A Language for the Specification of the Schema of Spreadsheets for the Materialization of Ontologies

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Abstract. Ontology-based Data Access (OBDA) is concerned with providing end-users and applications with a way to query legacy databases through a high-level ontology that models both the business logic and the underlying data sources, accessed by mappings that define how to express records of the database as ontological assertions. In this research, we are concerned with providing with tools for performing OBDA with relational and non-relational data sources. We developed an OBDA tool that is able to access H2 databases and CSV files allowing the user to explicitly formulate mappings, and populating an ontology that can be saved for later querying. In this paper, we present an extension of our previous work as a language for specifying the schema of the data in a spreadsheet data application. This specification is then used to access the contents of a set of Excel books and express them as a relational database with the ultimate goal of materializing its data as an OWL/RDF ontology. We characterize the syntax and semantics of the language, present a prototypical implementation and report on the performance tests showing that our implementation can handle a workload of Excel tables of the order of ten thousand records.

Keywords. Ontology-based data access, Ontologies, Relational databases, Spreadsheets.

1 Introduction

Despite their simplicity and ubiquity, spreadsheets are still important because they provide a semi-structured way of representing the information of an organization in a distributed way when there is no formal database; even, many times, despite the existence of a centralized system in the company, informal or operational information not covered by the main system is managed in spreadsheets. Although spreadsheet applications (such as MS Excel, Apache Open Office, or Libre Office) give the possibility of making totalizations and filters, these tools

allow limited functionality and are difficult to integrate with the rest of the organization's information, having to resort to data mining and datawarehousing solutions that are not always available to the layman.

Ontology-based data access [1] is a prominent approach to accessing the content of heterogeneous and legacy databases that has gained relevance in the past years in which the database schema along with the semantics of the business model they are exposed as an OWL ontology and the data as RDF triples in distributed form on the web. These OWL/RDF ontologies can be queried through SPARQL end-points.

In this research, we are interested in studying formal models and novel ways of performing OBDA, with the aim of carrying out concrete implementations. In this sense, in recent times, we have been developing a prototype that allows to export the schema of a relational database in H2 format as an OWL ontology and its relational instance as an RDF graph, also allowing the expression of mappings to define concepts from of complex SQL queries [2]. In this paper, we present an extension to our OBDA prototype that allows a user to specify a spreadsheet application using a schema definition language. This language allows a naive user to specify the format of the data in the tables contained in sheets of several books, indicating the orientation of the tables, format of columns and rows, cross-relations between tables and books. This allows the spreadsheets to be interpreted as databases and ultimately being integrated with the rest of the OBDA application. We assume that the reader has a basic knowledge of Description Logics (DL) [3], relational databases and the Web Ontology Language [4].

The rest of the paper is structured as follows. In Sect. 2, we present a framework for conceptual modeling of spreadsheets as ontologies. In Sect. 3, we show an empirical evaluation of the performance of the prototype creating tables and ontologies from several Excel files of increasing size. In Sect. 4, we discuss related work. Finally, in Sect. 5, we conclude and foresee future work.

2 A Framework for Representing Spreadsheets

Now we present a theoretical framework to represent the data of a spreadsheet application. Later, with this framework, we will define a language to describe the schema of the data. Such schema will be used to access the contents of the spreadsheets, interpret them, generate an SQL script, create and populate an H2 database such script, and then materialize an OWL/RDF ontology with the contents of such a database. This ontology could then be queried via a SPARQL processor (see Fig. 1). We provide the syntax of the data description language in the spreadsheet application using a BNF grammar and give its operational semantics in terms of this framework. We will use a running example throughout the article to illustrate how to use it.

A spreadsheet application data is a set of books. More formally:

Definition 1. An spreadsheet application A is a pair (books, m) where books is a set of books and m is a map from a unique identifier into an object of the application.

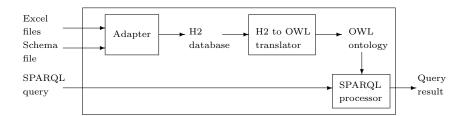


Fig. 1. Architecture of the system

A book is basically a set of sheets along with further information. Formally:

Definition 2. A book b is a tuple (id, path, sheets, sheetByID) where id is the identifier of the book, path is the absolute path of the Excel file defining the book, sheets is a list of sheets, and sheetByID is a map from sheet identifier into a sheet.

A sheet is composed by a set of tables. Formally:

Definition 3. A sheet s is a tuple (id, name, tables, tableByID, containerBookID) where id is the unique identifier of the sheet, name is the sheet's name in the container Excel book, tables is the set of tables contained in this sheet, tableByID is a map from unique table identifier into a table, and containerBookID is the identifier of the book containing the sheet.

A table has a header, a set of records, and an orientation (either horizontal or vertical). A cell range defines a rectangle of the data sheet specified by two cell references. Tables can contain references to other tables. Formally:

Definition 4. A table t is a tuple (id, className, orientation, initialDataCell, final Data Cell, initial Header Cell, final Header Cell, header Info, index Of Key Field, crossReferences, containerSheetID, containerBookID) where id is the unique identifier of the table, className is the class in the target ontology defined by the table, orientation is either vertical or horizontal, initialDataCell is the top-left corner of the table's data, finalDataCell is the bottom-right corner of the table's data, initialHeaderCell is the top-left corner of the table's header, finalHeaderCell is the bottom-right corner of the table's header, headerInfo is a map from integer i into a header datum object h_i , crossReferences is a set of cross-references from this table into other tables, containerSheetID is the identifier of the sheet containing this table, and containerBookID is the identifier of the book containing this table. A header datum is a tuple (i, name, type) where i is the 1-based index of the header datum in its container map, name is the name of the field, and type is the type of the field, that can be one of string, numeric (either integer or real), boolean, or date. A cell has a row (a positive number) and a column (a 1-based positive number). A range is pair (c_i, c_f) composed of an initial cell c_i and a final cell c_f . A cross-reference is a tuple (i,t,j) where i

is the index of the field in the source table, t is the identifier of the destination table and j is the index of the field in the destination table.

2.1 Grammar for the Spreadsheet Description Language

We need a language for expressing the elements of this framework. Let us consider the spreadsheet in Fig. 2 containing two tables representing people and their cell phones. We will use that example in order to introduce the elements of our language for describing the schema of the data in the spreadsheet with the goal of materializing an ontology from it that can be queried using SPARQL. We now define the grammar for writing scripts for defining the structure of Excel application data. We discuss each construct by giving its meaning, the BNF grammar that defines its syntax, and an example describing its elements.

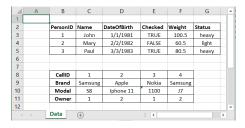


Fig. 2. A spreadsheet representing people and their cell phones

A script is a sequence of commands and is the start symbol of the grammar: $\langle script \rangle ::= \langle command \rangle^*$

There are several available commands to be used in the description of schemas of Excel files.

```
 \begin{array}{ll} \langle command \rangle ::= \langle book\text{-}declaration \rangle \mid \langle sheet\text{-}declaration \rangle \mid \langle table\text{-}declaration \rangle \\ \mid \langle table\text{-}header\text{-}declaration \rangle \mid \langle table\text{-}data\text{-}declaration \rangle \mid \langle table\text{-}field\text{-}declaration \rangle \\ \mid \langle table\text{-}key\text{-}field\text{-}declaration \rangle \mid \langle cons\text{-}ref\text{-}declaration \rangle \mid \langle comment \rangle \end{array}
```

A book can be declared by giving it an identifier and a path. Identifiers are sorrounded by quotation marks and are composed in the usual way.

```
\begin{split} \langle book\text{-}declaration \rangle &::= \text{ book } \langle id \rangle \text{ has-path } \langle path \rangle \\ \langle id \rangle &::= \text{ } "\langle identifier \rangle " \\ \langle identifier \rangle &::= \text{ } \langle letter \rangle.(\langle letter \rangle | \langle digit \rangle)^* \\ \langle letter \rangle &::= \text{ a } | \text{ b } | \dots | \text{ z } | \text{ A } | \text{ B } | \dots | \text{ Z } \\ \langle digit \rangle &::= \text{ 0 } | \text{ 1 } | \dots | \text{ 9 } \\ \langle path \rangle &::= \text{ "} \dots \text{ windows file path } \dots " \end{split}
```

Example 1. Consider the piece of code that expresses that book b_1 has as its path the Excel file book1.xlsx located in the Escritorio8 subfolder in the desktop folder: book "b1" has-path "c:/users/sgomez/Desktop/Escritorio8/book1.xlsx".

A book has at least one data sheet. Each sheet has an identifier in this schema file, a name in the spreadsheet and it is located in a book.

```
\langle sheet\text{-}declaration \rangle ::= \text{ sheet } \langle id \rangle \text{ name } \langle id \rangle \text{ in } \langle id \rangle
```

Example 2. Consider the code: sheet "s1" name "Data" in "b1". It expresses that the spreadsheet s_1 has been named Data and it is located in the book b_1 .

Each spreadsheet can have several tables. Each table has an identifier, is contained in a certain spreadsheet, defines a class and has an orientation which either is horizontal or vertical.

```
\begin{split} \langle table\text{-}declaration\rangle &::= \text{ table } \langle id\rangle \text{ in-sheet } \langle id\rangle \text{ class-name } \langle id\rangle \text{ orientation-}literal\rangle \\ \langle class-name\rangle &::= \langle id\rangle \\ \langle orientation\text{-}literal\rangle &::= \text{ horizontal } | \text{ vertical} \end{split}
```

Example 3. Consider the commands: table "t1" in-sheet "s1" class-name "Person" orientation vertical and table "t2" in-sheet "s1" class-name "Phone" orientation horizontal. They define that there are two tables: t_1 and t_2 , which are both located in sheet s_1 . Table t_1 defines a class name Person while table t_2 defines a class named Phone. The orientation of t_1 is vertical but the orientation of t_2 is horizontal.

Every table definition is composed of header and data sections, with syntax:

```
\langle table\text{-}header\text{-}declaration\rangle ::= \text{ header } \langle id\rangle \text{ range } \langle range\text{-}specification\rangle \\ \langle table\text{-}data\text{-}declaration}\rangle ::= \text{ data } \langle id\rangle \text{ range } \langle range\text{-}specification\rangle \\ \langle range\text{-}specification\rangle ::= \text{ "}\langle cell\text{-}spec\rangle ::\langle cell\text{-}spec\rangle "} \\ \langle cell\text{-}spec\rangle ::= \langle letter\rangle^+ \langle digit\rangle^+ \\ \end{aligned}
```

Example 4. Consider the commands for defining the limits of tables t_1 and t_2 : header "t1" range "b2:g2", data "t1" range "b3:g5", header "t2" range "b8:b11", and data "t2" range "c8:f11".

Fields are declared by specifying the table to which they belong, an index, a name and a type. There is an special field called the key field:

```
 \langle table\text{-}field\text{-}declaration \rangle ::= field \langle id \rangle \text{ index } \langle positive\text{-}integer \rangle \text{ name } \langle id \rangle \text{ type } \langle type\text{-}id \rangle   \langle type\text{-}id \rangle ::= \text{ integer } | \text{ string } | \text{ date } | \text{ real }   \langle table\text{-}key\text{-}field\text{-}declaration \rangle ::= \text{ key-field } \langle id \rangle \text{ index } \langle positive\text{-}integer \rangle   \langle positive\text{-}integer \rangle ::= (1..9) \langle digit \rangle^*
```

Example 5. Consider the piece of code for defining the fields of tables t_1 and t_2 :

```
field "t1" index "1" name "PersonID" type integer field "t1" index "2" name "Name" type string field "t1" index "3" name "DateOfBirth" type date field "t1" index "4" name "Checked" type boolean field "t1" index "6" name "Weight" type real field "t1" index "6" name "Status" type string key-field "t1" index "1" name "CellID" type integer field "t2" index "2" name "Brand" type string field "t2" index "3" name "Model" type string field "t2" index "4" name "Owner" type integer key-field "t2" index "1"
```

The table t_1 has 6 fields named PersonID, Name, DateOfBirth, Checked, Weight and Status of type integer, date, boolean, real and string, resp. The table t_2 has 4 fields named CellID and Owner both of type integer, and Brand and Model of type string. The key field of t_1 is PersonID while the key field of t_2 is CellID. Notice that no indications are given here if the contents of a cell is either a formula or a value and it is neither necessary. For instance the column Status is a formula of the form: =IF(F3>=80, "heavy", "light") indicating that if the weight of the person is greater than or equal to 80 kilograms, the person is considered as heavy, otherwise is deemed as light.

A table can have cross-references to other tables.

```
\langle cross-ref-declaration \rangle ::= cross-ref from \langle id \rangle index \langle positive-integer \rangle into \langle id \rangle index \langle positive-integer \rangle
```

Example 6. The following piece of code defines a cross-reference from field number 4 of table t_2 into field number 1 of table t_1 :

```
cross-ref from "t2" index "4" into "t1" index "1"
```

One-line comments are allowed in our scripting language and they begin with the hashtag character.

```
\langle comment \rangle ::= \#\langle character \rangle^*
\langle character \rangle ::= any Ascii character excluding end of line
```

2.2 Semantics of Spreadsheet Constructors

The semantics of the empty spreadsheet application create is $(\{\}, \{\})$. The semantics of commands is given in terms of the function Sem from sequences of commands by spreadsheet applications into spreadsheet applications. The semantics of a book declaration is as follows:

Sem(sheet "id" name "n" in "bid", (books, m)) = $(books', \{(id, s)\} \cup m)$ where

```
books' = books - \{b\} \cup \{b'\}
b = m(bid) = (bid, p, sheets, sheetByID),
b' = (bid, p, \{s\} \cup sheets, \{(id, s)\} \cup sheetByID)
s = (id, n, \{\}, \{\}, bid)
```

The semantics of the declaration of a table id, in sheet sid, determining a class c, with orientation o, with n fields named $name_1, \ldots, name_n$ of types t_1, \ldots, t_n , key field k, m cross-references from fields i_1 , ldots, i_m into foreign tables tid_1, \ldots, tid_m and foreign fields with indexes j_1, \ldots, j_m , resp., header info in the range $h_1: h_2$ and data info in the range $d_1: d_2$ is given shown in Fig. 3.

2.3 Generation of Databases and Ontologies from Spreadsheets

We now discuss the generation of OWL/RDF ontologies from spreadsheet applications. Given a book with mapping m of identifiers into objects, let t be a table such that $t = (id, c, o, d_1, d_2, h_1, h_2, head, k, cross, s)$, such that cross = dt

```
\mathsf{Sem}(\mathit{sec},(\mathit{books},m)) = (\mathit{books}',\{(\mathit{id},t)\} \cup m) where
                                 sec = (table "id" in-sheet "sid" class-name "c" orientation o 
                                          header "id" range "h_1:h_2" \hookleftarrow
                                          field "id" index "1" name "name1" type t₁←
                                          field "id" index "n" name "name_n" type t_n \rightleftarrows
                                          kev-field "id" index "k" ←
                                          data "id" range "d_1:d_2" \leftarrow
                                          cross-ref from "id" index "i_1" into "tid_1" index "j_1"
                                          cross-ref from "id" index "im" into "tidm" index "im")
                                     s = (sid, name, ts, tableByID, containerBookID) = m(id)
                                     t \,=\, (id,\, c,\, o,\, d_1,\, d_2,\, h_1,\, h_2,\, head,\, k,\, cross,\, sid)
                                   s' \, = \, (\mathit{sid}, \mathit{name}, \{t\} \cup \mathit{ts}, \{(\mathit{id}, t)\} \cup \mathit{tableByID}, \mathit{containerBookID})
                               books' = books - \{b\} \cup \{b'\}
                                    b = (bid, p, sheets, sheetByID) = m(containerBookID)
                                   b' = (bid, p, sheets', sheetByID)
                               sheets' = \{s\} \cup sheets
                                cross = \{(i_1, tid_1, j_1), \dots, (i_m, tid_m, j_m)\}
                                 head = \lambda i.(i, name, t_i), \text{ with } i = 1, \dots, n
```

Fig. 3. Semantics of table declaration commands

 $\{(i_1, tid_1, j_1), \ldots, (i_m, tid_m, j_m)\}$, and $head = \lambda i.(i, name_i, t_i)$, with $i = 1, \ldots, n$. The SQL code in Fig. 4 represents the schema of table t, where second and sixth are the projectors of the second and the sixth components of a tuple, resp. Then this SQL code is used to materialize an H2 database, which in turn is used to materialize an OWL/RDF ontology using the methodology described in our previous work [5] and in accordance to the architecture shown in Fig. 1.

```
create table "c"(

"name1" t_1, \ldots, "namek" t_k primary key, \ldots, "namen" t_n,

foreign key ("second(head(i_1))") references "second(m(tid_1))"("second(sixth(m(tid_1))(j_1))"),

..., foreign key ("second(head(i_m))") references "second(m(tid_m))"("second(sixth(m(tid_m))(j_m))"));
```

Fig. 4. SQL script for creating a generic table t

```
Example 7. The spreadsheet in Fig. 2 is represented by the SQL script in Fig. 5. Then, from this script, a database is created and the ontology materialized from that database has the following DL axioms (that are ultimately serialized as OWL/RDF): Person \sqsubseteq \exists PersonID, \exists PersonID^- \sqsubseteq Integer, Person \sqsubseteq \exists Daname, \exists Daname, \exists Daname, \exists Boolean, Person \sqsubseteq \exists Weight, \exists Weight^- \sqsubseteq Real, Person \sqsubseteq \exists Status, \exists Status^- \sqsubseteq String, Phone \sqsubseteq \exists CellID^- \sqsubseteq Integer, Phone \sqsubseteq \exists Daname, \exists Daname,
```

```
create table "Person"(
     "PersonID" int primary key,
                                      "Name" varchar(50), "DateOfBirth" date,
     "Checked" boolean, "Weight" real, "Status" varchar(50));
    "CellID" int primary key, "Brand" varchar(50), "Model" varchar(50), "Owner" int,
    foreign key ("Owner") references "Person" ("PersonID") );
insert into "Person" ("PersonID", "Name", "DateOfBirth", "Checked", "Weight", "Status")
     values (1, 'John', '1981-01-01', true, 100.5, 'heavy');
insert into "Person" ("PersonID", "Name", "DateOfBirth", "Checked", "Weight", "Status")
     values (2, 'Mary', '1982-02-02', false, 60.5, 'light'):
insert into "Person" ("PersonID", "Name", "DateOfBirth", "Checked", "Weight", "Status")
     values (3, 'Paul', '1983-03-03', true, 80.5, 'heavy');
insert into "Phone" ("CellID", "Brand", "Model", "Owner") values (1, 'Samsung', 'S8', 1);
insert into "Phone" ("CellID", "Brand", "Model", "Owner") values (2, 'Apple', 'Iphone 11', 2);
insert into "Phone" ("CellID", "Brand", "Model", "Owner") values (3, 'Nokia', '1100', 1);
insert into "Phone" ("CellID", "Brand", "Model", "Owner") values (4, 'Samsung', 'J7', 2);
```

Fig. 5. SQL code obtained from the spreadsheet in Fig. 2

Tab	le	1.	Running	times	for	onto	logy	generation	from	Excel	file	S
-----	----	----	---------	-------	-----	------	------	------------	------	-------	------	---

Number of records	Excel file size [Megabytes]	Time for loading Excel file [seconds]	Time for creating ontology [seconds]	Size of ontology file [Megabytes]
10 100 1,000 10,000 100,000	0.012 0.033 0.255 2.640 26.742	$\begin{array}{c} 0.901 \\ 1.774 \\ 5.825 \\ 29.703 \\ \text{Out of memory error} \end{array}$	0.276 0.359 1.067 4.253	0.115 0.910 8.951 90.951

3 Experimental Evaluation

We now discuss some of the tests we have performed in order to test how our application handles increasing demands in spreadsheet size. The performance of our system is affected mainly by the fact that Excel records are materialized as RDF triples and also by four factors: (i) the system is implemented in the JAVA programming language; (ii) the database management system that we use as intermediate data representation is H2, (iii) the handling of the global ontology is done via the OWL API [6], and (iv) the access to Excel files is implemented using the Apache POI library [7]. Our tests were conducted on an ASUS notebook having an Intel Core i7, 3.5GHz CPU, 8GB RAM, 1TB HDD, and Windows 10. They involved the creation of databases with a single table extracted from Excel books containing only a sheet with a table containing 100 fields of numeric type filled with an increasing number of records. In Table 1, we can see the times for loading the Excel files and the size of the materialized ontologies. Therefore, we conclude that our application can only handle spreadsheets containing tables with a size of tens of thousands records.

4 Related Work

XLWrap [8] constitutes an approach for generating RDF graphs of arbitrary complexity from various spreadsheet layouts, including cross tables and tables where data is not aligned in rows. They provide a functionality similar to ours but relying in JSON for the description of data. Our approach features a simpler language aimed towards naive users. NOR2O [9] can convert Excel to Scovo and Data Cube Vocabulary but it is no longer maintained. Excel2rdf¹ is a Java-based command-line utility that converts Excel files into valid RDF files but as far as we know it is not possible to make precise definitions of the data contained nor export terminologies as done in our proposal. RDBToOnto² allows to automatically generate fine-tuned OWL ontologies from relational databases. A major feature of this full-fledged tool is the ability to produce structured ontologies with deeper hierarchies by exploiting both the database schema and the stored data. RDBToOnto can be exploited to produce RDF Linked Data. It can also be used to generate highly accurate RDB-to-RDF mapping rules (for D2RQ Server and Triplify). $Spread2RDF^3$ is a converter for complex spreadsheets to RDF and a Ruby-internal DSL for specifying the mapping rules for this conversion. Other solutions to the problem of wrapping Excel files into semantic technologies have migrated from the academic world to the commercial world. For example, Open Anzo⁴ used to include both an open-source enterprise-featured RDF quad store and a sophisticated service oriented, semantic middleware platform that providing support for multiple users, distributed clients, offline work, realtime notification, named-graph modularization, versioning, access controls, and transactions, giving support to applications based on W3C semantic technology standards like OWL, RDF and SPARQL. This project is no longer available as it has turned into a company named Cambridge Semantics⁵. TopBraid Composer⁶ can convert Excel spreadsheets into instances of an RDF schema. TabLinker⁷ can convert non-standard Excel spreadsheets to the Data Cube vocabulary. Our work converts the contents of the records in Excel sheets to RDF but also allows to precisely define the schema of the data in OWL.

5 Conclusions and Future Work

We have presented a framework for the representation of spreadsheet applications along with a description language of the schema of the data stored in them. Furthermore, we have given a formal specification of the syntax of such a language with a BNF grammar and its formal semantics in terms of the representation framework. We have shown an example of how it is used. We have

¹ https://github.com/waqarini/excel2rdf

² https://sourceforge.net/projects/rdbtoonto/

 $^{^3~\}rm https://github.com/marcelotto/spread2rdf$

 $^{^4}$ https://www.w3.org/2001/sw/wiki/OpenAnzo

⁵ http://www.cambridgesemantics.com

 $^{^6~{\}tt https://www.topquadrant.com/knowledge-assets/faq/tbc/}$

⁷ https://github.com/Data2Semantics/TabLinker/wiki

provided a prototypical implementation, showing how it is integrated into an ontology-based data access system with the aim of publishing such spreadsheets as freely available ontologies on the Semantic Web. We believe that this language provides a valid alternative to more technical options like JSON from which naive users can benefit while providing more control than WYSIWYG-type applications that provide similar functionality. Also, we have carried out experimental tests to determine the workload that our implementation can effectively handle, showing its viability for spreadsheets containing tables with thousands of records.

As part of future work, we are interested in continuing to explore other types of NoSQL database models and thinking about integrating them into our ontology-based data access prototype with the aim of developing novel algorithms and techniques such as virtualization by query-rewriting to provide more flexibility in regards to volatile data than the one offered by the materialization approach.

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