory.

Theorem 4.2 $D \cup \Sigma \models_{wsf} q$ if, and only if, $D \cup \Sigma \models_{fin} q$.

Proof

Clearly, by subset inclusion, if each finite model of $D \cup \Sigma$ satisfies the query q, then each wellsupported finite model of $D \cup \Sigma$ satisfies q. Moreover, as each finite minimal model is a wellsupported finite model (Proposition 4.2), then for each finite model M' of $D \cup \Sigma$, we can find a well-supported finite model, that is minimal, M of $D \cup \Sigma$, such that $M \subseteq M'$, and, in particular, there exists a homomorphism h (i.e., the identity homomorphism) such that $h(M) \subseteq M'$. \Box

4.3 Propagation ordering

Let us start with the preliminary notions of existentially well-supported atom and propagated term. Let *I* be a well-supported finite instance, and $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m)$ be a well-supported ordering of *I*. An atom α of $I \setminus D$ is said *existentially well-supported* w.r.t. the ordering $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m)$ if, for each well-supporting rule ρ for α w.r.t. $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m)$, it holds that $EV(\rho) \neq \emptyset$. Moreover, let $\alpha_j[k] = t$, for some position *k*, then *t* is said *propagated* from an atom α_i in position *l*, whenever $i < j, \alpha_i[l] = t$, and there exist a well-supporting rule ρ for α_j and a homomorphism *h* such that $\alpha_i \in h(body(\rho))$. Consider again ontology Σ of Section 3.1, and the well-supported finite model *M* considered after Proposition 4.2. For instance, the atom $f(c_1, c_1)$ is existentially wellsupported. Indeed, the unique way to well-support the atom comes from the first rule of Σ , that is an existential rule. We are now ready to define the notion of propagation ordering.

Definition 4.1 (Propagation ordering)

Let *D* be a database, Σ be a joinless ontology, $M \in wsfmods(D, \Sigma)$, and $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m)$ be a wellsupported ordering of *M*. For each $\alpha_j \in M$, we build a new atom $\langle \alpha_j \rangle$ as follows. Let $t = \alpha_j[k]$. We have: (1) If α_j is an existentially well-supported atom and *k* is an existential position, then $\langle \alpha_j \rangle [k] = \langle t, j, k \rangle$, where $\langle t, j, k \rangle$ is called a *starting point* of *t*; (2) If *t* is a propagated term from some atom α_i in position *l*, then $\langle \alpha_j \rangle [k] = \langle \alpha_i \rangle [l]$; and (3) $\langle \alpha_j \rangle [k] = \alpha_j [k]$, otherwise. We call $(\langle \alpha_1 \rangle, \dots, \langle \alpha_m \rangle)$ a *propagation ordering* of the well-supported ordering $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m)$.

Note that the same term could have several starting points. This propagation ordering will be useful to remember a starting point of that particular term and its propagations in other atoms.

Example 4.1

Consider the following joinless ontology $\Sigma = \{s(X_1) \to \exists Y_1 p(X_1, Y_1); s(X_2) \to \exists Y_2 u(Y_2, X_2); \}$ $p(X_3,Y_3), u(W_3,Z_3) \to r(Y_3,Z_3); p(X_4,Y_4) \to t(Y_4)$, and the database $D = \{s(c_1)\}$. As example, $M = \{s(c_1), t(c_2), t(n_1), p(c_1, c_2), p(c_1, n_1), r(c_2, c_1), r(n_1, c_1), u(c_2, c_1), u(n_1, c_1)\}$ is a wellsupported finite model of $D \cup \Sigma$. Indeed, for instance, $(s(c_1), p(c_1, c_2), p(c_1, n_1), u(c_2, c_1), t(c_2), t(c_2))$ $u(n_1,c_1), r(n_1,c_1), t(n_1), r(c_2,c_1))$ is a well-supported ordering of M. The existentially wellsupported atoms are $p(c_1, c_2)$, $p(c_1, n_1)$, $u(c_2, c_1)$ and $u(n_1, c_1)$. More specifically, $p(c_1, c_2)$ has the term c_2 in the existential position 2, then $\langle p(c_1,c_2)\rangle = p(c_1,\langle c_2,2,2\rangle)$, as $p(c_1,c_2)$ is the second atom of the well-supported ordering considered; $p(c_1, n_1)$ has the term n_1 in the existential position 2, then $\langle p(c_1, n_1) \rangle = p(c_1, \langle n_1, 3, 2 \rangle); u(c_2, c_1)$ has the term c_2 in the existential position 1, then $\langle u(c_2,c_1)\rangle = u(\langle c_2,4,1\rangle,c_1)$; $u(n_1,c_1)$ has the term n_1 in the existential position 1, then $\langle u(n_1,c_1)\rangle = u(\langle n_1,6,1\rangle,c_1)$. On the other hand, the term c_2 is propagated in the atom $t(c_2)$ in the first (and unique) position. It comes from atom $p(c_1, c_2)$, and we know that the starting point of c_2 is $\langle c_2, 2, 2 \rangle$. Therefore, $\langle t(c_2) \rangle = t(\langle c_2, 2, 2 \rangle)$. Moreover, in a similarly way, we obtain that $\langle t(n_1) \rangle = t(\langle n_1, 3, 2 \rangle)$. Finally, the term n_1 is propagated in the atom $r(n_1, c_1)$ in the first position, and it comes from atom $p(c_1, n_1)$; whereas the term c_1 is propagated in the atom $r(n_1, c_1)$ in the second position, and it comes from atom $u(n_1, c_1)$. Therefore, $\langle r(n_1, c_1) \rangle = r(\langle n_1, 3, 2 \rangle, c_1)$. \triangleleft

With our technical tools in place, we are now able to prove the following technical result.

Theorem 4.3 For each $\Sigma \in \text{shy}$, if $D^c \cup \Sigma^c \models_{wsf} q^c$ then $D^c \cup \Sigma^c_a \models_{wsf} q^c$.

Proof intuition

Consider an arbitrary model $M \in wsfmods(D^c, \Sigma_a^c)$. It suffices to prove that there exist $M' \in wsfmods(D^c, \Sigma^c)$ and a homomorphism h' s.t. $h'(M') \subseteq M$. Indeed, by hypothesis, there exists a homomorphism h s.t. $h(q) \subseteq M'$, and so $(h' \circ h)(q) \subseteq M$.

The difficulty here is that *M* could not be a model of $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$. Consider the database $D = \{s(c)\}$ and the shy ontology $\Sigma = \{s(X) \rightarrow \exists Y p(Y); s(X) \rightarrow \exists Y r(Y); p(X), r(X) \rightarrow g(X)\}$. The canonical rewriting is $D^c = \{s_{[c]}\}$ and Σ^c as follows:

One can verify that $M = \{s_{[c]}, p_{[1]}(n_1), r_{[1]}(n_1)\}$ is a (minimal) well-supported finite model of $D^c \cup \Sigma_a^c$ since, by Proposition 4.1, Σ^c is shy, and since Σ_a^c is obtained from Σ^c by discarding the last harmless rule. However, M is not a model of $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$ because the last rule is not satisfied.

The idea is to show how to construct from M a model $M' \in wsfmods(D^c, \Sigma^c)$ that can be homomorphically mapped to M. Intuitively, we identify the *starting points* in which existential variables of Σ_a^c have been satisfied and rename the introduced terms using a propagation ordering.

In the example above, consider the well-supported ordering $(s_{[c]}, p_{[1]}(n_1), r_{[1]}(n_1))$ of M, replace n_1 in $p_{[1]}(n_1)$ by $\langle n_1, 2, 2 \rangle$ (null n_1 introduced in the second atom in the second position), and replace n_1 in $r_{[1]}(n_1)$ by $\langle n_1, 3, 2 \rangle$ (null n_1 introduced in the third atom in the second position). Then, since M is well-supported, we propagate (if needed) these new terms according the supporting ordering. In our case, $M' = \{s_{[c]}, p_{[1]}(\langle n_1, 2, 2 \rangle), r_{[1]}(\langle n_1, 3, 2 \rangle)\}$ is now a finite model of $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$ that can be mapped to M.

4.4 The main result

Lemma 4.1 Under shy ontologies, $D^c \cup \Sigma^c \models q^c$ if, and only if, $D^c \cup \Sigma^c \models_{fin} q^c$.

Proof

Clearly, the "only if" implication is straightforward. Hence, given a shy ontology Σ , we have to prove that $D^c \cup \Sigma^c \models q^c$, whenever $D^c \cup \Sigma^c \models_{fin} q^c$, for each database D and UBCQ q. Suppose that $D^c \cup \Sigma^c \models_{fin} q^c$, i.e., the query q^c is satisfied by each finite model of $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$. Thus, by Theorem 4.2, holds that $D^c \cup \Sigma^c \models_{wsf} q^c$, that is, the canonical rewriting of the query q is satisfied by each well-supported finite model of the logical theory $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$. Then, by Theorem 4.3, holds that $D^c \cup \Sigma^c_a \models_{wsf} q^c$, that is, the canonical rewriting of the query q is satisfied by each wellsupported finite model of the joinless logical theory $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$. Then, by Theorem 4.2, we obtain that $D^c \cup \Sigma^c_a \models_{fin} q^c$, that is q^c is satisfied also by every finite model of the previous theory. Now, as Σ^c_a is a joinless ontology, by the finite controllability of joinless ontologies proved by Gogacz and Marcinkowski (2013), holds that $D^c \cup \Sigma^c_a \models q^c$. Finally, by Theorem 4.1, we have that $D^c \cup \Sigma^c \models q^c$, i.e. the query q^c is satisfied by each model (finite or infinite) of $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$. \Box

Summing-up, Theorem 1.1 follows by combining Lemma 4.1 with the properties of the canonical rewriting proved in Section 3.

5 Related work

To complete the related works started with the Introduction, we recall that the notion of finite controllability was formalized for the first time by Rosati (2006) while he was working on a question that had been left open two decades before by Johnson and Klug (1984) about containment of conjunctive queries in case of both arbitrary and finite databases. Basically, using our terminology, they proved that ontologies mixing both inclusion-dependencies and functional-dependencies are not finitely controllable, by leaving open the case where ontologies contain inclusion-dependencies only. Rosati then answered positively this question.

The semantic equivalence of fundamental reasoning tasks under finite and infinite models is not at all a prerogative of the database community. A sister yet orthogonal property of finite controllability is of paramount importance also in logic, where it has been investigated much earlier. It is known as *finite model property* or *finite satisfiability* (Ebbinghaus and Flum 1995), and it asks for a class C of sentences whether every satisfiable sentence of C has a finite model. For example, both Gödel and Schütte proved that $\forall^2 \exists^*$ first-order sentences are finitely satisfiable. G. Amendola, N. Leone, M. Manna

Although reasoning under finite models has a long history and it has been actively investigated in various fields of Computer Science, finite controllability remains open for many languages combining or generalizing the key properties underlying the basic classes depicted in Figure 1. By way of example, we mention (i) glut-guarded (Krötzsch and Rudolph 2011), extending guarded and weakly-acyclic; (ii) weakly-sticky-join (Calì et al. 2012), extending stickyjoin, weakly-acyclic and shy; and (iii) tame (Gottlob et al. 2013), extending sticky and guarded.

Between guarded and glut-guarded, it is worth to recall weakly-guarded (Calì et al. 2013), where each rule body has an atom covering all those variables that only occur in invaded (a.k.a. affected) positions. Actually, this class is finitely controllable although the proof sketch given by Bárány et al. (2014) has some hole (there, some model of $D \cup \Sigma'$ might not satisfy Σ). In fact, our canonical rewriting yields an ontology that can be partitioned in *active* and *harmless*, where the active part is guarded. Well-supported models and propagation ordering behave as for shy.

An additional clarification concerns the notions of linear and sticky-join considered by Gogacz and Marcinkowski (2017), since they are not standard (actually stricter). In the former, repeated variables are admitted only in rule heads, while for the latter the authors state that the difference between sticky and stickyjoin "can only be seen if repeated variables in the heads of the rules are allowed". (Regarding sticky, the classical notion is only rephrased: their "immortal" positions correspond to positions being not marked.) From such a mismatch, however, it follows that finite controllability of stickyjoin was unknown before our work. A curious reader may verify that the proof of their Lemma 4 breaks down when moving to a linear (hence sticky-join) ontology such as $\Sigma = \{p(X,X) \rightarrow r(X);$ $r(X) \rightarrow \exists Y r(Y)\}$ —inducing no immortal position since all positions p[1], p[2] and r[1] host marked variables— paired with the singleton database $D = \{p(c,c)\}$.

6 Conclusion

By demonstrating that shy is finitely controllable, we complete an important picture around the basic decidable $Datalog^{\pm}$ classes. But we take it as a starting point rather than an ending one.

On the one hand, finite controllability immediately implies decidability of OBQA. Actually, via the soundness and completeness of the chase procedure we know that the problem of deciding whether a UBCQ is *true* over a Datalog[±] theory is recursively enumerable. But the complementary problem of deciding whether a UBCQ is *false* over a finitely controllable Datalog[±] class C is recursively enumerable too. In fact, each theory $D \cup \Sigma$, with $\Sigma \in C$, always admits a fair lexicographic enumeration of its finite models. Unfortunately, such a naïve procedure would be inefficient in practice. Making it usable and competitive for real world problems is challenging and it is part of our ongoing work. Basically, this would lead to a tool able to deal with any finitely controllable fragment, some of which (e.g., guarded) have no effective implementation.

On the other hand, we believe the techniques developed in this paper could have future applications. For example, we are working on an extended version of our canonical rewriting that encodes in the predicates also a limited amount of nulls. This requires more complex techniques, which however would apply to classes using the key properties underlying weakly-acyclic, such as glut-guarded and weakly-sticky-join (see Section 5). Hence, by combining these techniques with the above tool for finitely controllable classes, we aim at the design and implementation of a reasoner able to deal with ontologies falling in any known decidable Datalog $^{\pm}$ class.

Finally —even if the unrestricted set of existential rules cannot be finitely controllable since it is not decidable— it is still open, to the best of our knowledge, whether there exists, or not, a fragment of existential rules which is decidable but not finitely controllable.

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Appendix

Shy existential rules

This section is devoted to recall the formal definition of shy ontologies and their syntactic properties, as defined in Leone et al. (2012). For notational convenience and without loss of generality, we assume here that each pair of rules of an ontology share no variable. Let Σ be an ontology, α be a *m*-arity atom, $i \in \{1, ..., m\}$ be an index, $pred(\alpha) = a$, and X be an existential variable occurring in some rule of Σ . We say that position a[i] is *invaded* by X if there exists a rule $\rho \in \Sigma$ such that $head(\rho) = \alpha$ and

- (*i*) $\alpha[i] = X$; or
- (*ii*) $\alpha[i]$ is a universal variable of ρ and all of its occurrences in $body(\rho)$ appear in positions invaded by *X*.

Let $\phi(\mathbf{X})$ be a conjunction of atoms, and let $X \in \mathbf{X}$. We say that X is *attacked* by a variable Y in $\phi(\mathbf{X})$ if all the positions where X appears are invaded by Y. On the other hand, we say that X is *protected* in $\phi(\mathbf{X})$, if it is attacked by no variable.

A rule ρ of an ontology Σ is called *shy* w.r.t. Σ if the following conditions are both satisfied:

- (*i*) if a variable *X* occurs in more than one body atom, then *X* is protected in $body(\rho)$;
- (*ii*) if two distinct variables are not protected in $body(\rho)$ but occur both in $head(\rho)$ and in two different body atoms, then they are not attacked by the same variable.

Finally, if each $\rho \in \Sigma$ is shy w.r.t. Σ , then call Σ a shy ontology.

Example 6.1

Consider the following rules

Let $\Sigma = {\rho_1, \rho_2, \rho_3}$. Clearly, ρ_1 and ρ_3 are shy rules w.r.t. Σ , since they are also linear rules, namely rules with one single body atom, which cannot violate any of the two shy conditions. Moreover, rule ρ_2 is also shy w.r.t. Σ as the positions p[2] and u[1] are invaded by disjoint sets of existential variables. Indeed, p[2] is invaded by the existential variable Y_1 of the first rule, and u[1] is invaded by the existential variable Y_3 of the third rule. Therefore, Σ is a shy ontology.

Now, consider the further three existential rules

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \rho_4 = & u(X_4) & \rightarrow & \exists Y_4 p(Y_4, X_4); \\ \rho_5 = & u(X_5) & \rightarrow & \exists Y_5 p(X_5, Y_5); \\ \rho_6 = & r(X_6, X_6) & \rightarrow & v(X_6). \end{array}$$

Let Σ' be the ontology $\Sigma \cup \{\rho_4\}$. It is easy to see that ρ_1 , ρ_3 and ρ_4 are shy w.r.t. Σ' . However, ρ_2 is not shy w.r.t. Σ' , as property (*i*) is not satisfied. Indeed, the variable Y_2 occurring in two body atoms in $body(\rho_2)$ is not protected, as the position p[2] and u[1] (the only positions in which Y_2 occurs) are invaded by the same existential variable, namely Y_3 . Therefore, Σ' is not a shy ontology.

Let Σ'' be the ontology $\Sigma \cup \{\rho_5, \rho_6\}$. Again, ρ_1 , ρ_3 , ρ_5 and ρ_6 are trivially shy w.r.t. Σ'' ; and again ρ_2 is not shy w.r.t. Σ'' . However, this time, ρ_2 is not shy because property (*ii*) is not satisfied. Indeed, the universal variables X_2 and Y_2 , occurring in two different body atoms and in

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head(ρ_2), are not protected in *body*(ρ_2), as the position p[1] and u[1] (in which occur X_2 and Y_2 , respectively) are attacked by the same variable Y_3 . Therefore, Σ'' is not a shy ontology.

Essentially, during every possible chase step, condition (*i*) guarantees that each variable that occurs in more than one body atom is always mapped into a constant. Although this is the key property behind shy, we now explain the role played by condition (*ii*) and its importance. To this aim, we exploit again Σ'' , as introduced in the previous example, and we reveal why this second condition, in a sense, turns into the first one. Indeed, the rule ρ_6 bypasses the propagation of the same null in ρ_2 via different variables. However, one can observe that the rules ρ_2 and ρ_6 imply the rule $\rho'_6 : p(X_6, Y_6), u(X_6) \rightarrow v(X_6)$, which of course does not satisfy condition (*i*). Actually, it is not difficult to see that every ontology can be rewritten (independently from *D* and *q*) into an en equivalent one (w.r.t. query answering) where all the rules satisfy condition (*i*). As an example, consider the following rule ρ

$$p(X_1,Y_1), r(Y_1,Z_1), u(Z_1,Y_1) \rightarrow \exists W_1 t(X_1,Z_1,W_1),$$

and assume that it belongs to some ontology Σ and that it is not shy w.r.t. Σ because it violates condition (*i*) only. Let us now construct Σ' as $\Sigma \setminus \{\rho\}$ plus the following two rules:

$$p(X_1,Y_1),r(Y'_1,Z_1),u(Z'_1,Y''_1) \rightarrow aux_{\rho}(X_1,Y_1,Y'_1,Z_1,Z'_1,Y''_1);$$

$$aux_{\rho}(X_1,Y_1,Y_1,Z_1,Z_1,Y_1) \rightarrow \exists W_1 t(X_1,Z_1,W_1).$$

Both the new rules satisfy now condition (*i*) w.r.t. Σ' . Moreover, it is not difficult to see that, for every database *D* and for every UBCQ *q*, it holds that $D \cup \Sigma \models q$ if and only if $D \cup \Sigma' \models q$. However, since ρ does not satisfy condition (*i*), this immediately implies that the first new rule does not satisfy condition (*ii*).

The syntactic properties of shy make the class quite expressive since it strictly contains both linear and datalog. Moreover, these properties are easy recognizable and guarantee efficient answering to conjunctive queries, as experimentally shown in Leone et al. (2012). In fact, ontology-based query answering over shy ontologies preservers the same data and combined complexity of OBQA over datalog, namely PTIME-complete and EXPTIME-complete, respectively.

Formal Proofs

Proof of Proposition 3.2

We prove that $\Re(chase(D^c, \Sigma^c)) = chase(D, \Sigma)$ by induction on the chase step. Let $I_0 = D \subset I_1 \subset ... \subset I_m \subset ...$ be a chase procedure of D and Σ ; and let $I_0^c = D^c \subset I_1^c \subset ... \subset I_m^c \subset ...$ be a chase procedure of D^c and Σ^c .

Clearly, the base case follows, since, by definition of the canonical rewriting of D, $\Re(D^c) = D$.

Then, assume that $\Re(I_m^c) = I_m$. We have to prove that $\Re(I_{m+1}^c) = I_{m+1}$. By definition of chase step, there exist a rule $\rho \in \Sigma$ and a homomorphism *h* from $body(\rho)$ to I_m , such that $\langle \rho, h \rangle (I_m) = I_{m+1}$. That is, $I_{m+1} = I_m \cup \{h(head(\rho))\}$. By construction of a canonical rule, there exists a safe substitution ς w.r.t. ρ , such that $\varsigma(\rho)^c$ is a canonical rule and, by inductive hypothesis, there exists a homomorphism h^c from $body(\varsigma(\rho)^c)$ to I_m^c . Consider the following homomorphism $(h^c)' = (h \setminus h|_{\mathbf{X}}) \cup h^c|_{\mathbf{X}} \supseteq h^c|_{\mathbf{X}}$. Therefore, $I_{m+1}^c = I_m^c \cup \{(h^c)'(head(\langle \rho, \varsigma \rangle))\}$. Moreover,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathfrak{R}(I_{m+1}^c) &= \mathfrak{R}(I_m^c \cup \{(h^c)'(head(\varsigma(\rho)^c))\}) &= \\ &= \mathfrak{R}(I_m^c) \cup \mathfrak{R}(\{(h^c)'(head(\varsigma(\rho)^c))\}) &= \\ &= I_m \cup \{h'(\mathfrak{R}(head(\varsigma(\rho)^c)))\} &= \\ &= I_m \cup \{h'(head(\rho))\} &= I_{m+1}. \end{aligned}$$

Finally, let q^c be the canonical rewriting of the UBCQ $q = \exists \mathbf{Y}_1 \psi_1(\mathbf{Y}_1) \lor \ldots \lor \exists \mathbf{Y}_k \psi_k(\mathbf{Y}_k)$. For each $j \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$, consider the safe substitution ζ_j mapping each variable of $\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j)$ in a different null. Therefore, there exists a conjunction of atoms, say $\psi_j^c(\mathbf{Y}_j) = \zeta_j(\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j))^c$ in q^c , such that $\Re(\psi_j^c(\mathbf{Y}_j)) = \psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j)$, for each $j \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$. Hence, $q \subseteq \Re(q^c)$. Moreover, it is easy to see that, each other safe substitution ζ' w.r.t. some ψ_j , produces a conjunction of atoms, $\zeta'(\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j))^c$ such that $\Re(\zeta'(\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j))^c)$ is contained in $\Re(\zeta_j(\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j))^c)$. Therefore, $\Re(q^c) \subseteq q$. Thus, $\Re(q^c) = q$. \Box

Proof of Theorem 3.1

We know that, for each database D, ontology Σ and UBCQ q, it holds that $D \cup \Sigma \models q$ if and only if *chase* $(D, \Sigma) \models q$ (Fagin et al. 2005). Therefore, also $D^c \cup \Sigma^c \models q^c$ if and only if *chase* $(D^c, \Sigma^c) \models q^c$. Moreover, by Proposition 3.2, we have that $\Re(chase(D^c, \Sigma^c)) = chase(D, \Sigma)$ and $\Re(q^c) \equiv q$. Hence, remain to prove that $\Re(chase(D^c, \Sigma^c)) \models \Re(q^c)$ if and only if $chase(D^c, \Sigma^c) \models q^c$.

We prove the "if" part, given that the "only if" part can be obtained retracing the chain of the following implications. Suppose that $chase(D^c, \Sigma^c) \models q^c$. Therefore, there is a homomorphism *h* from at least one disjunct of q^c , say $\zeta_j(\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j))^c$ (where ζ_j is a canonical substitution), to $chase(D^c, \Sigma^c)$, that is $h(\zeta_j(\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j))^c) \subseteq chase(D^c, \Sigma^c)$. Therefore, $\Re(h(\zeta_j(\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j))^c))$ $\subseteq \Re(chase(D^c, \Sigma^c))$. Moreover, note that $\Re(h(\zeta_j(\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j))^c)) = h(\Re(\zeta_j(\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j))^c))$. Hence, $h(\Re(\zeta_j(\psi_j(\mathbf{Y}_j))^c)) \subseteq \Re(chase(D^c, \Sigma^c))$. Thus, *h* is also a homomorphism from a disjunct of $\Re(q^c)$ to $\Re(chase(D^c, \Sigma^c))$, that is $\Re(chase(D^c, \Sigma^c)) \models \Re(q^c)$. \Box

Proof of Proposition 4.1

Let Σ be a shy ontology. Note that, for each rule $\rho \in \Sigma$, there exists a rule $\varsigma(\rho)^c \in \Sigma^c$ such that $\varsigma(X^i) = n_i$ for each variable X^i occurring in ρ . It is easy to see that a such ς is a safe substitution. We denote by $\overline{\Sigma}^c$ the set of all and anly this kind of rules in Σ^c . Note that, if Σ^c is a shy ontology, then $\overline{\Sigma}^c \subseteq \Sigma^c$ is also a shy ontology.

By contradiction, suppose that $\bar{\Sigma}^c$ is not a shy ontology.

First, suppose that there exists a rule $\zeta(\rho)^c \in \overline{\Sigma}^c$ such that there exists a variable, say *X*, occurring in more than one body atom and *X* is not protected in $body(\zeta(\rho)^c)$. Therefore, for each existential variable *Y*, there exists an atom $\beta \in body(\zeta(\rho)^c)$ and some position $pred(\beta)[i]$ in which *X* occurs, and $pred(\beta)[i]$ is not invaded by *Y*. Consider the unpacked rule $\Re(\zeta(\rho)^c) = \rho \in \Sigma$. Therefore, by construction, for each existential variable *Y*, there exists $\alpha \in body(\rho)$ and some position $pred(\alpha)[j]$ in which *X* occurs, and $pred(\alpha)[j]$ is not invaded by *Y*. Hence, *X* occurs in more than one body atom of ρ and *X* is not protected in $body(\rho)$. So that, ρ is not a shy rule, and, thus, Σ is not a shy ontology.

Then, suppose that there exists a rule $\zeta(\rho)^c \in \overline{\Sigma}^c$ such that there are two distinct universal variables, say *X* and *Y*, that are not protected in $body(\zeta(\rho)^c)$; occur in $head(\zeta(\rho)^c)$; occur in two different body atoms; and they are attacked by the same variable. Therefore, there exists an existential variable *Z* such that *X* and *Y* occur only in invaded position by *Z*. Consider again the unpacked rule $\Re(\zeta(\rho)^c) = \rho \in \Sigma$. Then, by the unpacking function, *X* and *Y* are not protected in $body(\rho)$, and they occur in $head(\rho)$, in two different body atoms, and only in invaded position by *Z*. Thus, they are attacked by the same variable. Therefore, also in this case, ρ is not a shy rule. Hence, Σ is not a shy ontology.

Proof of Proposition 4.2

Let M be a finite model of $D \cup \Sigma$. Clearly, if M is a well-supported finite model of $D \cup \Sigma$, we are done. Therefore, suppose that M is not a well-supported finite model of $D \cup \Sigma$. Let $\Omega_1 =$ $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m)$ be an ordering of the atoms of M. Hence, by assumption, there exists $\alpha \in M$ that is not a well-supported atom w.r.t. Ω_1 . Let α_{j_1} be the first atom in the ordering Ω_1 that is not wellsupported. And consider a new ordering $\Omega_2 = (\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{j_1-1}, \alpha_{j_1+1}, \ldots, \alpha_m, \alpha_{j_1})$, where α_{j_1} is shifted from the position j_1 to the position n. As $M \notin wsfmods(D, \Sigma)$, then Ω_2 is not a wellsupported ordering of M. Moreover, the first $j_1 - 1$ atoms are well-supported w.r.t. Ω_2 . Therefore, let α_{i_2} be the first atom in the ordering Ω_2 that is not well-supported. Again, we consider a new ordering, say Ω_3 , where α_{j_2} is shifted from position $j_2 - 1$ to the position *n*. Iteratively, we build a sequence $\Omega_1, \Omega_2, \ldots, \Omega_m, \ldots$ of orderings that are not well-supported. Note that, as the number of different orderings is finite, there exist at least two orderings in the sequence that are the same. Therefore, let Ω_{m_1} and Ω_{m_2} be the first two orderings of the sequence, with $m_2 > m_1$, such that $\Omega_{m_1} = \Omega_{m_2}$ (i.e., Ω_{m_1} and Ω_{m_2} are the same ordering). Consider the subset $A \subseteq M$ containing the first $n - (m_2 - m_1)$ elements in Ω_{m_1} , and the set B of the last $m_2 - m_1$ atoms in Ω_{m_1} . By construction, A is a well-supported instance. Moreover, each $\beta \in B$ is not well-supported by A, as $\Omega_{m_2} = \Omega_{m_1}$. That is, there is no rule ρ in Σ and no homomorphism h such that $h(body(\rho)) \subseteq A$ and $h(head(\rho)) = \{\beta\}$. Hence, as M is a model, whenever $A \models body(\rho)$, there exists an atom α in A, such that $\alpha \models head(\rho)$. Therefore, A is a model.

To complete the proof, let M be a finite minimal model of $D \cup \Sigma$. As just proved, there exists a well-supported finite model $M' \subseteq M$. By minimality of M, the model M' must be equal to M. Therefore, M is a well-supported finite model. \Box

Proof of Theorem 4.3

We have to prove that for each $M \in wsfmods(D^c, \Sigma_a^c)$, there exist $M' \in wsfmods(D^c, \Sigma^c)$ and a homomorphism h' such that $h'(M') \subseteq M$. Indeed, by hypothesis, there exists a homomorphism h such that $h(q) \subseteq M'$, and so $(h' \circ h)(q) \subseteq M$.

Let $M \in wsfmods(D^c, \Sigma_a^c)$, and let $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m)$ be a well-supported ordering of M, and let $(\langle \alpha_1 \rangle, \ldots, \langle \alpha_m \rangle)$ be a propagation ordering of $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m)$. If there exists a join rule $\rho \in \Sigma^c$ satisfied by M with a null or a constant t in the join variables, then we consider the set of join atoms in the body of ρ w.r.t. the term t, say $A \subseteq M$. First, we substitute a term t of some $\alpha \in A$ in position l, with the corresponding term $\langle t, j, k \rangle$ of $\langle \alpha \rangle$, that can be considered as a fresh null. This new atom is denoted by α' , so that $\alpha'[l] = \langle t, j, k \rangle$. Then, for each $\alpha_i \in M$ such that $\langle \alpha_i \rangle [l] = \langle t, j, k \rangle$, for some position l, we set $\alpha'_i[l] = \langle t, j, k \rangle$. Otherwise, $\alpha'_i[l] = \alpha_i[l]$. In this way, we build an instance $M' = \{\alpha' : \alpha \in M\}$ of Σ , and a homomorphism h' such that $h'(\langle t, j, k \rangle) = t$, for each introduced fresh null $\langle t, j, k \rangle$ to substitute t. By construction, it holds that $h'(\alpha') = \alpha$, so that h'(M') = M. Note that, by construction, M' is a well-supported finite instance of $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$.

Therefore, it remains to prove that M' is a model of $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$. By contradiction, suppose that M' is not a model. Hence, there exists a rule $\rho \in \Sigma^c$ such that $M' \models body(\rho)$, and $M' \not\models head(\rho)$. We distinguish two cases.

(i) First, suppose that ρ is not a join rule. Then, there exists a safe substitution ζ̂, mapping each variable in the atoms of ρ into a different null, so that ζ̂(ρ)^c ∈ Σ^c_a, as it is not a harmless rule of Shy. By hypothesis, M' ⊨ body(ρ), so that there exists a homomorphism h" such that h"(body(ρ)) ⊆ M'. Therefore, h'(h"(body(ρ))) ⊆ h'(M') = M, and so M ⊨ body(ρ). Hence, also M ⊨ body(ζ̂(ρ)^c). As M is a model of Σ^c_a, then M ⊨ head(ζ̂(ρ)^c). Therefore, there exists a homomorphism h" such that h"'(head(ζ̂(ρ)^c)) = α_j, for some j ∈ {1,...,m}. Hence,

 $\alpha_j \in M$. Therefore, $\alpha'_j \in M'$. Moreover, $\alpha'_j \models head(\rho)$, as $h'(\alpha'_j) = \alpha_j \models head(\rho)$. Therefore, $M' \models head(\rho)$.

(ii) Now, suppose that ρ is a join rule. Since, by hypothesis, $M' \models body(\rho)$, then, the join variables in the body of ρ are instantiated by the same null, as $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$ is a constant-free logical theory. However, by construction of M, it is not possible that the same term comes from an instantiation of two different existential variables, since we replaced each such instantiation with a fresh null in at least one joined term.

Therefore, M' is a well-supported finite model of $D^c \cup \Sigma^c$.