

Chapter 13: Ontologies

- Is there a flexible way to represent relations?
- How can knowledge bases be made to inter-operate semantically?

Choosing Individuals and Relations

How to represent: “Pen #7 is red.”

Choosing Individuals and Relations

How to represent: “Pen #7 is red.”

- `red(pen7).` It's easy to ask “What's red?”
Can't ask “what is the color of *pen*₇?”

Choosing Individuals and Relations

How to represent: “Pen #7 is red.”

- $red(pen_7)$. It's easy to ask “What's red?”
Can't ask “what is the color of pen_7 ?”
- $color(pen_7, red)$. It's easy to ask “What's red?”
It's easy to ask “What is the color of pen_7 ?”
Can't ask “What property of pen_7 has value red ?”

Choosing Individuals and Relations

How to represent: “Pen #7 is red.”

- $red(pen_7)$. It’s easy to ask “What’s red?”
Can’t ask “what is the color of pen_7 ?”
- $color(pen_7, red)$. It’s easy to ask “What’s red?”
It’s easy to ask “What is the color of pen_7 ?”
Can’t ask “What property of pen_7 has value red ?”
- $prop(pen_7, color, red)$. It’s easy to ask all these questions.

Choosing Individuals and Relations

How to represent: “Pen #7 is red.”

- $red(pen_7)$. It’s easy to ask “What’s red?”
Can’t ask “what is the color of pen_7 ?”
- $color(pen_7, red)$. It’s easy to ask “What’s red?”
It’s easy to ask “What is the color of pen_7 ?”
Can’t ask “What property of pen_7 has value red ?”
- $prop(pen_7, color, red)$. It’s easy to ask all these questions.

$prop(Individual, Property, Value)$ is the only relation needed:

called **individual-property-value representation**

or **triple representation**

To represent “a is a parcel”

To represent “a is a parcel”

- $prop(a, type, parcel)$, where *type* is a special property
- $prop(a, parcel, true)$, where *parcel* is a Boolean property

- To represent *scheduled(cs422, 2, 1030, cc208)*. “section 2 of course *cs422* is scheduled at 10:30 in room *cc208*.”

- To represent *scheduled(cs422, 2, 1030, cc208)*. “section 2 of course *cs422* is scheduled at 10:30 in room *cc208*.”
- Let *b123* name the booking:
 - prop(b123, course, cs422)*.
 - prop(b123, section, 2)*.
 - prop(b123, time, 1030)*.
 - prop(b123, room, cc208)*.
- We have **reified** the booking.
- Reify means: to make into an individual.
- What if we want to add the year?

Semantics Networks

When you only have one relation, *prop*, it can be omitted without loss of information.

Logic:

$$\text{prop}(\textit{Individual}, \textit{Property}, \textit{Value})$$

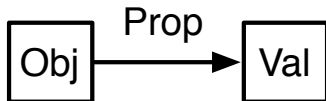
triple:

$$\langle \textit{Individual}, \textit{Property}, \textit{Value} \rangle$$

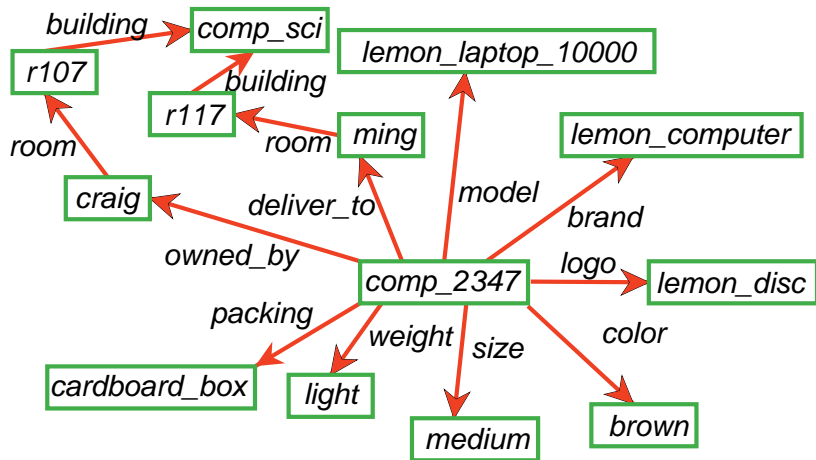
simple sentence:

$$\textit{Individual} \textit{Property} \textit{Value}.$$

graphically:



An Example Semantic Network



Equivalent Logic Program

prop(comp_2347, owned_by, craig).
prop(comp_2347, deliver_to, ming).
prop(comp_2347, model, lemon_laptop_10000).
prop(comp_2347, brand, lemon_computer).
prop(comp_2347, logo, lemon_disc).
prop(comp_2347, color, brown).
prop(craig, room, r107).
prop(r107, building, comp_sci).

⋮

Turtle: a simple language of triples

A triple is written as

Subject Verb Object.

A comma can group objects with the same subject and verb.

$S V O_1, O_2.$ is an abbreviation for $S V O_1.$
 $S V O_2.$

A semi-colon can group verb-object pairs for the same subject.

$S V_1 O_1; V_2 O_2.$ is an abbreviation for $S V_1 O_1.$
 $S V_2 O_2.$

Square brackets can be used to define an individual that is not given an identifier. It can then be used as the object of a triple.

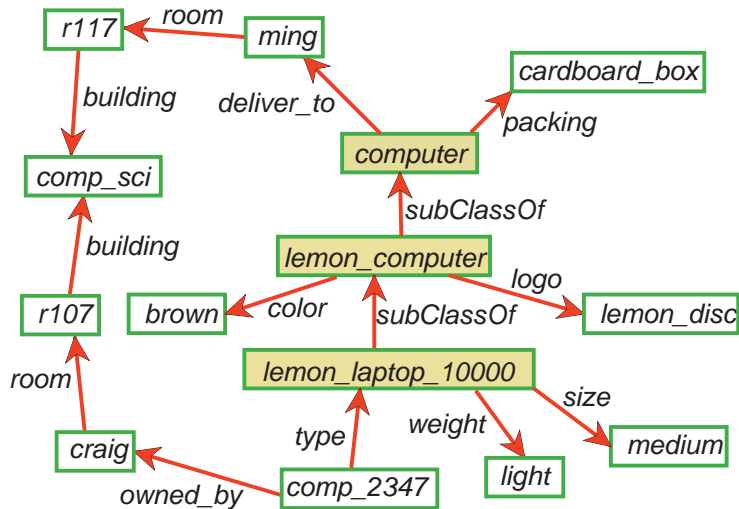
Turtle Example

```
<comp_3645> <#owned_by> <#fran>;  
            <#color> <#green>, <#yellow>;  
            <#managed_by> [ <#occupation> <#sys_admin>;  
                           <#serves_building> <#comp_sci>].
```


Primitive versus Derived Properties

- **Primitive knowledge** is that which is defined explicitly by facts.
- **Derived knowledge** is knowledge defined by rules.
- a **class** is a set of individuals that are grouped together as they have similar properties.
- **Example:** All lemon computers may have *color = brown*. Associate this property with the class, not the individual.
- Allow a special property **type** between an individual and a class.
- Use a special property **subClassOf** between two classes that allows for **property inheritance**.

A Structured Semantic Network



An arc $c \xrightarrow{p} v$ from a class c with a property p to value v means every individual in the class has value v on property p :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{prop}(\text{Obj}, p, v) \leftarrow \\ \text{prop}(\text{Obj}, \text{type}, c). \end{aligned}$$

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{prop}(X, \text{weight}, \text{light}) \leftarrow \\ \text{prop}(X, \text{type}, \text{lemon_laptop_10000}). \\ \text{prop}(X, \text{packing}, \text{cardboard_box}) \leftarrow \\ \text{prop}(X, \text{type}, \text{computer}). \end{aligned}$$

You can do inheritance through the subclass relationship:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{prop}(X, \text{type}, T) \leftarrow \\ \text{prop}(S, \text{subClassOf}, T) \wedge \\ \text{prop}(X, \text{type}, S). \end{aligned}$$

Multiple Inheritance

- An individual is usually a member of more than one class. For example, the same person may be a wine expert, a teacher, a football coach,
- The individual can inherit the properties of all of the classes it is a member of: **multiple inheritance.**
- With default values, what if an individual inherits conflicting defaults from the different classes?
multiple inheritance problem.

Choosing Primitive and Derived Properties

- Associate a property value with the most general class with that property value.
- Don't associate contingent properties of a class with the class. For example, if all of current computers just happen to be brown.

Relationship to OO-programming

- Individuals in a knowledge base are usually things in the real world. Objects in OOP are computational objects. e.g. data structures and associated programs.

Relationship to OO-programming

- Individuals in a knowledge base are usually things in the real world. Objects in OOP are computational objects. e.g. data structures and associated programs.
- The representation of an object in a knowledge base is only an approximation at one (or a few) levels of abstraction. An OOP system knows everything about an object, but nothing about individuals in the world.

Relationship to OO-programming

- Individuals in a knowledge base are usually things in the real world. Objects in OOP are computational objects. e.g. data structures and associated programs.
- The representation of an object in a knowledge base is only an approximation at one (or a few) levels of abstraction. An OOP system knows everything about an object, but nothing about individuals in the world.
- The class structure of OOP is intended to represent objects designed by a systems analyst or a programmer. A knowledge base is used to represent aspects of the world, which is usually not so well behaved.

Relationship to OO-programming

- In OOP an object can only be a member of one of the lowest-level classes. Multiple inheritance is usually not allowed. In the real world multiple inheritance is quite common.

Relationship to OO-programming

- In OOP an object can only be a member of one of the lowest-level classes. Multiple inheritance is usually not allowed. In the real world multiple inheritance is quite common.
- A computer program cannot be uncertain about its data structures. A knowledge representation can be uncertain about the types of things in the world

Relationship to OO-programming

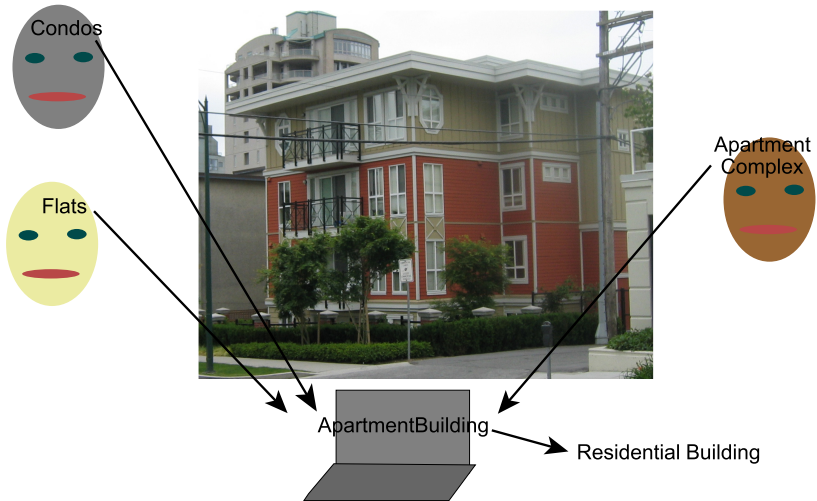
- In OOP an object can only be a member of one of the lowest-level classes. Multiple inheritance is usually not allowed. In the real world multiple inheritance is quite common.
- A computer program cannot be uncertain about its data structures. A knowledge representation can be uncertain about the types of things in the world
- OOP objects are intended to carry out some kind of computation. A knowledge representation does not actually do anything, it simply refers to objects in the world

Relationship to OO-programming

- In OOP an object can only be a member of one of the lowest-level classes. Multiple inheritance is usually not allowed. In the real world multiple inheritance is quite common.
- A computer program cannot be uncertain about its data structures. A knowledge representation can be uncertain about the types of things in the world
- OOP objects are intended to carry out some kind of computation. A knowledge representation does not actually do anything, it simply refers to objects in the world
- OO modeling tools have facilities to help building good designs. Imposing a good design on the unstructured world might not be helpful.

- A **conceptualization** is a mapping from the problem domain into the representation. A conceptualization specifies:
 - ▶ What sorts of individuals are being modeled
 - ▶ The vocabulary for specifying individuals, relations and properties
 - ▶ The meaning or intention of the vocabulary
- If more than one person is building a knowledge base, they must be able to share the conceptualization.
- An **ontology** is a specification of a conceptualization. An ontology specifies the meanings of the symbols in an information system.

Mapping from a conceptualization to a symbol



- Ontologies are published on the web in machine readable form.
- Builders of knowledge bases or web sites adhere to and refer to a published ontology:
 - ▶ a symbol defined by an ontology means the same thing across web sites that obey the ontology.
 - ▶ if someone wants to refer to something not defined, they publish an ontology defining the terminology.
Others adopt the terminology by referring to the new ontology.
In this way, ontologies evolve.
 - ▶ Separately developed ontologies can have mappings between them published.

Challenges of building ontologies

- Ontologies can be huge: finding the appropriate terminology for a concept may be difficult.

Challenges of building ontologies

- Ontologies can be huge: finding the appropriate terminology for a concept may be difficult.
- How one divides the world can depend on the application. Different ontologies describe the world in different ways.
- People can fundamentally disagree about an appropriate structure.

Challenges of building ontologies

- Ontologies can be huge: finding the appropriate terminology for a concept may be difficult.
- How one divides the world can depend on the application. Different ontologies describe the world in different ways.
- People can fundamentally disagree about an appropriate structure.
- Different knowledge bases can use different ontologies.
- To allow KBs based on different ontologies to inter-operate, there must be mapping between ontologies.
- It has to be in user's interests to use an ontology.

Challenges of building ontologies

- Ontologies can be huge: finding the appropriate terminology for a concept may be difficult.
- How one divides the world can depend on the application. Different ontologies describe the world in different ways.
- People can fundamentally disagree about an appropriate structure.
- Different knowledge bases can use different ontologies.
- To allow KBs based on different ontologies to inter-operate, there must be mapping between ontologies.
- It has to be in user's interests to use an ontology.
- The computer doesn't understand the meaning of the symbols. The formalism can constrain the meaning, but can't define it.

- **XML** the Extensible Markup Language provides generic syntax.
`<tag ... />` or
`<tag ... > ... </tag >`.
- **URI** a Uniform Resource Identifier is a name of an individual (resource). This name can be shared. Often in the form of a URL to ensure uniqueness.
- **RDF** the Resource Description Framework is a language of triples
- **OWL** the Web Ontology Language, defines some primitive properties that can be used to define terminology. (Doesn't define a syntax).

Main Components of an Ontology

- **Individuals** the things / objects in the world (not usually specified as part of the ontology)
- **Classes** sets of individuals
- **Properties** relationships between individuals and their values

- Individuals are things in the world that can be named. (Concrete, abstract, concepts, reified).
- Unique names assumption (UNA): different names refer to different individuals.
- The UNA is not an assumption we can universally make: “The Queen”, “Elizabeth Windsor”, etc.
- Without determining equality, we can't count!
- In OWL we can specify:

i_1 *SameIndividual* i_2 .

i_1 *DifferentIndividuals* i_3 .

- A class is a set of individuals. E.g., house, building, officeBuilding
- One class can be a subclass of another
house subclassOf building.
officeBuilding subclassOf building.
- The most general class is *Thing*.
- Classes can be declared to be the same or to be disjoint:
house EquivalentClasses singleFamilyDwelling.
house DisjointClasses officeBuilding.
- Different classes are not necessarily disjoint.
E.g., a building can be both a commercial building and a residential building.

- A property is a relationship between an individual and a value.
- A property has a domain (for the individual) and a range (for the value).

livesIn domain *person*.

livesIn range *placeOfResidence*.

- An *ObjectProperty* is a property whose range is an individual.
- A *DatatypeProperty* is one whose range isn't an individual, e.g., is a number or string.
- There can also be property hierarchies:

livesIn *subPropertyOf* *enclosure*.

principalResidence *subPropertyOf* *livesIn*.

- One property can be inverse of another
livesIn InverseObjectProperties hasResident.
- Properties can be declared to be transitive, symmetric, functional, or inverse-functional.
- We can also state the minimum and maximal cardinality of a property.

principalResidence minCardinality 1.

principalResidence maxCardinality 1.

Property and Class Restrictions

- We can define complex descriptions of classes in terms of restrictions of other classes and properties.
E.g., A homeowner is a person who owns a house.

Property and Class Restrictions

- We can define complex descriptions of classes in terms of restrictions of other classes and properties.
E.g., A homeowner is a person who owns a house.

$$\mathit{homeOwner} \subseteq \mathit{person} \cap \{x : \exists h \in \mathit{house} \text{ such that } x \text{ owns } h\}$$

Property and Class Restrictions

- We can define complex descriptions of classes in terms of restrictions of other classes and properties.
E.g., A homeowner is a person who owns a house.

$homeOwner \subseteq person \cap \{x : \exists h \in house \text{ such that } x \text{ owns } h\}$

homeOwner subclassOf person.

homeOwner subclassOf

ObjectSomeValuesFrom(owns, house).

owl:Thing \equiv all individuals

owl:Nothing \equiv no individuals

owl:ObjectIntersectionOf(C_1, \dots, C_k) $\equiv C_1 \cap \dots \cap C_k$

owl:ObjectUnionOf(C_1, \dots, C_k) $\equiv C_1 \cup \dots \cup C_k$

owl:ObjectComplementOf(C) $\equiv \text{Thing} \setminus C$

owl:ObjectOneOf(I_1, \dots, I_k) $\equiv \{I_1, \dots, I_k\}$

owl:ObjectHasValue(P, I) $\equiv \{x : x P I\}$

owl:ObjectAllValuesFrom(P, C) $\equiv \{x : x P y \rightarrow y \in C\}$

owl:ObjectSomeValuesFrom(P, C) \equiv
 $\{x : \exists y \in C \text{ such that } x P y\}$

owl:ObjectMinCardinality(n, P, C) \equiv
 $\{x : \#\{y | x P y \text{ and } y \in C\} \geq n\}$

owl:ObjectMaxCardinality(n, P, C) \equiv
 $\{x : \#\{y | x P y \text{ and } y \in C\} \leq n\}$

$\text{rdf:type}(I, C) \equiv I \in C$

$\text{rdfs:subClassOf}(C_1, C_2) \equiv C_1 \subseteq C_2$

$\text{owl:EquivalentClasses}(C_1, C_2) \equiv C_1 \equiv C_2$

$\text{owl:DisjointClasses}(C_1, C_2) \equiv C_1 \cap C_2 = \{\}$

$\text{rdfs:domain}(P, C) \equiv \text{if } xPy \text{ then } x \in C$

$\text{rdfs:range}(P, C) \equiv \text{if } xPy \text{ then } y \in C$

$\text{rdfs:subPropertyOf}(P_1, P_2) \equiv xP_1y \text{ implies } xP_2y$

$\text{owl:EquivalentObjectProperties}(P_1, P_2) \equiv xP_1y \text{ if and only if } xP_2y$

$\text{owl:DisjointObjectProperties}(P_1, P_2) \equiv xP_1y \text{ implies not } xP_2y$

$\text{owl:InverseObjectProperties}(P_1, P_2) \equiv xP_1y \text{ if and only if } yP_2x$

$\text{owl:SameIndividual}(I_1, \dots, I_n) \equiv \forall j \forall k I_j = I_k$

$\text{owl:DifferentIndividuals}(I_1, \dots, I_n) \equiv \forall j \forall k j \neq k \text{ implies } I_j \neq I_k$

$\text{owl:FunctionalObjectProperty}(P) \equiv \text{if } xPy_1 \text{ and } xPy_2 \text{ then } y_1 = y_2$

$\text{owl:InverseFunctionalObjectProperty}(P) \equiv$

$\text{if } x_1Py \text{ and } x_2Py \text{ then } x_1 = x_2$

$\text{owl:TransitiveObjectProperty}(P) \equiv \text{if } xPy \text{ and } yPz \text{ then } xPz$

$\text{owl:SymmetricObjectProperty} \equiv \text{if } xPy \text{ then } yPx$

- One ontology typically imports and builds on other ontologies.
- OWL provides facilities for version control.
- Tools for mapping one ontology to another allow inter-operation of different knowledge bases.
- The semantic web promises to allow two pieces of information to be combined if
 - ▶ they both adhere to an ontology
 - ▶ these are the same ontology or there is a mapping between them.

Example: Apartment Building

`numberOfUnits` is a property which maps residential buildings onto some values for the number of living units

Example: Apartment Building

`numberOfUnits` is a property which maps residential buildings onto some values for the number of living units

```
:numberOfUnits
  rdf:type          owl:FunctionalObjectProperty;
  rdfs:domain       :ResidentialBuilding;
  rdfs:range        owl:OneOf(:one :two :moreThanTwo).
```

Example: Apartment Building

`numberOfUnits` is a property which maps residential buildings onto some values for the number of living units

```
:numberOfUnits
  rdf:type          owl:FunctionalObjectProperty;
  rdfs:domain       :ResidentialBuilding;
  rdfs:range        owl:OneOf(:one :two :moreThanTwo).
```

`ownership` is a property which maps residential buildings onto values describing their legal status

Example: Apartment Building

`numberOfUnits` is a property which maps residential buildings onto some values for the number of living units

```
:numberOfUnits
  rdf:type          owl:FunctionalObjectProperty;
  rdfs:domain       :ResidentialBuilding;
  rdfs:range        owl:OneOf(:one :two :moreThanTwo).
```

`ownership` is a property which maps residential buildings onto values describing their legal status

```
:ownership
  rdf:type          owl:FunctionalObjectProperty;
  rdfs:domain       :ResidentialBuilding;
  rdfs:range        owl:OneOf(:rental :ownerOccupied :coop).
```

Example: Apartment Building

An apartment building is a residential building with more than two units and they are rented.

Example: Apartment Building

An apartment building is a residential building with more than two units and they are rented.

```
:ApartmentBuilding
  owl:EquivalentClasses
    owl:ObjectIntersectionOf (
      owl:ObjectHasValue(:numberOfUnits
                           :moreThanTwo)
      owl:ObjectHasValue(:onwership
                           :rental)
    :ResidentialBuilding).
```

Aristotelian definitions

Aristotle [350 B.C.] suggested the definition of a class C in terms of:

- **Genus**: the super-class
- **Differentia**: the attributes that make members of the class C different from other members of the super-class

"If genera are different and co-ordinate, their differentiae are themselves different in kind. Take as an instance the genus 'animal' and the genus 'knowledge'. 'With feet', 'two-footed', 'winged', 'aquatic', are differentiae of 'animal'; the species of knowledge are not distinguished by the same differentiae. One species of knowledge does not differ from another in being 'two-footed'."

Aristotle, *Categories*, 350 B.C.

Basic Formal Ontology (BFO)

entity

continuant

independent continuant

site

object aggregate

object

fiat part of object

boundary of object

dependent continuant

realizable entity

function

role

disposition

quality

spatial region

volume / surface / line / point

occurrent

temporal region

connected temporal region

temporal interval

temporal instant

scattered temporal region

spatio-temporal region

connected spatio-temporal region

spatio-temporal interval / spatio-temporal instant

scattered spatio-temporal region

processual entity

process

process aggregate

processual context

fiat part of process

boundary of process

Continuants vs Occurrents

- A **continuant** exists in an instance of time and maintains its identity through time.
a pen, Europe, a goal, an email, ...
- An **occurrent** has temporal parts.
a day, sending of an email, smiling, ...
- Continuants participate in occurrents.
- a person, a life, a finger, infancy: what is part of what?

- independent continuants: exists by itself or as part of another continuant
a person, a leg, an idea, a plan, ...
- dependent continuants: exists only by virtue of other continuants
an earthquake, a smile, a laugh, the smell of a flower, ...
- spatial region

- objects: a pen, a person, Newtonian mechanics, the memory of a past event
- object aggregates: a flock of birds, the students in CS422, a card collection
- sites: a city, a room, a mouth, the hole of a doughnut
- fiat part of an object: the dangerous part of a city, part of Grouse Mountain with the best view
- boundaries: the surface of an apple, the borderline of a country, a point in a landscape, ...