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Previously on "Semantic Web Technologies"

- 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

- They bring the Semantics to the Semantic Web (finally!)
 - Building simple ontologies with RDF Schema
 - Elements of RDF Schema
 - Automatic deduction with RDF Schema

Semantic Web – Architecture



What is Missing up to Now?

- Our mission: make computers understand information on the Web
- But what does *understand* actually mean?



Semantics

- Let's look at that sentence:
 - "Madrid is the capital of Spain."
- Published on the Semantic Web (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)

How do Semantics Work?

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



http://walkinthewords.blogspot.com/2008/05/ linguistic-cartoon-favorites-semantics.html

How do Semantics Work?



Semantics in the Semantic Web

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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."1
- Ontologies encode the knowledge about a domain
- They form a common vocabulary
 - and describe the semantics of its terms

¹Gruber (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: $\delta v \tau o \varsigma$ (things that are), $\lambda \delta \gamma o \varsigma$ (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

schemal: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 .

:Madrid :capitalOf :Spain .

Definition of the Terminology (T-Box)

Definition of the Assertions (A-box)

What do We Gain Now?





:Madrid :capitalOf :Spain .



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: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 .

 \rightarrow :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.

 \rightarrow 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:
 - $\langle s, p, o \rangle \in G \rightarrow \langle s, p, o \rangle \in Entailment$
- 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):

```
Given: an RDF Graph G
a set of deduction rules R
Entailment E = G
Repeat
M := { }
For all rules in R
For each statement S in E
Apply R to S
If E does not contain consequence
Add consequence to M
Add all elements in M to E
until M = { }
```

Deduction Rules for RDF Schema (1)

ID	Condition	Consequence
rdfl	spo.	<pre>p rdf:type rdf:Property .</pre>
rdfs1	s p l . l is a Literal	l rdf:type rdfs:Literal .
rdfs2	s p o . p rdfs:domain c .	s rdf:type c .
rdfs3	s p o . p rdfs:range c .	o rdf:type c .
rdfs4a	spo.	s rdf:type rdfs:Resource .
rdfs4b	s p o . o is a URI or blank node	o rdf:type rdfs:Resource .
rdfs5	<pre>p1 rdfs:subPropertyOf p2 . p2 rdfs:subPropertyOf P3 .</pre>	p1 rdfs:subPropertyOf p3 .
rdfs6	<pre>p rdf:type rdf:Property .</pre>	p rdfs:subPropertyOf p .

W3C (2004): RDF Semantics. http://www.w3.org/TR/rdf-mt/

Deduction Rules for RDF Schema (2)

ID	Condition	Consequence
rdfs7	p1 rdfs:subPropertyOf p2 . s p1 o .	s p2 o.
rdfs8	c rdf:type rdfs:Class .	<pre>c rdfs:subClassOf rdfs:Resource.</pre>
rdfs9	s rdf:type c1 . c1 rdfs:subClassOf c2 .	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 .
rdfs12	p rdf:type rdfs:container- MembershipProperty.	<pre>p rdfs:subPropertyOf rdfs:member .</pre>
rdfs13	d rdf:type rdfs:Datatype .	d rdfs:subClassOf rdfs:Literal .

W3C (2004): RDF Semantics. http://www.w3.org/TR/rdf-mt/

• 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 :D0815 .

• Example:

```
:Tim :worksIn :D0815 .
```

:worksIn rdfs:subPropertyOf :hasOffice .

ID	Condition	Consequence
rdfs7	p1 rdfs:subPropertyOf p2 . s p1 o .	s p2 o.

 \rightarrow :Tim :hasOffice :D0815 .

- Example:
 - :Tim :hasOffice :D0815 .
 - :hasOffice rdfs:domain :Employee .

ID	Condition	Consequence
rdfs2	s p o . p rdfs:domain c .	s rdf:type c .

 \rightarrow :Tim rdf:type :Employee .

- Example:
 - :Tim rdf:type :Employee.
 - :Employee rdfs:subClassOf :Human .

ID	Condition	Consequence
rdfs9	s rdf:type c1 . c1 rdfs:subClassOf c2 .	s rdf:type c2 .
\rightarrow	: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	<pre>rdf:type :MemberOfSocialNetwork .</pre>	(a4)
	• • •		

- This chain works for each object
 - it is always contained in both classes
 - \rightarrow 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 can*not* 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
- \rightarrow 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 – Architecture



Questions?

