

Heiko Paulheim

Previously on "Knowledge Graphs"

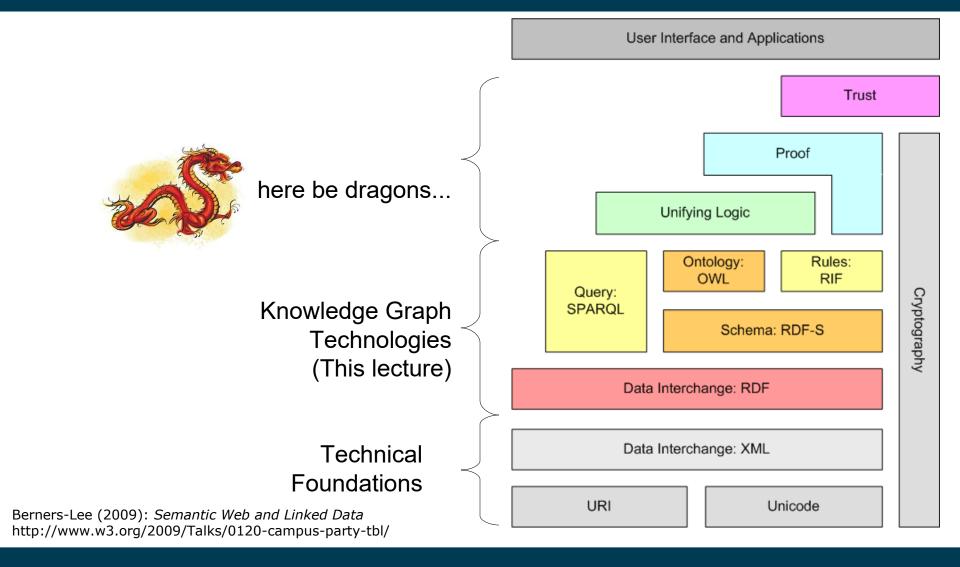
- Is RDF more powerful than XML?
- XML is a markup language for information
- In XML, arbitrary elements and attributes can be defined
- XML tag names are meaningless for a computer

- RDF is a markup language for information
- In RDF, arbitrary classes and predicates can be defined
- RDF class and predicate names are meaningless for a computer

Today: Schemas and Ontologies

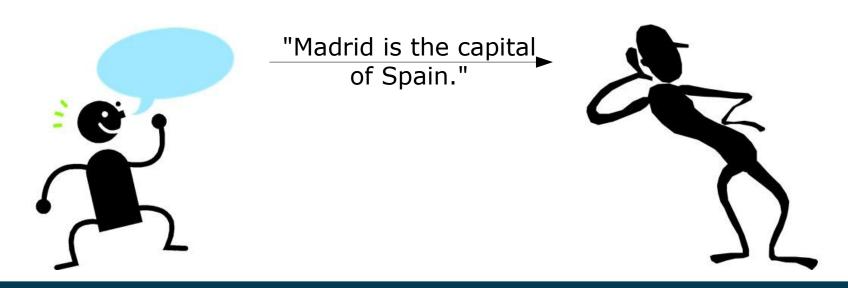
- Last week's slides:
- Node types ("classes") and edge types ("properties")
 - Are also referred to the "schema" of the graph (aka "ontology")
 - Can be defined with further restrictions
 - e.g., an edge of type "author" links a publication to a person
- Schemas and ontologies bring semantics to knowledge graphs
- Today:
 - Building simple ontologies with RDF Schema
 - Elements of RDF Schema
 - Automatic deduction with RDF Schema

Semantic Web Stack



What is Missing up to Now?

- Basic premise: knowledge graphs should encode information so that humans and computers can understand it
- But what does understand actually mean?



Semantics

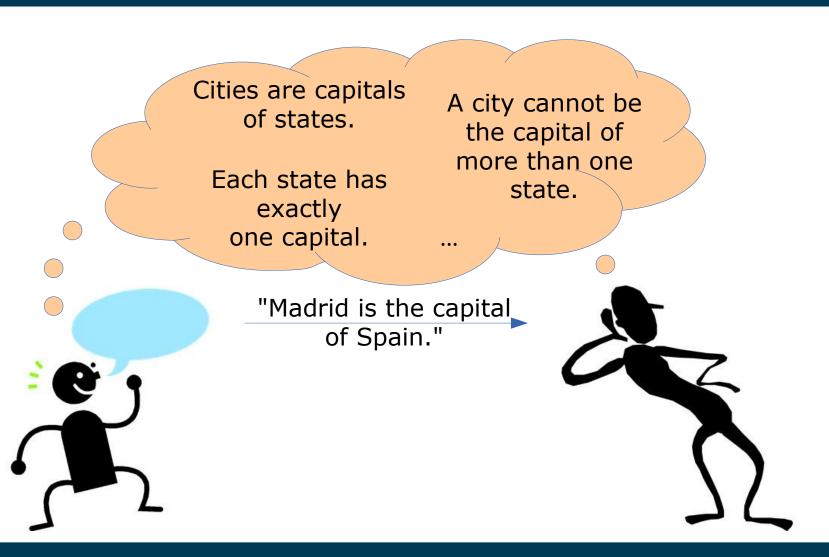
- Let's look at that sentence:
 - "Madrid is the capital of Spain."
- Published in a knowledge graph (i.e., using RDF):
 - :Madrid :capitalOf :Spain .
- How many pieces of information can we (i.e., humans) derive from that sentence?
 - (1 piece of information = 1 statement <S,P,O>)
 - Estimations? Opinions?

Semantics

- Let's look at that sentence:
 - "Madrid is the capital of Spain."
- We can get the following information:
 - "Madrid is the capital of Spain."
 - "Spain is a state."
 - "Madrid is a city."
 - "Madrid is located in Spain."
 - "Barcelona is not the capital of Spain."
 - "Madrid is not the capital of France."
 - "Madrid is not a state."

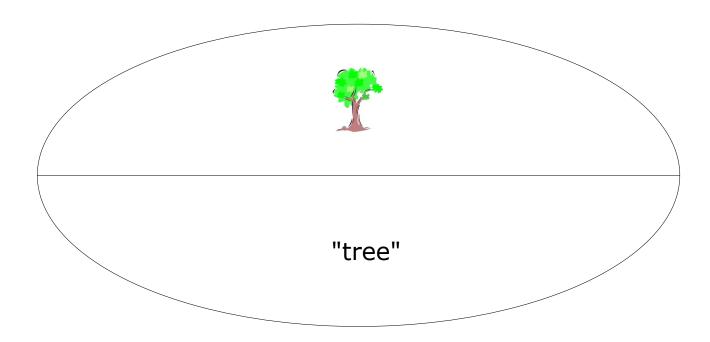
- ...

How do Semantics Work?



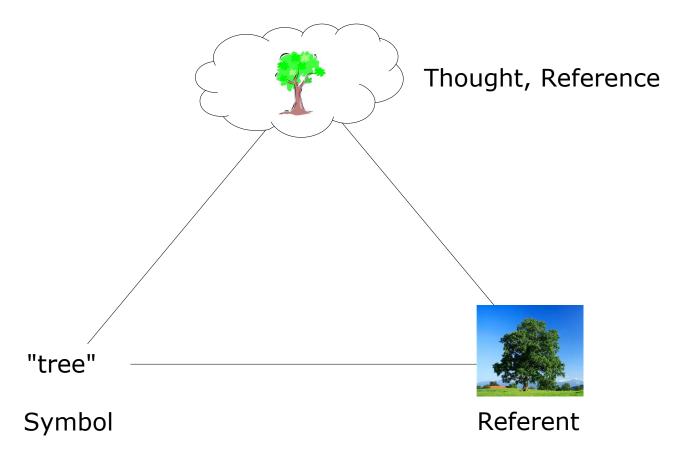
An Excursion to Linguistics

- Saussure's idea of a linguistic sign
- Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913):
 - Signifier (signifiant) and signified (signifié)
 cannot be separated from each other



An Excursion to Linguistics

The triangle of reference



Charles Odgen (1923): The Meaning of Meaning.

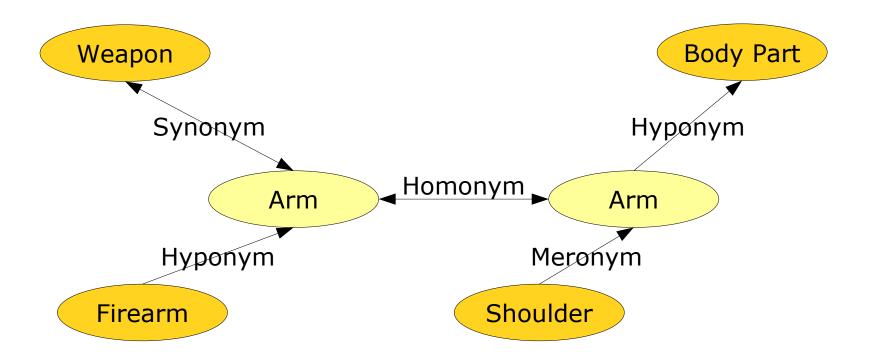
So, how do Semantics Work?

- Lexical semantics
 - Meaning of a word is defined by relations to other words
- Extensional semantics
 - Meaning of a word is defined by the set of its instances
- Intensional semantics, e.g., feature-based semantics
 - Meaning of a word is defined by features of the instances
- Prototype semantics
 - Meaning of a word is defined by proximity to a prototypical instance

• ...

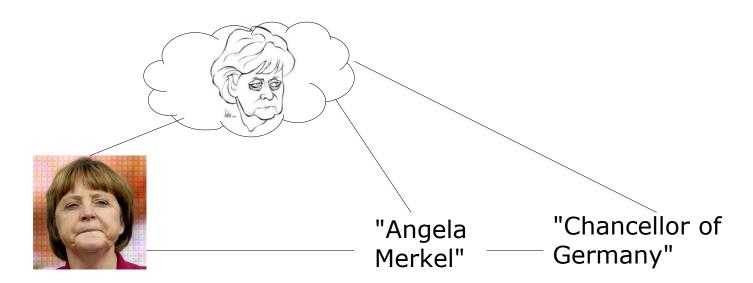
Lexical Semantics

Defining semantics by establishing relations between words



Extensional Semantics

- Listing instances
 - EU members are Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, ..., Sweden, UK.
- Angela Merkel == Chancellor of Germany
 - both terms have the same extension



Intensional Semantics

- Describes features of things, i.e., semes
- A seme is a feature that distinguishes the meaning of two words

Word	has wings	can swim	has fur	can fly
Duck	+	+	-	+
Bird	+	0	-	0
Bee	+	-	-	+
Dolphin	-	+	-	-

Intensional vs. Extensional Semantics

- Intensionally different things can have the same extension
- Classic example: morning star and evening star

Word	Celestial body	bright	visible in the morning	visible in the evening
Morning star	+	+	+	-
Evening star	+	+	-	+

both have the same extension (i.e., Venus)

Intensional vs. Extensional Semantics

- The extension can change over time without the intension changing
 - e.g., "student"
 - does that change the semantics?
- Intension may also change over time
 - technological achievements (e.g., intension of ship)
 - changes in moral values (e.g., intension of marriage)
- Extension may also be empty, e.g.
 - Unicorn
 - Martian
 - Yeti (?)

Intensional vs. Extension Semantics

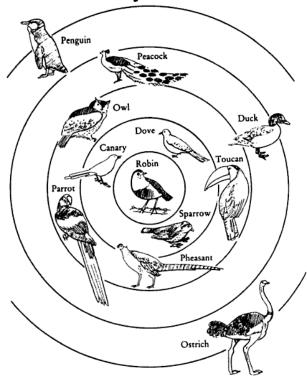
...explained by two well-known experts in the field :-)

Prototype Semantics

- A small experiment:
 - Close your eyes, and imagine a bird!

Prototype Semantics

- So far, intensional and extensional semantics are based on boolean logics (i.e., there's only "true" and "false")
- Prototype Semantics: a more fuzzy variant

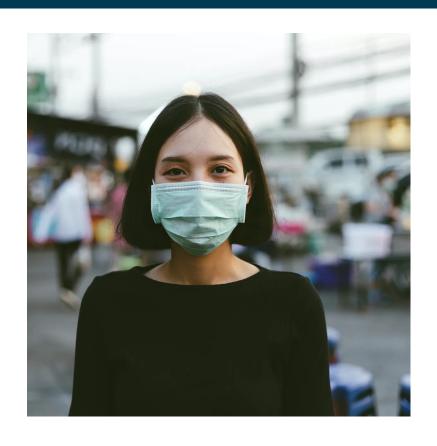


Jean Aitchison: Words in the Mind (1987)

Semantic Shift



"Mask" 2019



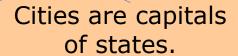
"Mask" 2022

How do Semantics Work?

- We have learned: Semantics define the meaning of words
- That is what we do with ontologies
 - using methods from lexical, intensional, and extensional semantics

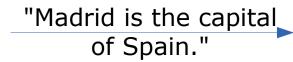


How do Semantics Work?



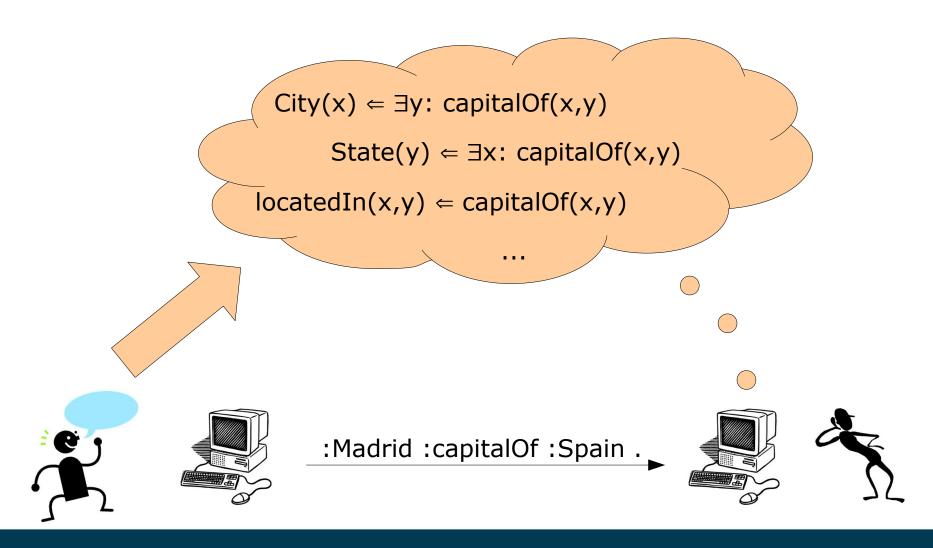
Each state has exactly one capital.

A city cannot be the capital of more than one state.





Semantics Formalized



Ontologies

```
City(x) \in \exists y: capitalOf(x,y)

Country(y) \in \exists x: capitalOf(x,y)

locatedIn(x,y) \in capitalOf(x,y)

...
```

- "An ontology is an explicit specification of a conceptualization."
- Ontologies encode the knowledge about a domain
- They form a common vocabulary
 - and describe the semantics of its terms

¹ Gruber (1993): *Toward Principles for the Design of Ontologies Used for Knowledge Sharing.* In: International Journal Human-Computer Studies Vol. 43, Issues 5-6, pp. 907-928.

What is an Ontology?

- Ontology (without a or the) is the philosophical study of being
 - greek: όντος (things that are), λόγος (the study)
 - A sub discipline of philosophy
- In computer science (with a or the)
 - a formalized description of a domain
 - a shared vocabulary
 - a logical theory

Ontologies – Further Definitions

Guarino und Giaretta (1995):

"a logical theory which gives an **explicit**, **partial** account of a conceptualization"

Uschold und Gruninger (1996):

"shared understanding of some domain of interest"
"an explicit account or representation of some part of a conceptualisation"

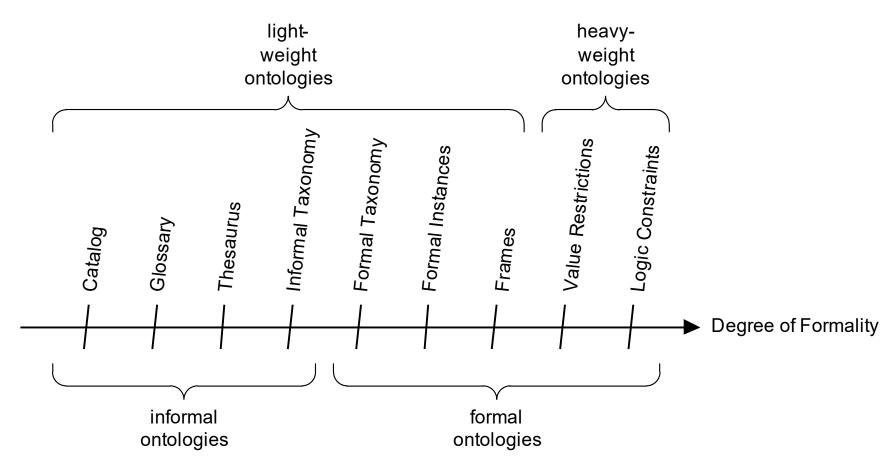
• Guarino (1998):

"a set of **logical axioms** designed to account for the intended meaning of a vocabulary"

Essential Properties of Ontologies

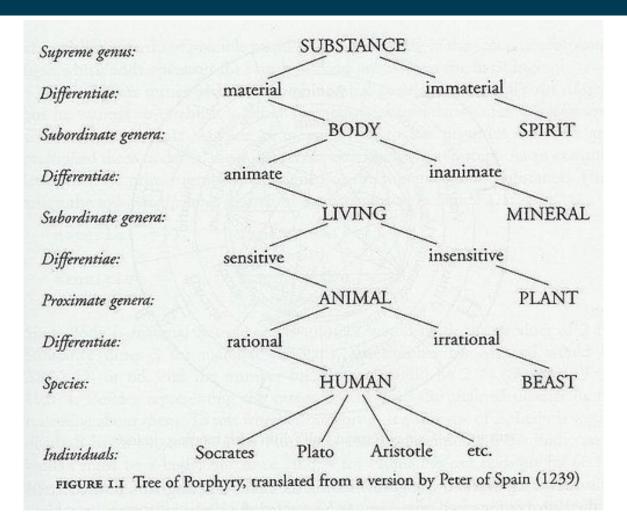
- Explicit
 - Meaning is not "hidden" between the lines
- Formal
 - e.g., using logic or rule languages
- Shared
 - Martin Hepp: "Autists don't build ontologies"
 - An ontology just for one person does not make much sense
- Partial
 - There will (probably) never be a full ontology of everything in the world

Classifications of Ontologies



Lassila & McGuiness (2001): *The Role of Frame-Based Representation on the Semantic Web.* In: Linköping Electronic Articles in Computer and Information Science 6(5).

The Oldest Ontology





Porphyry, Greek philosopher, ca. 234-305

Encoding Simple Ontologies: RDFS

A W3C Standard since 2004



Most important element: classes

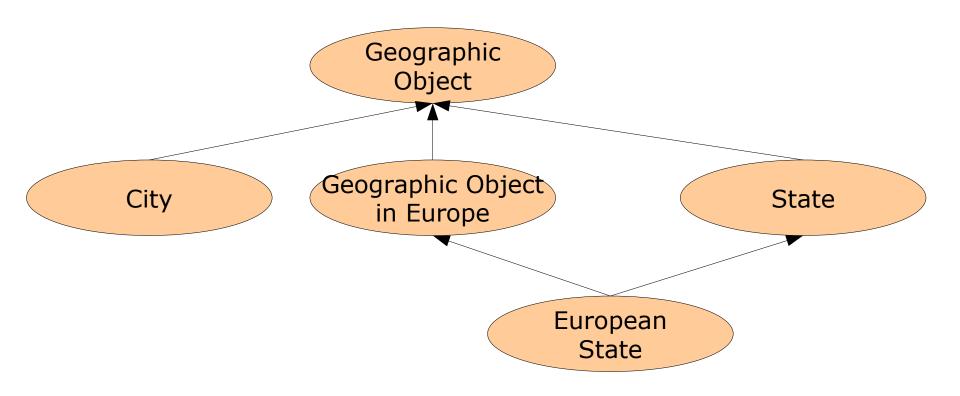
```
:State a rdfs:Class .
```

Classes form hierarchies

```
:EuropeanState rdfs:subClassOf :State .
```

Class Hierarchies in RDF Schema

Multiple inheritance is possible



Convention for this course: unlabeled arrows = rdfs:subClassOf

Properties in RDF Schema

- Properties are the other important element
- resemble two-valued predicates in predicate logic

```
:Madrid :capitalOf :Spain .
:capitalOf a rdf:Property .
```

Properties also form hierarchies

```
:capitalOf rdfs:subPropertyOf :locatedIn .
```

Domains and Ranges of Properties

- In general, properties exist independently from classes
 - i.e., they are first class citizens
 - this is different than OOP or ERM
- Defining the domain and range of a property:

```
:capitalOf rdfs:domain :City .
:capitalOf rdfs:range :Country .
```

- Domain and range are inherited by sub properties
 - They can also be further restricted

Predefined Properties

We have already seen

```
rdf:type
rdfs:subClassOf
rdfs:subPropertyOf
```

rdfs:domain

rdfs:range

Further Predefined Properties

Labels:

```
:Germany rdfs:label "Deutschland"@de .
:Germany rdfs:label "Germany"@en .
```

Comments:

```
:Germany rdfs:comment "Germany as a political entity."@en .
```

Links to other resources:

```
:Germany rdfs:seeAlso <http://www.deutschland.de/> .
```

Link to defining schema:

```
:Country rdfs:isDefinedBy
<http://foo.bar/countries.rdfs> .
```

URIs vs. Labels

- A URI is only a unique identifier
 - it does not need to be interpretable

```
http://www.countries.org/4327893
```

- Labels are made for human interpretation
- ...and can come in different languages:

```
countries:4327893 rfds:label "Deutschland"@de .
countries:4327893 rdfs:label "Germany"@en .
countries:4327893 rdfs:label "Tyskland"@sv .
...
```

URIs vs. Labels

Labels and comments can also be assigned to RDFS elements:

```
:Country a rdfs:Class .
:Country rdfs:label "Land"@de .
:Country rdfs:label "Country"@en .
:locatedIn a rdf:Property .
:locatedIn rdfs:label "liegt in"@de .
:locatedIn rdfs:label "is located in"@en .
:locatedIn rdfs:comment "refers to geography"@en .
```

RDF Schema and RDF

- Every RDF Schema document is also an RDF document
- This means: all properties of RDF also hold for RDFS!
- Non-unique Naming Assumption

```
schema1:Country a rdfs:Class .
schema2:State a rdfs:Class .
```

Open World Assumption

```
:Country rdfs:subClassOf :GeographicObject .
:City rdfs:subClassOf : GeographicObject .
```

Our First Ontology

States, cities, and capitals

```
:State a rdfs:Class .
:City a rdfs:Class .
:locatedIn a rdf:Property .
:capitalOf rdfs:subPropertyOf :locatedIn .
:capitalOf rdfs:domain :City .
:capitalOf rdfs:range :State .

Definition of the Terminology (T-Box)

CapitalOf rdfs:range :State .

Definition of the Assertions (A-box)
```

What do We Gain Now?

```
:Country a rdfs:Class .
:City a rdfs:Class .
:locatedIn a rdfs:Property .
:capitalOf rdfs:subPropertyOf :locatedIn
:capitalOf rdfs:domain :City .
:capitalOf rdfs:range :Country .
```





:Madrid :capitalOf :Spain .





What do We Gain Now?

```
:Madrid :capitalOf :Spain .
+ :capitalOf rdfs:domain :City
→ :Madrid a :City .
           :Madrid :capitalOf :Spain .
         + :capitalOf rdfs:range:Country
         → :Spain a :Country .
                     :Madrid :capitalOf :Spain .
                   + :capitalOf rdfs:subPropertyOf :locatedIn .
                  → :Madrid :locatedIn :Spain .
```

Reasoning with RDF

- RDF Schema allows for deductive reasoning on RDF
- This means:
 - given facts and rules,
 - we can derive new facts
- The corresponding tools are called reasoner
- Opposite of deduction: induction
 - deriving models from facts
 - see, e.g., lectures on data mining and machine learning

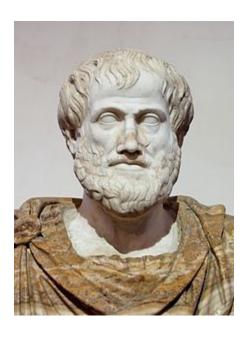
A Bit of History

- Aristotle (384 322 BC)
- Syllogisms
 - Deriving facts using rules
- Example:

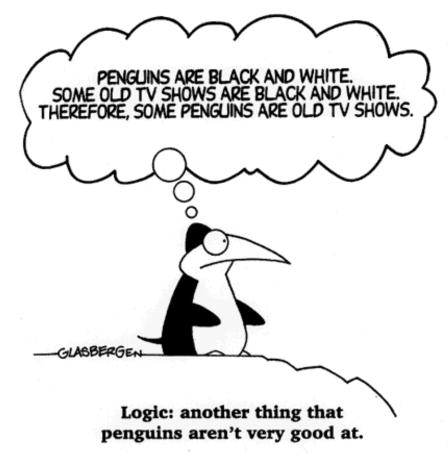
All men are mortal.

Socrates is a man.

→ Socrates is mortal.



A Bit of History



Cartoon Copyright: Randy Glasbergen, http://www.glasbergen.com/

Interpretation and Entailment

- Entailment
 - The set of all consequences of a graph
- Mapping a graph to an entailment is called interpretation
- Simplest Interpretation:
 - <s,p,o> ∈G \rightarrow <s,p,o> ∈Entailment
- This interpretation creates all statements explicitly contained in the graph.
- But the *implicit* statements are the interesting ones!

Interpretation using Deduction Rules

- RDF interpretation can be done using RDFS deduction rules
- Those create an entailment
 - using existing resources, literals, and properties
 - creating additional triples like <s,p,o>
 - e.g.,
 - <Madrid, rdf:type, City>
 - <Madrid, located_in, Spain>
- Note:
 - no new resources, literals, or properties are created!

Reasoning with Deduction Rules

- Deduction rules are an interpretation function
- Simple reasoning algorithm (a.k.a. forward chaining):

Deduction Rules RDF Schema (Selection)

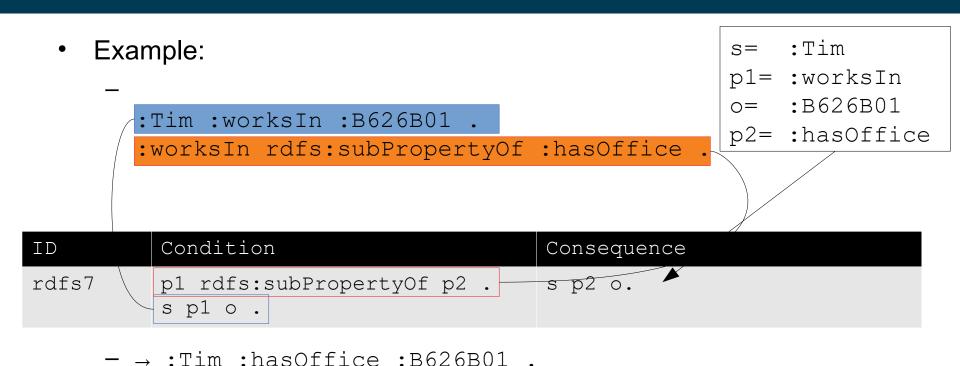
ID	Condition	Consequence
rdfs2	s p o . p rdfs:domain c .	s rdf:type c .
rdfs3	s p o . p rdfs:range c .	o rdf:type c .
rdfs7	<pre>p1 rdfs:subPropertyOf p2 . s p1 o .</pre>	s p2 o.
rdfs9	<pre>s rdf:type c1 . c1 rdfs:subClassOf c2 .</pre>	s rdf:type c2 .
rdfs10	c rdf:type rdfs:Class .	c rdfs:subClassOf c .
rdfs11	<pre>c1 rdfs:subClassOf c2 . c2 rdfs:subClassOf c3 .</pre>	c1 rdfs:subClassOf c3 .

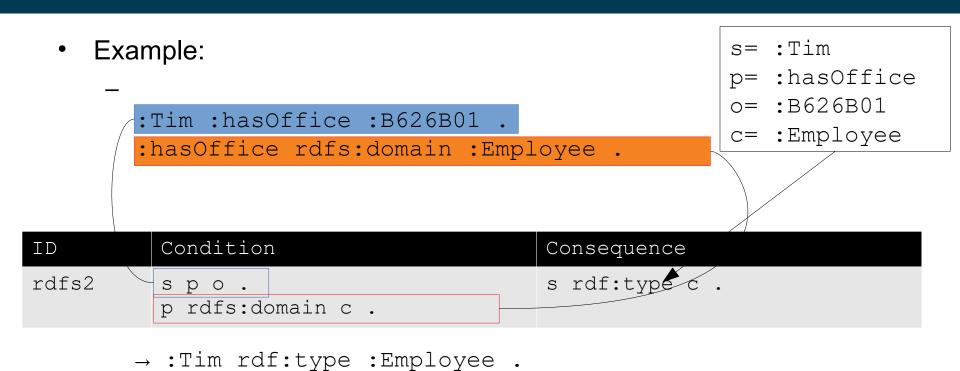
rdfs:subclassOf is reflexive and transitive
 (same for rdfs:subPropertyOf)

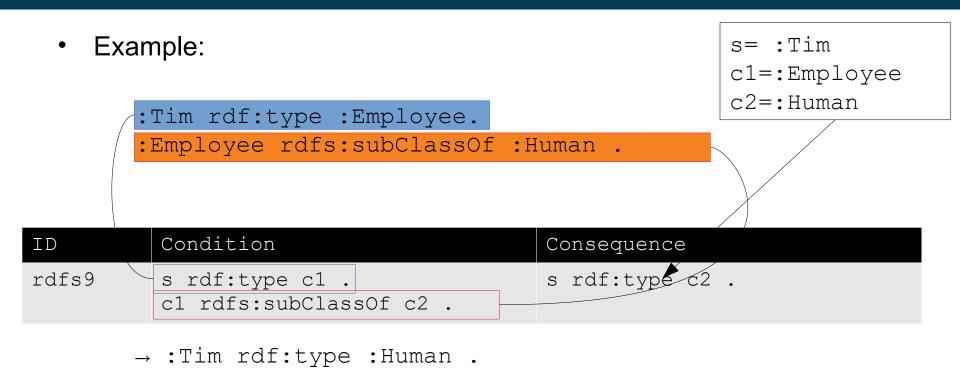
W3C (2004): RDF Semantics. http://www.neg.rig.rig.com/

Another Example

```
:Employee a rdfs:Class .
:Employee rdfs:subClassOf :Human .
:Room a rdfs:Class .
:worksIn rdfs:subPropertyOf :hasOffice .
:hasOffice rdfs:domain :Employee .
:hasOffice rdfs:range :Room .
:Tim :worksIn :B626B01 .
```







Forward Chaining

Example revisited:

```
:Employee a rdfs:Class .
  :Employee rdfs:subClassOf :Human .
  :Room a rdfs:Class .
  :worksIn rdfs:subPropertyOf :hasOffice .
  :hasOffice rdfs:domain :Employee .
  :hasOffice rdfs:range :Room .
 :Tim :worksIn :B626B01 .
• \rightarrow :Tim hasOffice :B626B01
  → :Tim rdf:type Employee .
  → :Tim rdf:type Human .
```

What if there are Multiple Domains/Ranges?

Example for social networks:

```
:knows rdfs:domain :Person .
:knows rdfs:domain :MemberOfSocialNetwork .
```

- What should be the semantics here?
 - Everybody who knows someone
 is a person and a member of a social network
 - Everybody who knows someone
 is a person *or* a member of a social network

The Rules will Tell Us

```
:knows rdfs:domain :Person. (a0)
:knows rdfs:domain :MemberOfSocialNetwork . (a1)
:Peter :knows :Stephen . (a2)
(rdfs2+a0+a2) :Peter rdf:type :Person . (a3)
(rdfs2+a1+a2) :Peter rdf:type :MemberOfSocialNetwork . (a4)
```

- This chain works for each object
 - it is always contained in both classes
 - → i.e., the intersection semantics hold

What have We Gained?

- Let's look at that sentence:
 - "Madrid is the capital of Spain."
- We can get the following information:
 - "Madrid is the capital of Spain." ✓
 - − "Spain is a state."
 - "Madrid is a city." ✓
 - "Madrid is located in Spain."
 - Barcelona is not the capital of Spain." *
 - "Madrid is not the capital of France." *
 - "Madrid is not a state." *

– ...

- "Every state has exactly one capital"
 - Property cardinalities
- "Every city can only be the capital of one state."
 - Functional properties
- "A city cannot be a state at the same time."
 - Class disjointness
- •
- For those, we need more expressive languages than RDFS!

- "Every state has exactly one capital"
 - i.e., "A state cannot have more than one capital."
- "Every city can only be the capital of one state."
 - i.e., "A city cannot be the capital of two different states."
- "A city cannot be a state at the same time."

- Note: there is no negation in RDF and RDFS
- This means, we cannot produce any contradictions
 - This makes reasoning easy
 - But it also restricts the utility
 - Example:

Mammals do not lay eggs

Penguins lay eggs

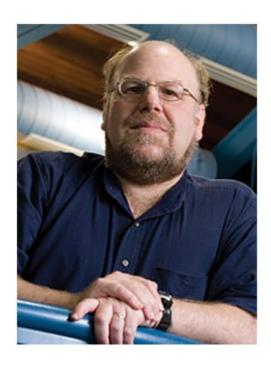
- → Penguins are not mammals
- We will get to know formalisms that support negation
 - and learn how to do reasoning with them

- The missing negation perfectly fits the AAA principle
 - Anybody can say anything about anything
- ...and the Open World Assumption
- Any new knowledge will always fit to the knowledge that is already there
 - This principle is called "monotonicity"

- Kurt Gödel (1906-1978)
- Logic systems are either
 - not very powerful or
 - not free of contradictions
- RDF Schema belongs to the first class



- Jim Hendler (*1957)
- "A little semantics goes a long way."



Just a moment

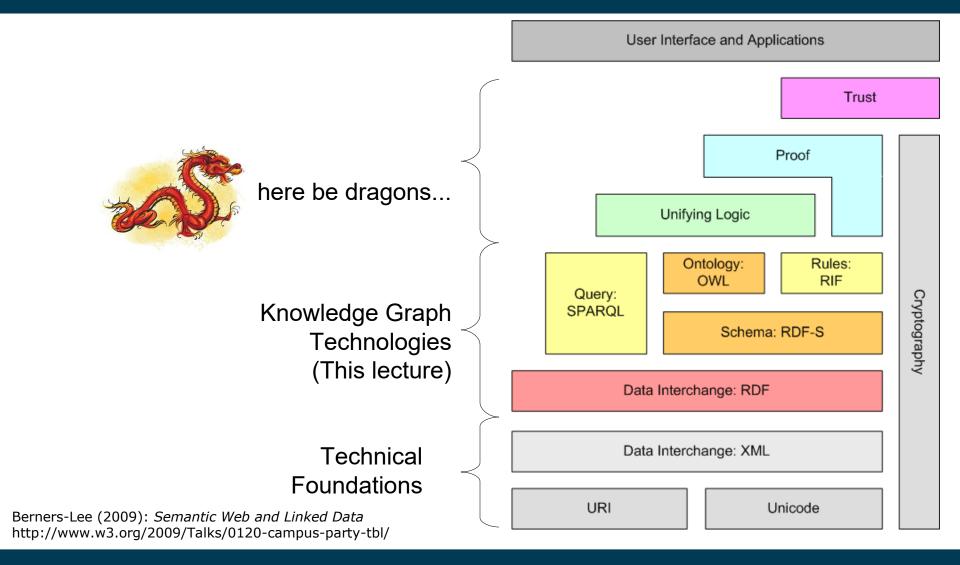
- "We cannot produce any contradictions"
- so what about

:Peter a :Baby .

:Peter a :Adult .

- That is a contradiction!
- Well, it is for us human beings
- But a computer will not know
 - Non-unique name assumption!

Semantic Web Stack



Questions?

