DEPARTMENT OF COMPUTER SCIENCE





Semantic Technology Tutorial

Part 3: Languages



Standardised language for data

- W3C standard for data exchange is RDF
- RDF is a simple language consisting of <S P O> triples
 - for example <eg:lan eg:worksAt eg:Oxford>
 - all S,P,O are URIs or literals (data values)
- URIs provides a flexible naming scheme
- Set of triples can be viewed as a graph

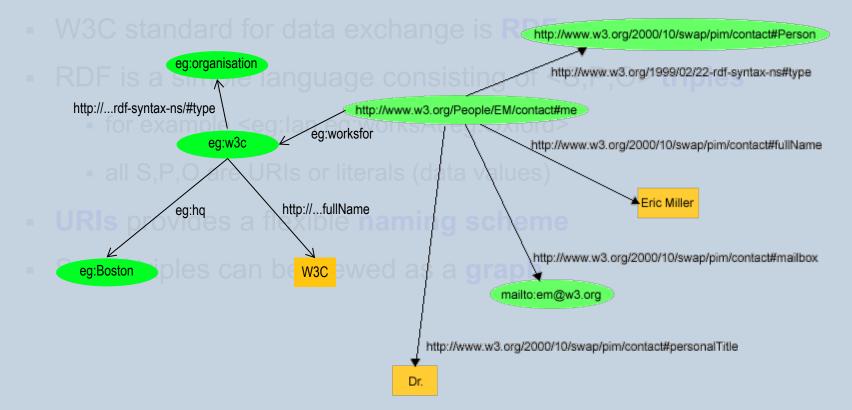








Standardised language for data











Standardised language for data

W3C	Triple			
RDF i	S	Ρ	0	
• foi	em1234	rdf:type	Person	
	em1234	name	"Eric Miller"	
	em1234	title	"Dr"	
	em1234	mailbox	mailto:em@w3.org	
Set of	em1234	worksfor	w3c	
	w3c	rdf:type	organisation	
	w3c	hq	Boston	
	w3c	name	"W3C"	









Standardised language for data

W3C standard for data exchange is **RDF**

PERSON

ID	NAME	TITLE	MAILBOX	WORKSFOR
em1234	"Eric Miller"	"Dr"	mailto:em@w3.org	w3c

	ORGANISATION				
Set	ID	NAME	HQ		
	w3c	"W3C"	Boston		



. . .







2 Standardised language for vocabularies/schemas

- W3C standard for vocabulary/schema exchange is OWL
- OWL provides for rich conceptual schemas, aka ONTOLOGIES

Heart \sqsubseteq MuscularOrgan \sqcap $\exists isPartOf.CirculatorySystem$ HeartDisease \equiv Disease \sqcap $\exists affects.Heart$ VascularDisease \equiv Disease \sqcap $\exists affects.(\exists isPartOf.CirculatorySystem)$









3 Standardised language for queries

- W3C standard for queries is SPARQL
- SPARQL provides a rich query language comparable to SQL

```
SELECT ?x
WHERE
{ ?x rdf:type Patient .
    ?x suffersFrom ?y .
    ?y rdf:type VascularDisease }
```

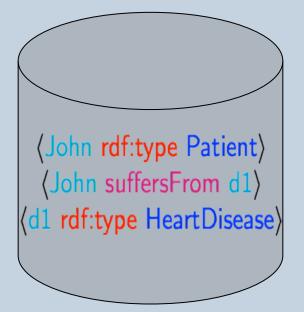






How Does it Work?





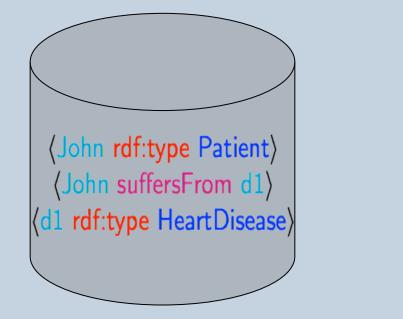


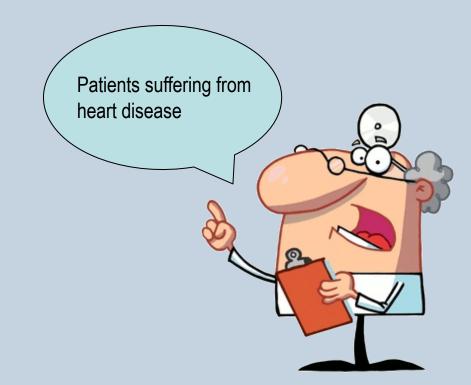




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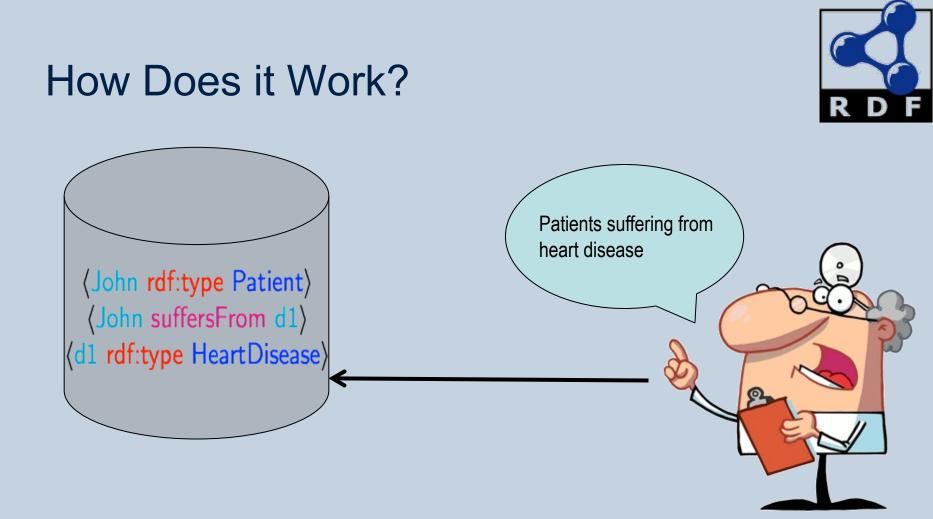








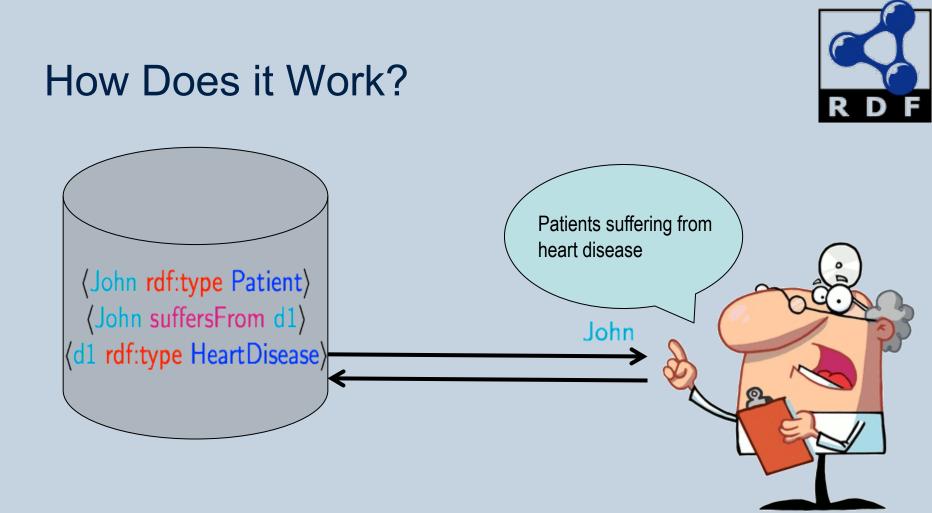












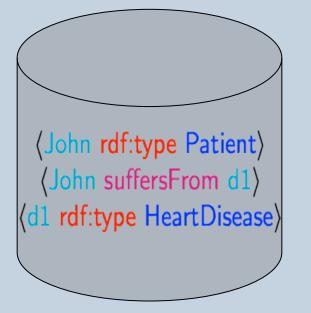


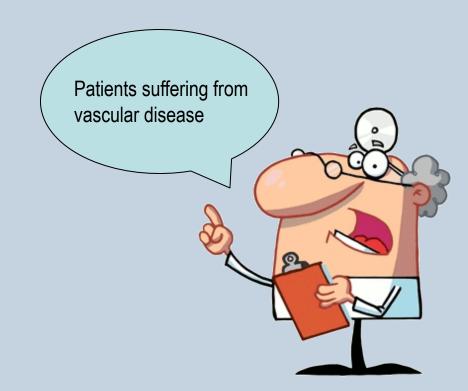




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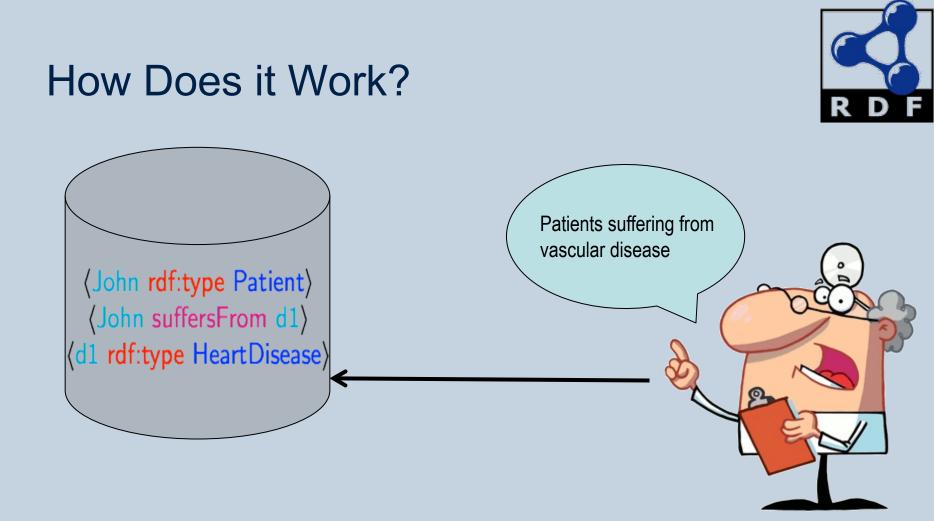








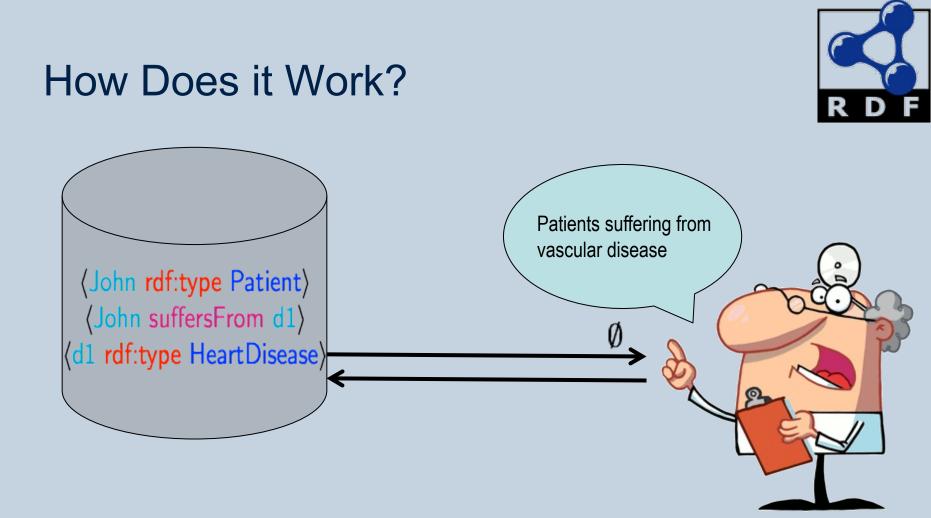








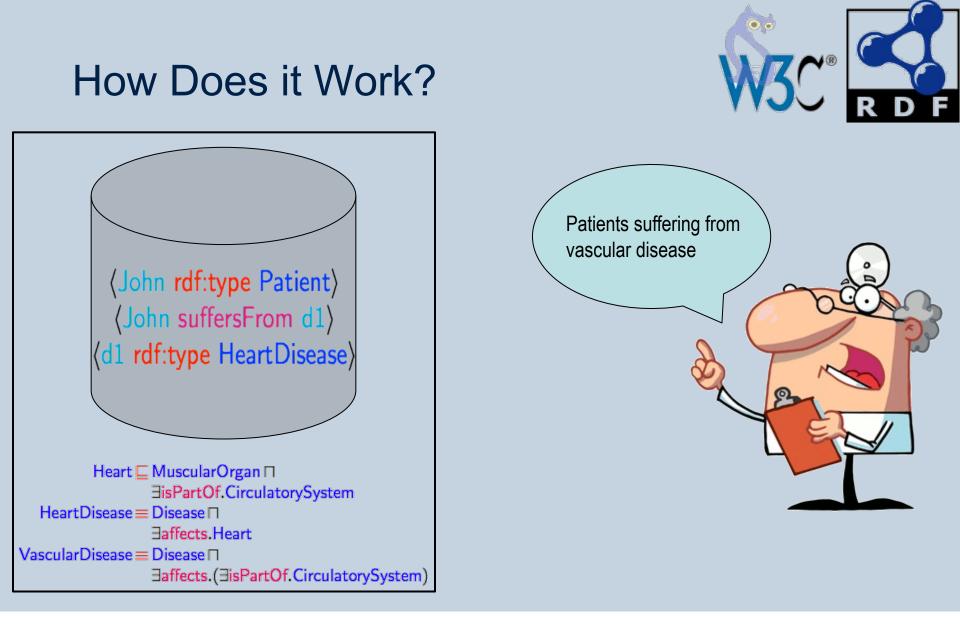








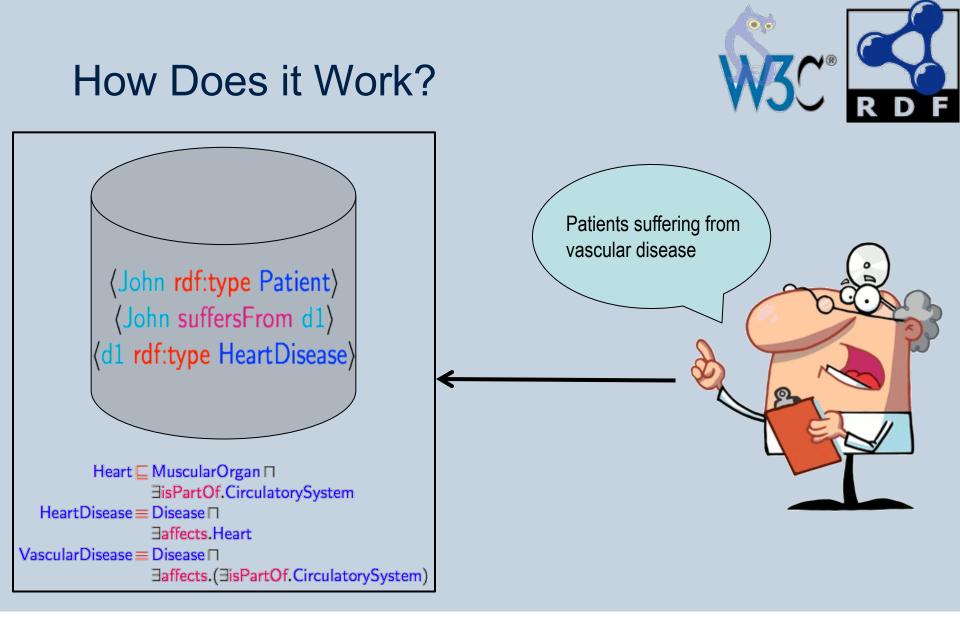








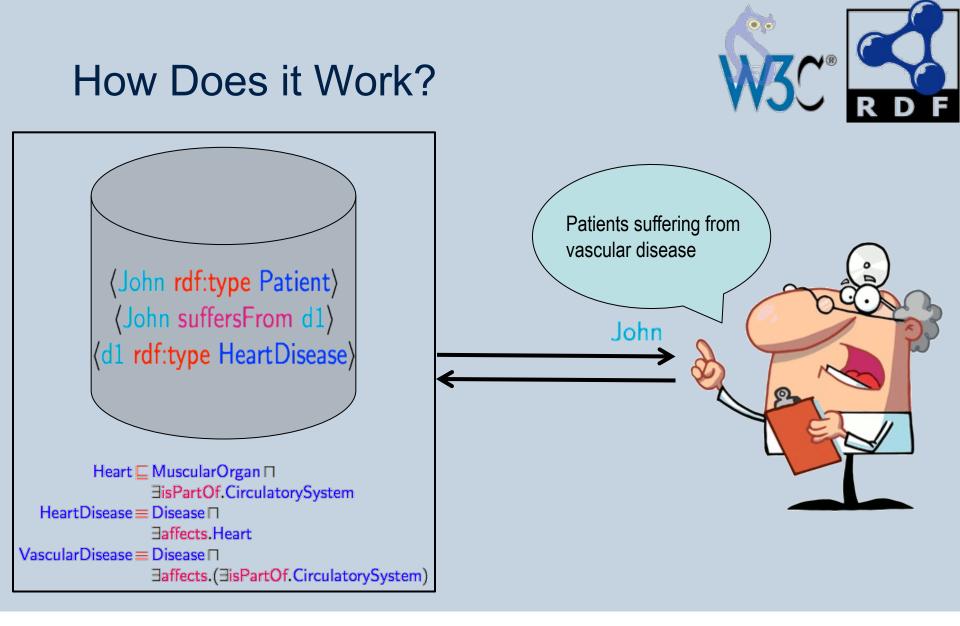








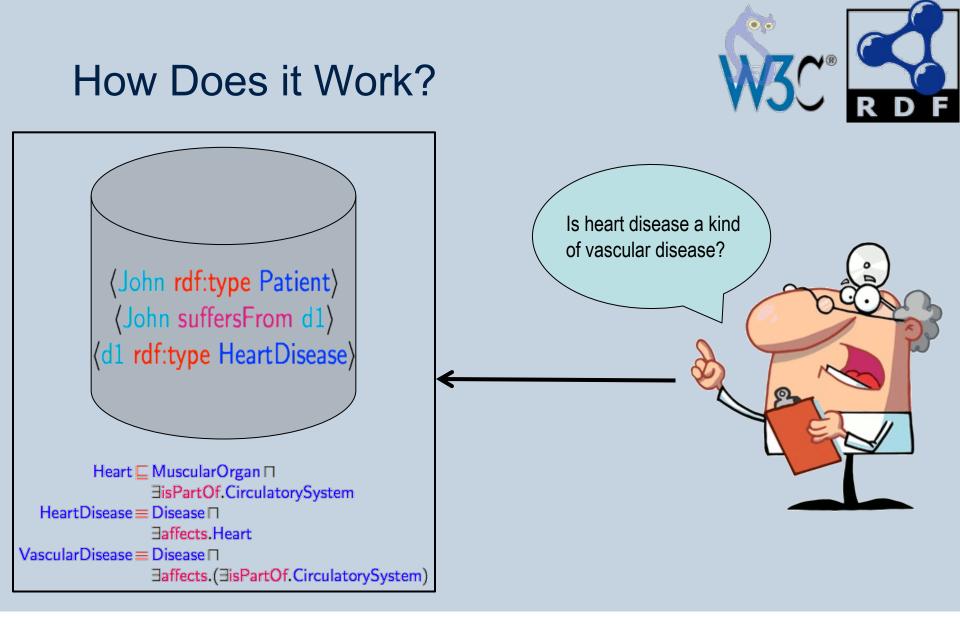








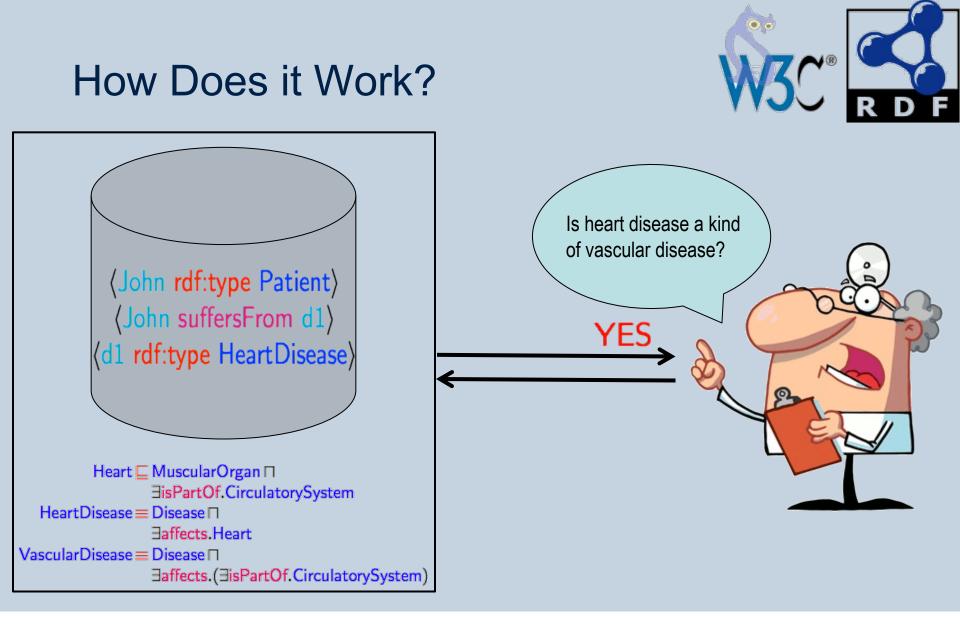








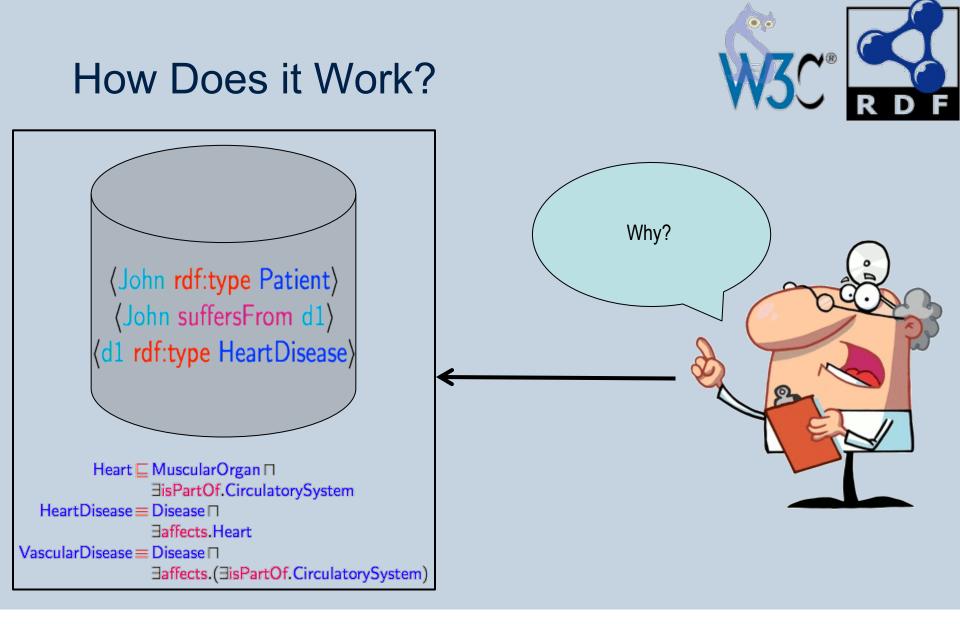








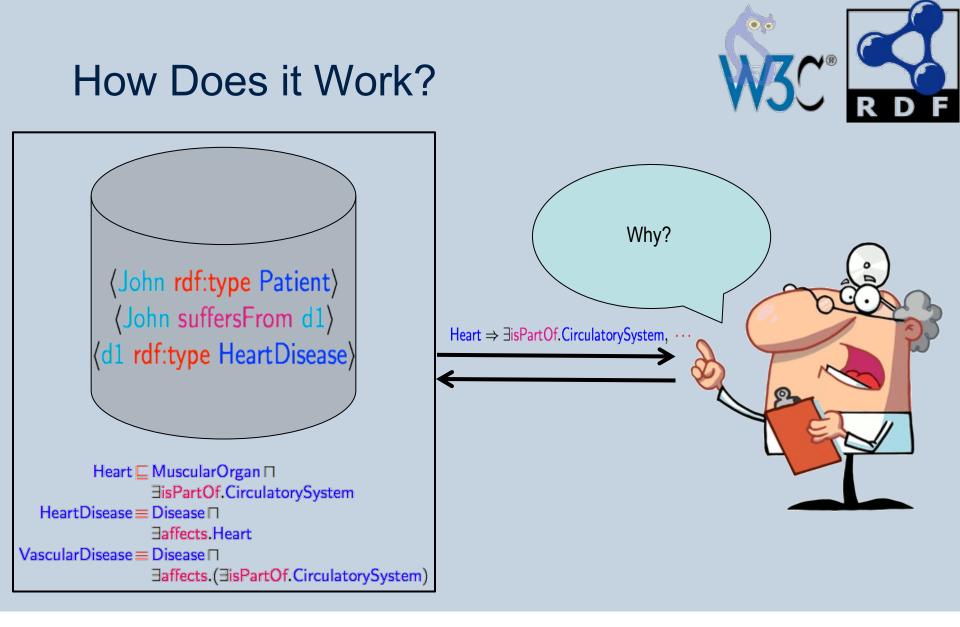


















W3C STANDARDS

An ontology language defines constructs available to modellers

- E.g., kinds of statements about concepts (conjunction, negation, . . .)
- Formal semantics specifies mathematically the constructs' meaning
- Semantics determines the inferences one can draw
- Standard languages facilitate interoperability
- Semantic Web language stack:

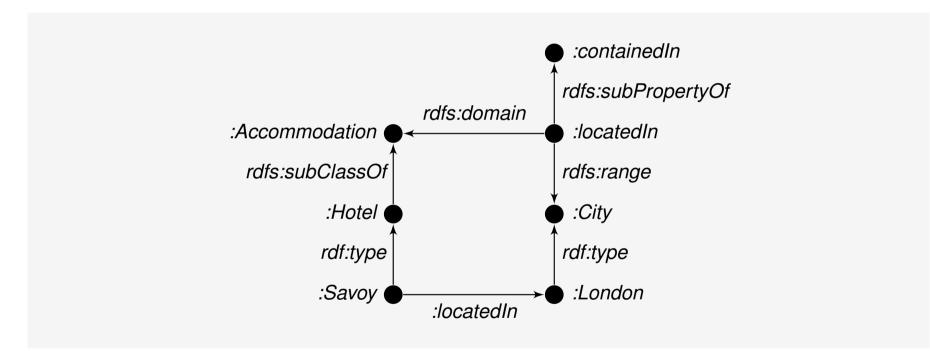
Resource Description Framework (RDF) RDF Schema (RDFS) Web Ontology Language (OWL) 2 OWL 2 Full OWL 2 DL OWL 2 EL OWL 2 EL OWL 2 QL OWL 2 RL Semantic Web Bule Language (SWBL)	<pre>basic semistructured data model a simple ontology language over RDF extends RDFS to an expressive language undecidable decidable, based on description logics } profiles: trade expressivity for efficiency unofficial rule standard</pre>
Semantic Web Rule Language (SWRL)	únofficial rule standard
Rule Interchange Format (RIF)	(mainly production) rule standard

RESOURCE DESCRIPTION FRAMEWORK (RDF): BASIC CONCEPTS

- Node an object one can make statements about (often called resource)
 - IRI well-known identifier for an object
 - E.g., *(http://skyscanner.net/Savoy)*, often abbreviated as *sky:Savoy*
 - Blank node an object with an unknown identity (aka labelled null)
 - E.g., _*:x*
 - Literal concrete value such as a string or an integer
 - E.g., *"abc"*[^]*xsd:string*, *"1"*[^]*xsd:integer*, *"+01"*[^]*xsd:byte*
- Triple the simplest statement about objects
 - $\langle s, p, o \rangle$ with s, p, and o nodes: object o is the value of property p on subject s
 - E.g., (:Savoy, :locatedIn, :London), (:Savoy, rdf:type, :Hotel)
- RDF graph a finite set of RDF triples
 - Can be understood as a three-column relation over nodes
- RDF dataset a finite set of RDF graphs, each associated with a node
- Built-in vocabulary: *rdf:type*, *rdf:Property*, ...
 - rdf:type states that a node is an instance of a class
- More details at http://www.w3.org/TR/rdf11-concepts/

$EXAMPLE \ RDF \ GRAPH$

- RDF graphs can be represented graphically
 - Properties are nodes, so one can make statements about them



RDF/XML SYNTAX

```
<rdf:RDF

xmlns:rdf="http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#"

xmlns:rdfs="http://www.w3.org/2000/01/rdf-schema#"

xmlns="http://skyscanner.net/">
```

```
<rdf:Description rdf:about="http://skyscanner.net/Hotel">
<rdfs:subClassOf rdf:resource="http://skyscanner.net/Accommodation"/>
</rdf:Description>
```

```
<rdf:Description rdf:about="http://skyscanner.net/Savoy">
    <rdf:type rdf:resource="http://skyscanner.net/Accommodation"/>
    <locatedIn rdf:resource="http://skyscanner.net/London"/>
    </rdf:Description>
```

```
<rdf:Description rdf:about="http://skyscanner.net/London">
    <rdf:type rdf:resource="http://skyscanner.net/City"/>
    </rdf:Description>
```

```
<rdf:Description rdf:about="http://skyscanner.net/locatedIn">
    <rdfs:domain rdf:resource="http://skyscanner.net/Accommodation"/>
    <rdfs:range rdf:resource="http://skyscanner.net/City"/>
    <rdfs:subPropertyOf rdf:resource="http://skyscanner.net/containedIn"/>
    </rdf:Description>
```

</rdf:RDF>

TURTLE SYNTAX

```
@prefix rdf: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#> .
@prefix rdfs: <http://www.w3.org/2000/01/rdf-schema#> .
@prefix : <http://skyscanner.net/>
:Hotel rdfs:subClassOf :Accommodation .
:Savoy rdf:type :Accommodation ;
        :locatedIn :London" .
:London rdf:type :City .
:locatedIn rdfs:domain         :Accommodation ;
        rdfs:range         :City  ;
        rdfs:subPropertyOf :containedIn .
```

- Much more readable and compact!
- http://www.w3.org/TR/turtle/

EMBEDDING RDF INTO RELATIONAL MODEL

- RDF data can be stored in a relational database in (at least) two ways
- Dictionary encoding commonly used to map nodes to integers
- Triple table approach
 - Store triples in a three-column table
 - Exhaustive indexing can be achieved using only six indexes
 - Often extended to quads → triples with additional graph membership node
 - Main benefit: flexibility to support any kind of query
 - Main problem: queries involve many self-joins on the triple table

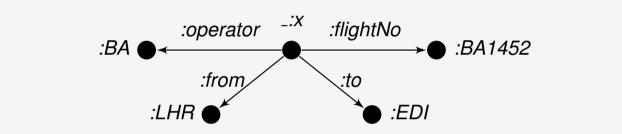
Vertical partitioning approach

- Use binary relations for properties, unary relations for classes
- Store $\langle s, p, o \rangle$ with $p \neq rdf$:type as tuple $\langle s, o \rangle$ in relation p
- Store $\langle s, rdf:type, o \rangle$ as tuple $\langle s \rangle$ in relation o
- Use exhaustive indexing
- Main benefit: avoids self-joins → easier for DBMSs
- Main problem: does not support queries with variables in predicate position

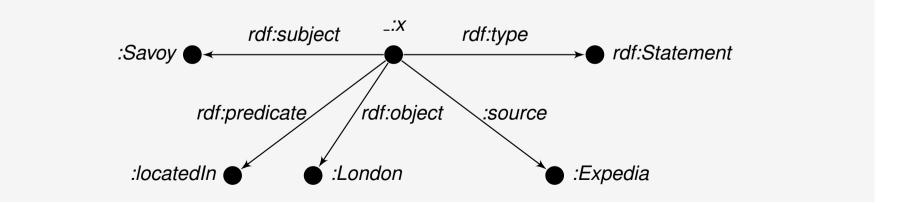
RDF and RDFS

RESTRICTION TO BINARY RELATIONS AND REIFICATION

- **RDF** supports only binary relations \rightarrow often very restrictive in practice
 - E.g., 'British Airways operates flight BA1452 from LHR to EDI'
- Reification represents a statement as an object



- Can be used to make statements about triples
 - E.g., '(*:Savoy*, *:locatedIn*, *:London*) was obtained from Expedia'

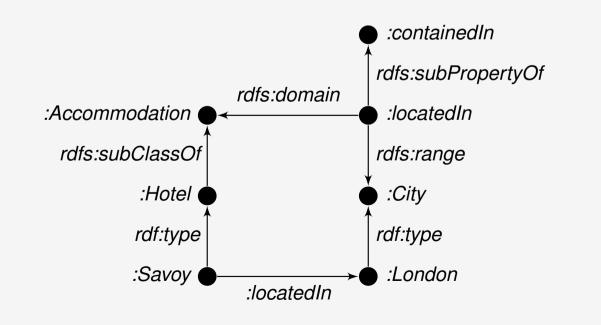


LITERALS

- "lexicalValue"[^]datatypeIRI datatypeIRI identifies a datatype that specifies how to map "lexicalValue" to a concrete value
 - Many datatypes come from XML Schema 1.1
 - http://www.w3.org/TR/xmlschema11-2/
- E.g., *"abc"xsd:string*, *"1"xsd:integer*, *"+01"xsd:byte*
- Syntactic shortcuts:
 - *xsd:string* can be omitted: *"abc" xsd:string* → *"abc"*
 - *"abc"@en* supports localisation → equivalent to *"abc@en"*[^]*rdf:PlainLiteral*
- Literal equality and equivalence are different concepts:
 - Equal if lexical values and datatypes are the same
 - Equivalent if mapped to the same value
 - E.g., *"1"[^]xsd:integer* and *"+01"[^]xsd:byte* are not equal, but are equivalent
- RDF systems often normalise literals on import
 - E.g., *"+01"[^]xsd:byte* is stored as *"1"[^]xsd:integer*

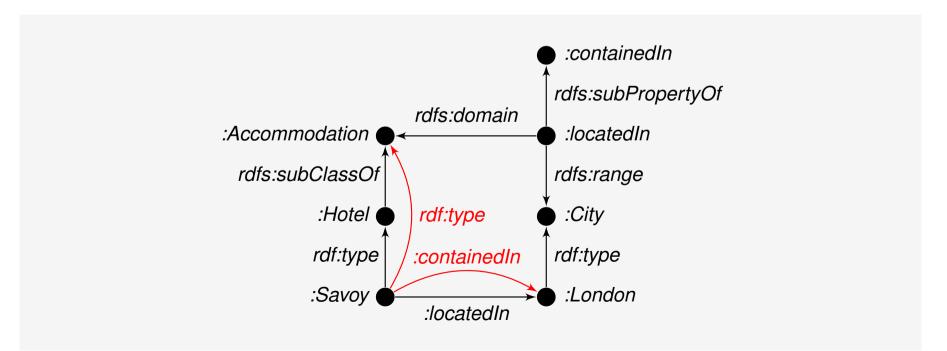
RDF SCHEMA (RDFS)

- RDFS: a simple ontology language for RDF data
- Introduces special vocabulary
 - E.g., rdfs:subClassOf, rdfs:subPropertyOf, rdfs:domain, rdfs:range, ...
 - Schema not separate from data \Rightarrow schema is data
- RDF(S) semantics specifies consequences of the special vocabulary
 - http://www.w3.org/TR/2014/REC-rdf11-mt-20140225/
 - Can be captured using entailment rules
 - E.g., 'If ?X is an instance of ?Y, and ?Y is a subclass of ?Z, then ?X is an instance of ?Z'



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WHAT IS DATALOG?

- Datalog captures entailment rules in a formal way
- Related to Prolog, widely used in databases and Semantic Web
- Term a node or a variable
 - E.g., ?X, sometimes also written as #X
- **(RDF)** atom a triple in which s, p, and o are terms (not just nodes)
 - E.g., $\langle ?X, rdf:type, :City \rangle$, $\langle ?X, :locatedIn, ?Y \rangle$
 - General atoms have form $R(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ for R an *n*-ary relation
 - In RDF, there is just one 'triple' relation so we omit it
 - Equivalent logical notation:
 - Classes \rightarrow unary relations: $\langle ?X, rdf:type, :City \rangle \iff :City(?X)$
 - Properties → binary relations: $\langle ?X, :locatedIn, ?Y \rangle \iff :locatedIn(?X, ?Y)$
 - Works if triples do not contain variables in class/property positions
- (Datalog) rule implication of the form $H \leftarrow B_1 \land \ldots \land B_n$
 - Also written as $H := B_1, \ldots, B_n$.
 - *H* is the head atom
 - B_1, \ldots, B_n are body atoms
 - Each rule must be safe: each variable in the rule must occur in some body atom
- (Datalog) program a finite set of rules

CAPTURING ENTAILMENT RULES OF RDFS IN DATALOG

Entailments about schema:

 $\langle ?X, rdfs:subClassOf, ?Z \rangle \leftarrow \langle ?X, rdfs:subClassOf, ?Y \rangle \land \langle ?Y, rdfs:subClassOf, ?Z \rangle$ $\langle ?X, rdfs:subPropertyOf, ?Z \rangle \leftarrow \langle ?X, rdfs:subPropertyOf, ?Y \rangle \land \langle ?Y, rdfs:subPropertyOf, ?Z \rangle$ $\langle ?X, rdfs:domain, ?Z \rangle \leftarrow \langle ?X, rdfs:domain, ?Y \rangle \land \langle ?Y, rdfs:subPropertyOf, ?Z \rangle$ $\langle ?X, rdfs:range, ?Z \rangle \leftarrow \langle ?X, rdfs:range, ?Y \rangle \land \langle ?Y, rdfs:subPropertyOf, ?Z \rangle$

- Rules in red are not mentioned in standards, but should be
- This part of the standard is, IMHO, poorly designed

Entailments about data:

 $\langle ?X, rdf:type, ?Z \rangle \leftarrow \langle ?X, rdf:type, ?Y \rangle \land \langle ?Y, rdfs:subClassOf, ?Z \rangle$ $\langle ?X, ?W, ?Z \rangle \leftarrow \langle ?X, ?Y, ?Z \rangle \land \langle ?Y, rdfs:subPropertyOf, ?W \rangle$ $\langle ?X, rdf:type, ?Z \rangle \leftarrow \langle ?X, ?W, ?Y \rangle \land \langle ?W, rdfs:domain, ?Z \rangle$ $\langle ?Y, rdf:type, ?Z \rangle \leftarrow \langle ?X, ?W, ?Y \rangle \land \langle ?W, rdfs:range, ?Z \rangle$

• Rules are fixed \Rightarrow do not depend on the ontology

Basics of Datalog

ALTERNATIVE: ONTOLOGY-SPECIFIC ENTAILMENT RULES

One can use rules created for each ontology separately:

 $\langle ?X, rdf:type, :Accommodation \rangle \leftarrow \langle ?X, rdf:type, :Hotel \rangle$ $\langle ?X, rdf:type, :Accommodation \rangle \leftarrow \langle ?X, :locatedIn, ?Y \rangle$ $\langle ?Y, rdf:type, :City \rangle \leftarrow \langle ?X, :locatedIn, ?Y \rangle$ $\langle ?X, :containedIn, ?Y \rangle \leftarrow \langle ?X, :locatedIn, ?Y \rangle$

Often written using logical syntax:

 $:Accommodation(?X) \leftarrow :Hotel(?X)$ $:Accommodation(?X) \leftarrow :locatedIn(?X,?Y)$ $:City(?X) \leftarrow :locatedIn(?X,?Y)$ $:containedIn(?X,?Y) \leftarrow :locatedIn(?X,?Y)$

- More rules, but fewer body atoms
 - More efficient due to shorted rules
 - Can capture only data entailments
- See B. N. Grosof, I. Horrocks, R. Volz, and S. Decker. Description Logic Programs: Combining Logic Programs with Description Logic. Proc. WWW 2003, pages 48–57

SEMANTIC WEB RULE LANGUAGE (SWRL)

- De facto standard for rules on the Web
- http://www.w3.org/Submission/SWRL/
- Several syntaxes, one of them encodes rules into RDF

```
<ruleml:imp>
<ruleml:_body>
<owlx:Class owlx:name="Hotel" />
<ruleml:var>X</ruleml:var>
</swrlx:classAtom>
</ruleml:_body>
<ruleml:_head>
<swrlx:classAtom>
<owlx:Class owlx:name="Accommodation" />
<ruleml:var>X</ruleml:var>
</swrlx:classAtom>
</ruleml:_head>
</ruleml:_head>
```

RULE INTERCHANGE FORMAT (RIF)

- A standard for rules on the Web
- http://www.w3.org/standards/techs/rif#w3c_all
- IMHO, mostly used in production rule systems, not the Semantic Web

```
Document (
  Prefix(sky <http://skyscanner.net/>)
  Group (
    Forall ?X (
      sky:Accommodation(?X) :- sky:Hotel(?X)
    Forall ?X (
      sky:Accommodation(?X) :- sky:locatedIn(?X ?Y)
    Forall ?Y (
      sky:City(?X) :- sky:locatedIn(?X ?Y)
    Forall ?Y (
      sky:containedIn(?X ?Y) :- sky:locatedIn(?X ?Y)
```

RECURSION

- Rules can express recursive queries!
- Significantly more expressive than relational databases
 - WITH clause in SQL-1999 supports limited recursion
 - Not widely (efficiently) implemented
- Reachability:

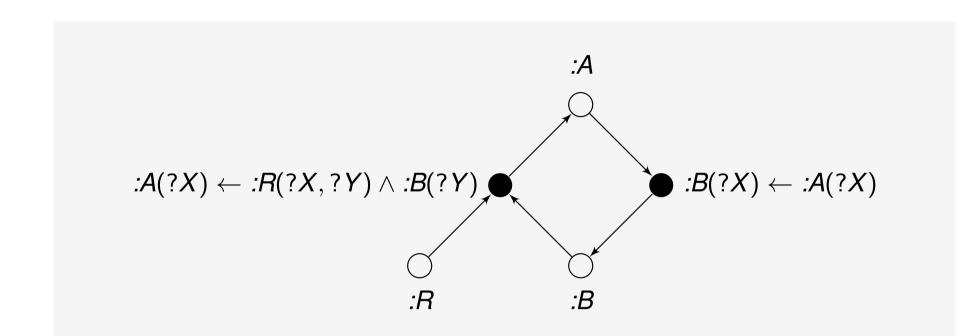
: $Reachable(?Y) \leftarrow :Reachable(X) \land :connected(?X,?Y)$:Reachable(:source)

■ Transitivity:

: $connected(?X,?Z) \leftarrow :connected(?X,?Y) \land :connected(?Y,?Z)$

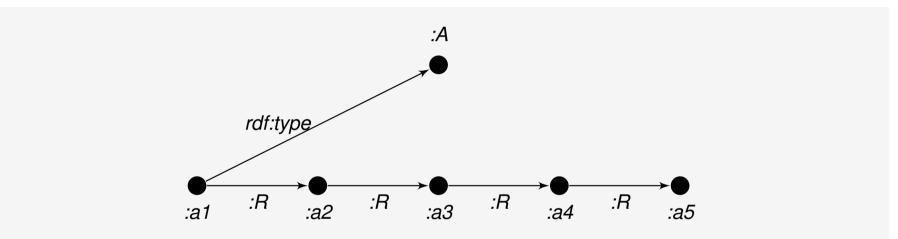
Basics of Datalog

$Rule-Goal\ Graph$

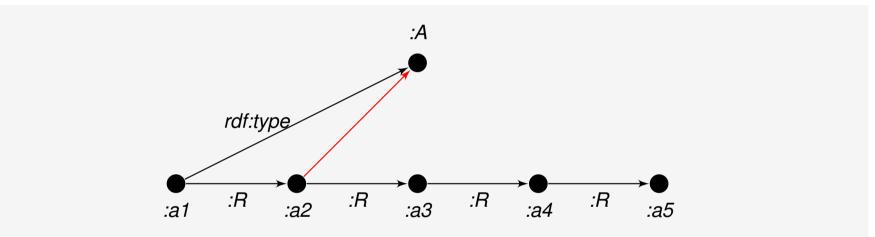


A program is recursive if its rule-goal graph contains a cycle

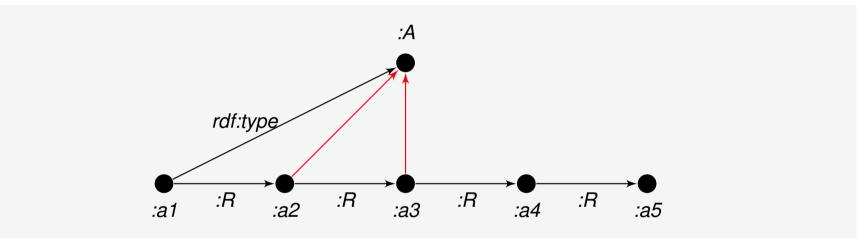
- Iterative semantics: apply rules as long as new facts are derived
- Example rule: $\langle ?Y, rdf:type, :A \rangle \leftarrow \langle ?X, rdf:type, :A \rangle \land \langle ?X, :R, ?Y \rangle$



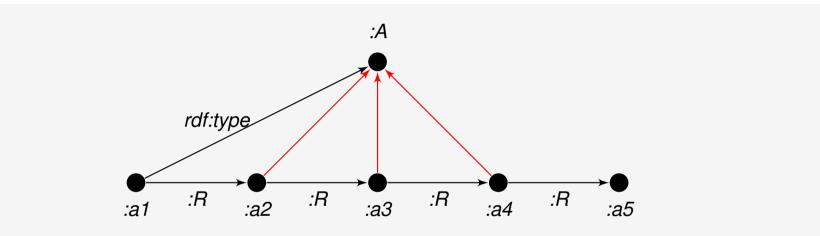
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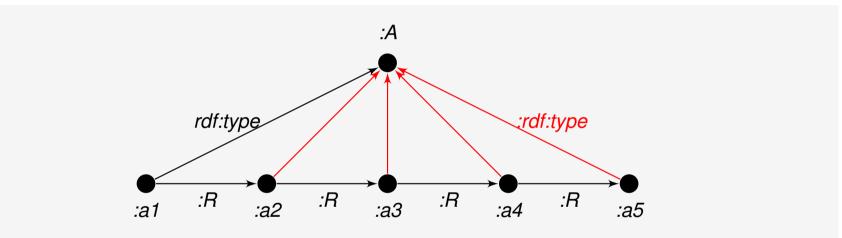
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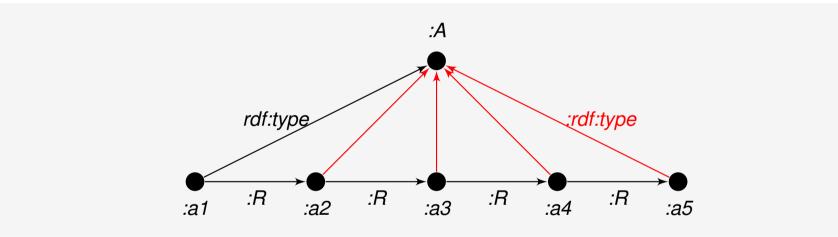
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- Iterative semantics: apply rules as long as new facts are derived
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- Iterative semantics: apply rules as long as new facts are derived
- Example rule: $\langle ?Y, rdf:type, :A \rangle \leftarrow \langle ?X, rdf:type, :A \rangle \land \langle ?X, :R, ?Y \rangle$



- The number of iterative steps depends on the program and the data
 - Cannot be determined in advance by just looking at the program
 - Crucial aspect of recursion
- Semantics just specifies the meaning: implementation can be different

WEB ONTOLOGY LANGUAGE (OWL)

- Benefits of OWL at a glance:
 - Decidable, but yet very expressive fragment of datalog^{±,∨}
 - More user-friendly representation style (no variables)
 - W3C standard (http://www.w3.org/TR/owl2-overview/)
- Can describe complex concepts using class expressions
 - E.g., 'Hotel located at some beach', 'Hotel with exactly two swimming pools', 'Not a hotel', 'Hotel with only non-smoking rooms', 'Hotel or B&B'
 - Features: conjunction, disjunction, negation, existential and universal quantification, and cardinality restrictions
- Can describe class expression hierarchies
 - E.g., 'Each country is headed by a king or a president', 'A kingdom is a country headed only by a king', 'Nobody is both a king and a president', 'A king is a monarch', 'A country headed by a monarch is a monarchy'
- Can express complex role properties
 - A friend of a friend is a friend', 'An enemy of an enemy is a friend', 'A father's brother is an uncle', 'If A is reachable from B, then B is reachable from A'

FUNCTIONAL-STYLE SYNTAX

```
SubClassOf(
  :Country
  ObjectSomeValuesFrom( :headedBy ObjectUnionOf( :King :President ) )
)
SubClassOf(
  :Kingdom
  ObjectIntersectionOf(
    :Country
    ObjectAllValuesFrom( :headedBy :King )
DisjointClasses( :King :President )
SubClassOf( :King :Monarch )
SubClassOf(
  ObjectIntersectionOf(
    :Country ObjectSomeValuesFrom( :headedBy :Monarch )
  :Monarchy
)
```

OWL/XML SYNTAX

```
<rdf:RDF
 xmlns:rdf="http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#"
 xmlns:rdfs="http://www.w3.org/2000/01/rdf-schema#"
 xmlns:owl="http://www.w3.org/2002/07/owl#">
<rdf:Class rdf:about="http://skyscanner.net/Country">
  <rdfs:subClassOf>
    <rdf:Restriction>
      <owl:onProperty rdf:resource="http://skyscanner.net/headedBy"/>
      <owl:someValuesFrom>
        <owl:Class>
          <owl:unionOf rdf:parseType="Collection">
            <owl:Class rdf:about="http://skyscanner.net/King"/>
            <owl:Class rdf:about="http://skyscanner.net/President"/>
          </owl:unionOf>
        </owl:Class>
      </owl:someValuesFrom>
    </rdf:Restriction>
  </rdfs:subClassOf>
</rdf:Class>
</rdf:RDF>
```

■ Widely used, but awkward and unreadable ⇒ mostly machine-generated!

$Manchester \ Syntax$

```
Prefix: : <http://skyscanner.net/>
:Country
   SubClassOf: :headedBy some ( :King or :President )
:Kingdom
   SubClassOf: :Country and ( :headedBy all :King )
:King
   SubClassOf: :Monarch
   DisjointWith: :President
:Auxiliary
   EquivalentTo: :Country and ( :headedBy some :Monarch )
   SubClassOf: :Monarchy
```

- Compact and readable
- Does not cover OWL 2 faithfully → hence the :Auxiliary class!

Description logics (DLs) provide the formal underpinning of OWL

- Studied in-depth in theory
- Tradeoff between complexity and expressivity is well understood
- Extensive body of research in practical reasoning
- More compact syntax, used mostly by theoreticians in academic publications:

```
:Country \sqsubseteq \exists:headedBy.(:King \sqcup :President)
:Kingdom \sqsubseteq :Country \sqcap \forall:headedBy.:King
:King \sqcap :President \sqsubseteq \bot
:King \sqsubseteq :Monarch
:Country \sqcap \exists:headedBy.:Monarch \sqsubseteq :Monarchy
```

OWL

Other OWL Features

- XSD datatypes and (in OWL 2) facets, e.g.,
 - integer, string and (in OWL 2) real, float, decimal, datetime, ...
 - minExclusive, maxExclusive, length, ...
 - PropertyAssertion(hasAge Meg "17"^^xsd:integer)
 - DatatypeRestriction(xsd:integer xsd:minInclusive "5"^^xsd:integer xsd:maxExclusive "10"^^xsd:integer)

These are equivalent to (a limited form of) **DL concrete domains**

- Keys
 - E.g., HasKey(Vehicle Country LicensePlate)
 - Country + License Plate is a unique identifier for vehicles

This is equivalent to (a limited form of) DL safe rules

Other OWL Features

Keys

- HasKey axioms provide functionality similar to keys in relational databases.
- A HasKey axiom is of the form:

 $\operatorname{HasKey}(C(p_1 \dots p_n)(d_1 \dots d_m))$

where C is a class, p_i is an object property and d_j is a data property.

• Axiom states that no two distinct *named* instances of class C can be related to the same set of individuals and literals via the given properties.

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Other OWL Features

Keys

More formally, if ontology \mathcal{O} includes an axiom:

 $\operatorname{HasKey}(C(p_1 \dots p_n)(d_1 \dots d_m))$

then a model ${\mathcal I}$ of ${\mathcal O}$ has to satisfy the following condition:

For each pair a, b of individuals occurring in \mathcal{O} , with $\{a^{\mathcal{I}}, b^{\mathcal{I}}\} \subseteq C^{\mathcal{I}}$, and for each $e \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}, v \in \Delta^{D}, 1 \leq i \leq n \text{ and } 1 \leq j \leq m$, if:

•
$$(a^{\mathcal{I}}, e) \in p_i^{\mathcal{I}} \iff (b^{\mathcal{I}}, e) \in p_i^{\mathcal{I}}$$
 and

•
$$(a^{\mathcal{I}}, v) \in d_j^{\mathcal{I}} \iff (b^{\mathcal{I}}, v) \in d_j^{\mathcal{I}}$$

then $a^{\mathcal{I}} = b^{\mathcal{I}}$.

Other OWL Features

For example, if an ontology $\mathcal O$ includes the following axiom and assertions

HasKey(:Person (:hasChild) (:hasGender))
ClassAssertion(:Person :Elizabeth)
ObjectPropertyAssertion(:hasChild :Elizabeth :Mary)
DataPropertyAssertion(:hasGender :Elizabeth "F")
ClassAssertion(:Person :Liz)
ObjectPropertyAssertion(:hasChild :Liz :Mary)
DataPropertyAssertion(:hasGender :Liz "F")

then \mathcal{O} entails SameIndividual(:*Elizabeth*:*Liz*). If \mathcal{O} additionally includes the following axioms and assertions

OWL

Other OWL Features

 $\begin{aligned} & \texttt{ClassAssertion(ObjectSomeValuesFrom(hasFriend:P):John)} \\ & \texttt{SubClassOf(:PObjectHasValue(hasChild:Mary))} \\ & \texttt{SubClassOf(:PDataHasValue(hasGender"F"))} \\ & \texttt{SubClassOf(:P:Person),SubClassOf(:P:Happy),} \\ & \texttt{ClassAssertion(ObjectComplementOf(:Happy):Liz)} \end{aligned}$

then is \mathcal{O} inconsistent?

OWL

Other OWL Features

Anonymous Individuals

- Recall that ABox assertions in OWL directly correspond to RDF triples of the form $\langle a, rdf:type, C \rangle$ and $\langle a, p, b \rangle$, where C is a class, p is a property, and a, b are IRIs.
- Unlike standard DLs, a and b do not have to be named individuals, but can also be RDF blank nodes.
- Blank nodes are denoted by the use of _: as an IRI prefix (e.g., _: x), and are treated as variables that are existentially quantified at the outer level of the ABox.
- In OWL, blank nodes used in ABox assertions are called anonymous individuals.

Other OWL Features

For example, the assertions

ObjectPropertyAssertion(:hasFriend :Liz _:x)
ObjectPropertyAssertion(:livesIn _:x _:y)
ObjectPropertyAssertion(:livesIn :Mary _:y)

assert that :Liz has a friend who lives in the same place as :Mary without explicitly naming the friend or the place where they live; they are semantically equivalent to a first-order logic sentence of the form

 $\exists x \exists y (hasFriend(Liz, x) \land livesIn(x, y) \land livesIn(Mary, y)).$

These assertions can also be written as a semantically equivalent \mathcal{SROIQ} concept assertion

 $Liz: \exists hasFriend.(\exists livesIn.(\exists livesIn^{-}.\{Mary\})),$

Other OWL Features

Metamodelling

In some applications it may be desirable to use the same name for both a class (or property) and an individual. For example, we might want to state that :Harry is an instance of :Eagle

```
ClassAssertion( :Eagle :Harry )
```

and that :Eagle is an instance of :EndangeredSpecies

```
ClassAssertion(: EndangeredSpecies : Eagle).
```

We could then extend our modelling of the domain to describe classes of classes, e.g., by stating that it is illegal to hunt any class of animal that is an instance of :*EndangeredSpecies*; this is often called *metamodelling*. Metamodelling is not possible in a standard DL, where it is usually assumed that the sets \mathbf{C} , \mathbf{R} and \mathbf{I} (of, respectively, concept, role and individual names) are pairwise disjoint, and where class assertions can only be used to describe individual names; i.e., in an assertion a:C, a must be an individual name.

Other OWL Features

- OWL 2 uses a mechanism known as *punning* to provide a simple form of metamodelling while still retaining the correspondence between OWL ontologies and SROIQ KBs.
- Punning allows for the same IRI to be used as an individual, a class and a property, but IRIs used in the individual, class and property contexts are semantically unrelated.
- This is equivalent to rewriting the ontology by adding unique prefixes such as i:, c: and p: to IRIs according to the context in which they occur. For example:

ClassAssertion(c:Eagle i:Harry) ClassAssertion(c:EndangeredSpecies i:Eagle)

Other OWL Features

Annotations

- OWL includes a flexible annotation mechanism that allows for comments and other "non-logical" information to be included in the ontology.
- An OWL annotation consist of an annotation property and a literal, and zero or more annotations can be attached to class, property and individual names, to axioms and assertions, to datatypes, to the ontology as a whole, and even to annotations themselves; for example:

ClassAssertion(Annotation(*rdfs:comment* "Liz is a person") :*Person* :*Liz*)

OWL

OWL

Other OWL Features

Imports

- The OWL Import statement provides a mechanism for "importing" the contents of one ontology document into another
- For example, if :ont1 includes the statement:

```
Import( :ont2 )
```

then :ont1 is treated as though it also includes all of the contents of :ont2 and, recursively, any ontology documents imported by :ont2.

• The OWL specification defines a parsing procedure that extracts ontological content from the current ontology document and all those that it (possibly recursively) imports, while ensuring termination even if ontology documents (directly or indirectly) import each other cyclically.

COMPLETE VS. INCOMPLETE KNOWLEDGE (I)

EXAMPLE

- Known fact: 'Mary is a woman'
- Question: 'Does Mary have a daughter?'
 - Database/datalog answer: 'No' → intuitive!
- Question: 'Does Mary not have a daughter?'
 - Intuitive answer: 'Don't know' → not enough information!
 - Database/datalog answer: 'No' \rightarrow not in the database, so 'No'

COMPLETE VS. INCOMPLETE KNOWLEDGE (II)

- Databases/datalog assume complete knowledge
 - Everything that is not provable is false \rightarrow closed-world assumption
 - Appropriate in some cases: flight schedules, corporate profits, ...
 - Inappropriate in others: mathematics, certain common-sense reasoning, ...
- Many situations have incomplete knowledge
 - Negative information must be explicitly provable

EXAMPLE

- Known facts: 'Every man is a person', 'Garfield is not a person'
- \blacksquare Can deduce 'Garfield is not a man' \rightarrow proof by contradiction
 - Assume the opposite: 'Garfield is a man and not a person'
 - 2 By 'Every man is a person', we have 'Garfield is a man, a person, and not a person'
 - 3 This is a contradiction, so 'Garfield is a man' cannot be true
 - 4 But 'Either Garfield is a man, or Garfield is not a man' (aka law of excluded middle)
 - 5 Hence, 'Garfield is not a man' is true

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CLASSICAL NEGATION

OWL

Classical negation – works under incomplete knowledge

- Comes from propositional and first-order predicate logic
- Very different from database-style not from datalog
- Used in OWL 2 as ObjectComplementOf

EXAMPLE

:Man(:garfield) \neg :Person(:garfield) \forall ?X.[:Person(?X) \Leftarrow :Man(?X)]

- Can use ¬ in front of facts or rule heads (e.g., ¬:*Person*(:garfield))
- Material implication \Leftarrow is different from datalog implication \leftarrow

$$\left. \begin{array}{c} A \Leftarrow B \\ A \lor \neg B \\ \bot \Leftarrow \neg A \land B \\ \neg B \Leftarrow \neg A \end{array} \right\}$$
all equivalent to each other

COMPARING TWO KINDS OF IMPLICATION

OWL

	Material implication	Datalog implication
Ontology:	$\forall ?X.[:Person(?X) \Leftarrow :Man(?X)]$	$:Person(?X) \leftarrow :Man(?X)$
Facts:	:Man(:peter) :Man(:paul)	:Man(:peter) :Man(:paul)
Conclusions:	:Person(:peter) :Person(:paul)	:Person(:peter) :Person(:paul)
\Rightarrow No observable difference on negation-free rules and positive facts.		
More facts: More conclusions:	<i>¬:Person(:garfield)</i> <i>¬:Man(:garfield</i>)	Syntax error!
\Rightarrow Difference observable if facts or rules contain negation.		

• Lots of theoretical work on integrating the two \rightarrow very hard problem!

OWL 2 PROFILES

OWL

- Reasoning in OWL 2 is of high worst-case computational complexity
 - Undecidable for the RDF version of OWL 2
 - N2EXPTIME for the DL version of OWL 2
- OWL 2 profiles trade some expressivity for lower complexity
 - http://www.w3.org/TR/owl2-profiles/
- OWL 2 RL
 - No support for incomplete information
 - Can be implemented fully using datalog (without negation)
 - Targets mainly database-like warehousing-style applications
- OWL 2 QL
 - Incompleteness via existential quantification, but not disjunction
 - No support for recursion
 - Can be implemented using query rewriting
 - Targets virtual information integration
- OWL 2 EL
 - Incompleteness via existential quantification, but not disjunction
 - Supports recursion
 - Tractable query answering
 - Targets applications that rely on expressive taxonomies

SPARQL PROTOCOL AND RDF QUERY LANGUAGE

- Current version 1.1
- http://www.w3.org/TR/sparql11-query/
- Used to query RDF and OWL systems
- Uses a familiar SELECT-WHERE paradigm
- Two parts:
 - Basic SPARQL → roughly as expressive as SQL
 - No recursive queries
 - Property paths in 1.1 version → expressivity beyond SQL
 - Supports property paths → a form of recursion

BASIC SPARQL

```
Matching of graph patterns
```

- Entailment regimes determine semantics of matches
- 2 Relational algebra over answers to graph patterns
 - Union, subtraction, subqueries, built-in expressions, aggregate functions
 - No NULL-values, but variables can be unbound

PROPERTY PATHS

Terms can be connected by regular expressions over properties

```
PREFIX rdf: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#>
PREFIX : <http://skyscanner.net/>
SELECT ?H WHERE {
    ?H rdf:type :Hotel ; :inCity/:inCountry :Germany .
}
SELECT ?C1 ?C2 WHERE {
    ?C1 rdf:type :Country (:hasLandBorderWith/:hasLandBorderWith?) ?C2 .
}
SELECT ?C WHERE {
    ?C rdf:type :Country ; :hasLandBorderWith+ :Germany .
}
```

- Regular expressions support a form of recursion
- Blurs the distinction between reasoning and querying
- Such queries are common in graph databases (e.g., Neo4j)