Description Logic

Franz Baader

Literature:

- Franz Baader, Carsten Lutz, Ian Horrocks, and Uli Sattler: An Introduction to Description Logic. Cambridge University Press, 2017.
- F. Baader, D. Calvanese, D. McGuinness, D. Nardi, P. Patel-Schneider (ed.): The Description Logic Handbook. Cambridge University Press, 2003.
- F. Baader, C. Lutz: Description Logics. In The Handbook of Modal Logic, Elsevier, 2006.
- F. Baader: Description Logics. In Reasoning Web: Semantic Technologies for Information Systems, 5th International Summer School 2009, Springer LNCS 5689, 2009.



Organisation

The lecture is accompanied by weekly tutorials held by Dr. Stefan Borgwardt. The lectures and tutorials take place in room APB/E005 on

- Tuesdays 16:40–18:10,
- Wednesdays 14:50–16:20,
- Thursdays 16:40–18:10.

The distribution of lectures and tutorials can be found in the table on https://lat.inf.tu-dresden.de/teaching/ws2017-2018/DL/.

During the semester, there may be changes to this schedule on short notice. Be sure to check this page regularly for updates.

Exercise sheets will be made available on the Web page approximately one week before each tutorial.



Chapter 1: Introduction

Description Logic

subfield of knowledge representation, which is a subfield of Artificial Intelligence

Description comes from concept description, i.e., a formal expression that determines a set of individuals with common properties

Logics comes from the fact that the semantics of concept descriptions can be defined using logic;

in particular, most Description Logics can be seen as fragments of first-order logic.



Description Logic

subfield of knowledge representation, which is a subfield of Artificial Intelligence

Description Logic: name of a research field

Description Logics: a family of knowledge representation languages

Description Logic: a member of this family

DL(s)



Knowledge Representation

general goal

"develop formalisms for providing high-level descriptions of the world that can be effectively used to build intelligent applications"

[Brachman & Nardi, 2003]

- formalism: well-defined syntax and formal, unambiguous semantics
- high-level description: only relevant aspects represented, others left out
- intelligent applications: must be able to reason about the knowledge, and infer implicit knowledge from the explicitly represented knowledge
- effectively used: need for practical reasoning tools and efficient implementations



Syntax

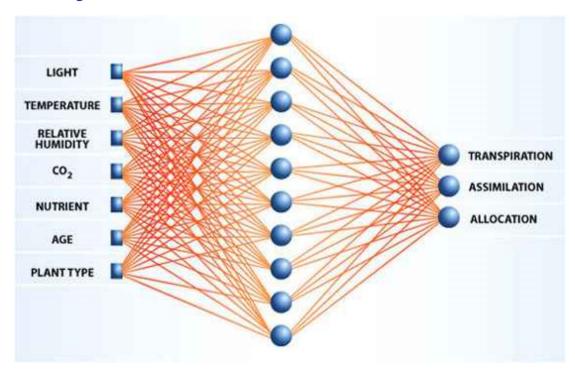
- provides an explicit symbolic representation of the knowledge
- not just implicit, as e.g. in neural networks

```
\equiv Person \sqcap Female
Woman
         \equiv Person \sqcap \negFemale
Man
Mother ≡ Woman □ ∃hasChild. □
                                           Male(JOHN)
Person ≡ Man ⊔ Woman
                                           Male(MARC)
         \equiv Male \sqcap Female
                                           Male(STEPHEN)
hasChild(STEPHEN,MARC)
                                           Male(JASON)
hasChild(MARC,ANNA)
                                           Female(MICHELLE)
hasChild(JOHN,MARIA)
                                           Female(ANNA)
hasChild(ANNA, JASON)
                                           Female(MARIA)
```



Syntax

- provides an explicit symbolic representation of the knowledge
- not just implicit, as e.g. in neural networks





Semantics

describes the connection between the symbolic representation and the realworld entities it is supposed to represent

- no procedural semantics, i.e., should not just be defined by how certain programs using the symbolic representation behave
- instead declarative semantics:
 - mapping of the symbolic expressions to an abstraction of the "world" (interpretation)
 - notion of "truth" that allows us to determine whether a symbolic expression is true in the world under consideration (model)



Syntax & Semantics

determine the expressive power of a formalism

Adequate expressive power:

- not too low: can all the knowledge relevant for solving the problem at hand be represented?
- not too high: are the available representational means really necessary in this application?



Reasoning

deduce implicit knowledge from the explicitly represented knowledge

```
 \forall x. \forall y. \, (male(y) \land \exists z. (has\_child(x,z) \land has\_child(z,y)) \rightarrow has\_grandson(x,y) \\  has\_child(John, Mary) \\  has\_child(Mary, Paul) \\  implicit \, knowledge \\  male(Paul)
```

Knowledge representation systems
should provide their users with inference tools
that can deduce (certain) implicit consequences

results should depend only on the semantics of the representation language, and not on the syntactic representation:



semantically equivalent knowledge should lead to the same result

Reasoning

deduce implicit knowledge from the explicitly represented knowledge

```
\forall x. \forall y. \forall z. \, (has\_child(x,z) \land has\_child(z,y) \land male(y)) \rightarrow has\_grandson\_of(x,y) has\_child(John, Mary) grandson\_of(John, Paul) implicit \, knowledge male(Paul)
```

Knowledge representation systems
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that can deduce (certain) implicit consequences

results should depend only on the semantics of the representation language, and not on the syntactic representation:



semantically equivalent knowledge should lead to the same result

Reasoning procedures

requirements in knowledge representation

- The procedure should be a decision procedure for the problem:
 - soundness: positive answers are correct
 - completeness: negative answers are correct
 - termination: always gives an answer in finite time
- The procedure should be as efficient as possible: preferably optimal w.r.t. the (worst-case) complexity of the problem
- The procedure should be practical: easy to implement and optimize, and behave well in applications



Reasoning procedures

example

- Satisfiability in first-order logic does not have a decision procedure.
 - full first-order logic is thus not an appropriate knowledge representation formalism
- Satisfiability in propositional logic has a decision procedure, but the problem is NP-complete.
 - there are, however, highly optimized SAT solvers that behave well in practice
 - expressive power is, however, often not sufficient to express the relevant knowledge



Terminological knowledge

formalize the terminology of the application domain:

- define important notions (classes, relations, objects) of the domain
- state constraints on the way these notions can be interpreted
- deduce consequences of definitions and constraints: subclass relationships, instance relationships

Example: domain conference

- classes (concepts) like Person, Speaker, Author, Talk, Participant, Workshop, ...
- relations (roles) like gives, attends, likes, ...
- objects (individuals) like Richard, Frank, Paper_176, ...
- constraints like: every talk is given by a speaker, every speaker is an author, every workshop must have at least 10 participants, ...



Ontologies

terminological knowledge bases are nowadays often called ontologies

Ontologies are, for example, used in:

- the Semantic Web to enable a common understanding of important notions, which can be used in the semantic labeling of Web pages
- Information Retrieval to support the automatic extraction of information from text documents
- Medicine to provide formal definitions for important notions that can be used by medical doctors to describe findings and procedures, insurance companies to determine payment, ... (SNOMED CT, GALEN, ...)
- Biology to enable semantic access to gene databases (Gene Ontology)

• ..



Description Logics

class of logic-based knowledge representation formalisms tailored towards representing terminological knowledge

Prehistory:

- Descended from early approaches for representing terminological knowledge
 - semantic networks (Quillian, 1968)
 - **frames** (Minsky, 1975)
- problems with missing semantics lead to
 - structured inheritance networks (Brachman, 1978)
 - the first DL system KL-ONE (Brachman&Schmolze, 1985)



Description Logic

history

Phase 1:

- implementation of systems (Back, K-Rep, Loom, Meson, ...)
- based on incomplete structural subsumption algorithms

Phase 2:

- development of tableau-based algorithms and complexity results
- first implementation of tableau-based systems (Kris, Crack)
- first formal investigation of optimization methods

Phase 3:

- tableau-based algorithms for very expressive DLs
- highly optimized tableau-based systems (FaCT, Racer, HermiT, Konclude, ...)
- relationship to modal logic and decidable fragments of FOL

Phase 4:

- Web Ontology Language (OWL-DL) based on very expressive DL
- industrial-strength reasoners and ontology editors for OWL-DL
- investigation of light-weight DLs with tractable reasoning problems
- query answering w.r.t. ontologies for large data sets



Chapter 2

A Basic Description Logic

ALC

attributive language with complement [Schmidt-Schauß&Smolka, 1991]

Naming scheme:

- basic language AL
- extended with contructors whose "letter" is added after the \mathcal{AL}
- C stands for complement, i.e., ALC is obtained from AL by adding the complement (\neg) operator



Description logic system

structure

2.2

2.3

2.1

description language

- constructors for building complex concepts out of atomic concepts and roles
- formal, logic-based semantics

TBox

defines the terminology of the application domain

ABox

states facts about a specific "world"

knowledge base

2.4

reasoning component

- derive implicitly respresented knowledge (e.g., subsumption)
- "practical" algorithms



2.1. The description language

syntax and semantics of ALC

<u>Definition 2.1</u> (Syntax of ALC)

Let C and R be disjoint sets of concept names and role names, respectively.

 \mathcal{ALC} -concept descriptions are defined by induction:

- If $A \in \mathbb{C}$, then A is an \mathcal{ALC} -concept description.
- If C, D are \mathcal{ALC} -concept descriptions, and $r \in \mathbb{R}$, then the following are \mathcal{ALC} -concept descriptions:
 - $C \sqcap D$ (conjunction)
 - $C \sqcup D$ (disjunction)
 - $\neg C$ (negation)
 - $\forall r.C$ (value restriction)
 - $\exists r.C$ (existential restriction)

Abbreviations:

$$- \top := A \sqcup \neg A \text{ (top)}$$

$$- \perp := A \sqcap \neg A$$
 (bottom)

$$- C \Rightarrow D := \neg C \sqcup D$$
 (implication)



Notation (use and abuse):

- concept names are called atomic
- all other descriptions are called complex
- instead of \mathcal{ALC} -concept description we often say \mathcal{ALC} -concept or concept description or concept
- A, B often used for concept names, C, D for complex concept descriptions, r, s for role names



The description language

examples of \mathcal{ALC} -concept descriptions

Person

□ Female

Participant □ ∃attends.Talk

 $Participant \sqcap \forall attends. (Talk \sqcap \neg Boring)$

Speaker $\sqcap \exists$ gives.(Talk $\sqcap \forall$ topic.DL)

Speaker $\sqcap \forall$ gives.(Talk $\sqcap \exists$ topic.(DL \sqcup FuzzyLogic))



Definition 2.2 (Semantics of ALC)

An interpretation $\mathcal{I}=(\Delta^{\mathcal{I}},\cdot^{\mathcal{I}})$ consists of a non-empty domain $\Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$ and an extension mapping $\cdot^{\mathcal{I}}$:

•
$$A^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$$
 for all $A \in \mathbb{C}$,

concepts interpreted as sets

•
$$r^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \times \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$$
 for all $r \in \mathbf{R}$.

roles interpreted as binary relations

The extension mapping is extended to complex ALC-concept descriptions as follows:

•
$$(C \sqcap D)^{\mathcal{I}} := C^{\mathcal{I}} \cap D^{\mathcal{I}}$$

•
$$(C \sqcup D)^{\mathcal{I}} := C^{\mathcal{I}} \cup D^{\mathcal{I}}$$

$$\bullet \ (\neg C)^{\mathcal{I}} := \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \setminus C^{\mathcal{I}}$$

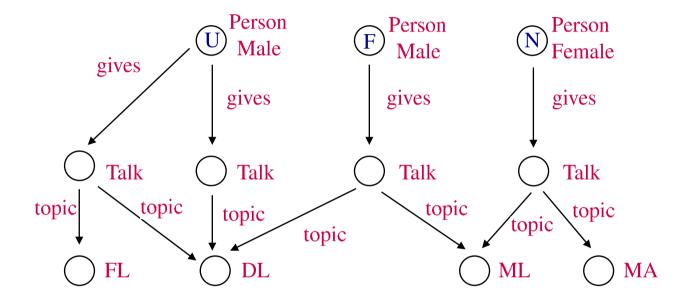
•
$$(\forall r.C)^{\mathcal{I}} := \{d \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \mid \text{for all } e \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} : (d,e) \in r^{\mathcal{I}} \text{ implies } e \in C^{\mathcal{I}} \}$$



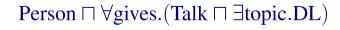


Example

of an interpretation



Person $\sqcap \exists$ gives.(Talk $\sqcap \forall$ topic.DL)





ALC can be seen as a fragment of first-order logic:

- Concept names are unary predicates, and role names are binary predicates.
- Interpretations for ALC can then obviously be viewed as first-order interpretations for this signature.
- Concept descriptions correspond to first-order formulae with one free variable.
- Given such a formula $\phi(x)$ with the free variable x and an interpretation \mathcal{I} , the extension of ϕ w.r.t. \mathcal{I} is given by

$$\phi^{\mathcal{I}} := \{ d \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \mid \mathcal{I} \models \phi(d) \}$$

• Goal: translate \mathcal{ALC} -concepts C into first-order formulae $\tau_x(C)$ such that their extensions coincide.



Concept description C translated into formula with one free variable $\tau_x(C)$:

•
$$\pi_x(A) := A(x)$$
 for $A \in \mathbb{C}$

•
$$\pi_x(C \sqcap D) := \pi_x(C) \land \pi_x(D)$$

•
$$\pi_x(C \sqcup D) := \pi_x(C) \vee \pi_x(D)$$

$$\bullet$$
 $\pi_x(\neg C) := \neg \pi_x(C)$

•
$$\pi_x(\forall r.C) := \forall y.(r(x,y) \to \pi_y(C))$$

y variable different from x

•
$$\pi_x(\exists r.C) := \exists y.(r(x,y) \land \pi_y(C))$$

$$\pi_x(\forall r.(A \sqcap \exists r.B)) = \forall y.(r(x,y) \to \pi_y(A \sqcap \exists r.B))$$
$$= \forall y.(r(x,y) \to (A(y) \land \exists z.(r(y,z) \land B(z))))$$



Concept description C translated into formula with one free variable $\pi_x(C)$:

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y variable different from x

•
$$\pi_x(\exists r.C) := \exists y.(r(x,y) \land \pi_y(C))$$

Lemma 2.3

C and $\pi_x(C)$ have the same extension, i.e.,

$$C^{\mathcal{I}} = \{ d \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \mid \mathcal{I} \models \pi_x(C)(d) \}$$

Proof: induction on the structure of C



ALC can be seen as a fragment of first-order logic:

- Concept names are unary predicates, and role names are binary predicates.
- Concept descriptions C yield formulae with one free variable $\tau_x(C)$.

These formulae belong to known decidable subclasses of first-order logic:

- two-variable fragment
- guarded fragment

$$\pi_x(\forall r.(A \sqcap \exists r.B)) = \forall y.(r(x,y) \to \pi_y(A \sqcap \exists r.B))$$
$$= \forall y.(r(x,y) \to (A(y) \land \exists z.(r(y,z) \land B(z))))$$



Relationship with Modal Logic

 \mathcal{ALC} is a syntactic variant of the basic modal logic K:

- Concept names are propositional variables, and role names are names for transition relations.
- Concept descriptions C yield modal formulae $\pi(C)$:

$$-\pi(A) := a \text{ for } A \in \mathbf{C}$$

$$- \pi(C \sqcap D) := \pi(C) \land \pi(D)$$

$$- \pi(C \sqcup D) := \pi(C) \vee \pi(D)$$

$$-\pi(\neg C) := \neg \pi(C)$$

$$- \pi(\forall r.C) := [r]\pi(C)$$

$$- \ \pi(\exists r.C) := \langle r \rangle \pi(C)$$



C and $\pi(C)$ have the same semantics: $C^{\mathcal{I}}$ is the set of worlds that make $\pi(C)$ true in the Kripke structure described by \mathcal{I} .

multimodal K:

several pairs of boxes and diamonds

Additional constructors

ALC is only an example of a description logic.

DL researchers have introduced and investigated many additional constructors.

Example

letter Q in the naming scheme

Qualified number restrictions: $(\geq n \, r.C)$, $(\leq n \, r.C)$ with semantics

$$(\geq n \, r.C)^{\mathcal{I}} \ := \ \{d \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \mid \operatorname{card}(\{e \mid (d,e) \in r^{\mathcal{I}} \wedge e \in C^{\mathcal{I}}\}) \geq n\}$$

$$(\leq n \, r.C)^{\mathcal{I}} \ := \ \{d \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \mid \operatorname{card}(\{e \mid (d,e) \in r^{\mathcal{I}} \wedge e \in C^{\mathcal{I}}\}) \leq n\}$$

Persons that attend at most 20 talks, of which at least 3 have the topic DL:

Person $\sqcap (\leq 20 \text{ attends.Talk}) \sqcap (\geq 3 \text{ attends.(Talk } \sqcap \exists \text{topic.DL}))$



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$$(\leq n \, r.C)^{\mathcal{I}} \quad := \quad \{d \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \mid \operatorname{card}(\{e \mid (d,e) \in r^{\mathcal{I}} \land e \in C^{\mathcal{I}}\}) \leq n\}$$

Number restrictions: $(\geq n \, r)$, $(\leq n \, r)$ as abbreviation for $(\geq n \, r. \top)$ and $(\leq n \, r. \top)$:

$$(\geq n\,r)^{\mathcal{I}} \ := \ \{d \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \mid \operatorname{card}(\{e \mid (d,e) \in r^{\mathcal{I}}\}) \geq n\}$$

$$(\leq n\,r)^{\mathcal{I}} \ := \ \{d \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \mid \operatorname{card}(\{e \mid (d,e) \in r^{\mathcal{I}}\}) \leq n\}$$

letter N in the naming scheme



Additional constructors

In addition to concept constructors, one can also introduce role constructors.

Example

letter \mathcal{I} in the naming scheme

Inverse roles: if r is a role, then r^- denotes its inverse

$$(r^{-})^{\mathcal{I}} := \{ (e, d) \mid (d, e) \in r^{\mathcal{I}} \}$$

Inverse roles can be used like role names in value and existential restrictions.

Presenter of a boring talk:



Speaker $\sqcap \exists$ gives.(Talk $\sqcap \forall$ attends $^-$.(Bored \sqcup Sleeping))

Description logic system

structure

2.2

2.3

2.1

description language

- constructors for building complex concepts out of atomic concepts and roles
- formal, logic-based semantics

TBox

defines the terminology of the application domain

ABox

states facts about a specific "world"

knowledge base

2.4

reasoning component

- derive implicitly respresented knowledge (e.g., subsumption)
- "practical" algorithms



2.2. Terminological knowledge

GCIs, TBoxes, and concept definitions

<u>Definition 2.4</u> (GCIs and TBoxes)

- A general concept inclusion is of the form $C \sqsubseteq D$ where C, D are concept descriptions.
- A TBox is a finite set of GCIs.
- The interpretation \mathcal{I} satisfies the GCI $C \sqsubseteq D$ iff $C^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq D^{\mathcal{I}}$.
- The interpretation \mathcal{I} is a model of the TBox \mathcal{T} iff it satisfies all the GCIs in \mathcal{T} .

Note: this definition is not specific for ALC.

It applies also to other concept description languages.



2.2. Terminological knowledge

GCIs, TBoxes, and concept definitions

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Talk $\sqcap \forall$ attends⁻¹. Sleeping \sqsubseteq Boring

Author \sqcap PCchair $\sqsubseteq \bot$



2.2. Terminological knowledge

GCIs, TBoxes, and concept definitions

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- A general concept inclusion is of the form $C \sqsubseteq D$ where C, D are concept descriptions.
- A TBox is a finite set of GCIs.
- The interpretation \mathcal{I} satisfies the GCI $C \sqsubseteq D$ iff $C^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq D^{\mathcal{I}}$.
- The interpretation \mathcal{I} is a model of the TBox \mathcal{T} iff it satisfies all the GCIs in \mathcal{T} .

Notation: two TBoxes are called equivalent if they have the same models



More GCIs \implies less models

Lemma 2.5

If $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$ for two TBoxes \mathcal{T} , \mathcal{T}' , then each model of \mathcal{T}' is also a model of \mathcal{T} .



Restricted TBoxes

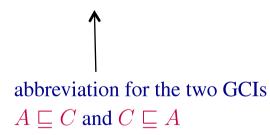
concept definitions and acyclic TBoxes

Definition 2.6

A concept definition is of the form $A \equiv C$ where

- A is a concept name;
- C is a concept description.

The interpretation $\mathcal I$ satisfies the concept definition $A\equiv C$ iff $A^{\mathcal I}=C^{\mathcal I}.$





Restricted TBoxes

concept definitions and acyclic TBoxes

<u>Definition 2.6</u> (continued)

An acyclic TBox is a finite set of concept definitions that

- does not contain multiple definitions;
- does not contain cyclic definitions.

multiple definition

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
A & \equiv & C \\
A & \equiv & D
\end{array}$$
 for $C \neq D$

$$A \equiv B \sqcap \forall r.P$$

$$B \equiv P \sqcap \forall r.C$$

$$\subseteq \exists r.A$$

$$\text{cyclic definition}$$

No cyclic definitions:

there is no sequence $A_1 \equiv C_1, \dots A_n \equiv C_n \in \mathcal{T}$ $(n \geq 1)$ such that

- A_{i+1} occurs in C_i $(1 \le i < n)$
- A_1 occurs in C_n





Restricted TBoxes

concept definitions and acyclic TBoxes

Definition 2.6 (continued)

An acyclic TBox is a finite set of concept definitions that

- does not contain multiple definitions;
- does not contain cyclic definitions.

The interpretation \mathcal{I} is a model of the acyclic TBox \mathcal{T} iff it satisfies all its concept definitions: $A^{\mathcal{I}} = C^{\mathcal{I}}$ for all $A \equiv C \in \mathcal{T}$

Given an acyclic TBox, we call a concept name A occurring in T a

- defined concept iff there is C such that $A \equiv C \in \mathcal{T}$;

• primitive concept otherwise.

Example

of an acyclic TBox

```
Woman \equiv Person \sqcap Female

Man \equiv Person \sqcap \neg Female

Talk \equiv \exists topic. \top

Speaker \equiv Person \sqcap \exists gives. Talk

Participant \equiv Person \sqcap \exists attends. Talk

BusySpeaker \equiv Speaker \sqcap (\geq 3 gives. Talk)

BadSpeaker \equiv Speaker \sqcap \forall gives. (\forall attends^{-1}. (Bored \sqcup Sleeping))
```

Acyclic TBoxes

an important result

Proposition 2.7

For every acyclic TBox $\mathcal T$ we can effectively construct an equivalent acyclic TBox $\widehat{\mathcal T}$ such that the right-hand sides of concept definitions in $\widehat{\mathcal T}$ contain only primitive concepts.



Acyclic TBoxes

an important result

Proposition 2.7

For every acyclic TBox $\mathcal T$ we can effectively construct an equivalent acyclic TBox $\widehat{\mathcal T}$ such that the right-hand sides of concept definitions in $\widehat{\mathcal T}$ contain only primitive concepts.

We call \widehat{T} the expanded version of T.



Acyclic TBoxes

an important result

Given an acyclic TBox \mathcal{T} , a primitive interpretation \mathcal{J} for \mathcal{T} consists of a nonempty set $\Delta^{\mathcal{J}}$ together with an extension mapping $\cdot^{\mathcal{J}}$, that maps

- primitive concepts P to sets $P^{\mathcal{J}} \subseteq \Delta^{\mathcal{J}}$
- role names r to binary relations $r^{\mathcal{J}} \subseteq \Delta^{\mathcal{J}} \times \Delta^{\mathcal{J}}$

The interpretation $\mathcal I$ is an extension of the primitive interpretation $\mathcal J$ iff $\Delta^{\mathcal J}=\Delta^{\mathcal I}$ and

- $P^{\mathcal{J}} = P^{\mathcal{I}}$ for all primitive concepts P
- $r^{\mathcal{J}} = r^{\mathcal{I}}$ for all role names r

Corollary 2.8

Let \mathcal{T} be an acyclic TBox.

Any primitive interpretation \mathcal{J} has a unique extension to a model of \mathcal{T} .



Relationship with First-Order Logic

ALC-TBoxes can be be translated into first-order logic:

$$\pi(\mathcal{T}) := \bigwedge_{C \sqsubseteq D \in \mathcal{T}} \forall x. (\pi_x(C) \to \pi_x(D))$$

Lemma 2.9

Let \mathcal{T} be a TBox and $\tau(\mathcal{T})$ its translation into first-order logic. Then \mathcal{T} and $\pi(\mathcal{T})$ have the same models.



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2.3. Assertional knowledge

<u>Definition 2.10</u> (Assertions and ABoxes)

An assertion is of the form

a:C (concept assertion) or (a,b):r (role assertion)

where C is a concept description, r is a role, and a, b are individual names from a set I of such names (disjoint with C and R).

An ABox is a finite set of assertions.

An interpretation \mathcal{I} is a model of an ABox \mathcal{A} if it satisfies all its assertions:

$$a^{\mathcal{I}} \in C^{\mathcal{I}}$$
 for all $a : C \in \mathcal{A}$ $(a^{\mathcal{I}}, b^{\mathcal{I}}) \in r^{\mathcal{I}}$ for all $(a, b) : r \in \mathcal{A}$

 \mathcal{I} assigns elements $a^{\mathcal{I}}$ of $\Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$ to individual names $a \in \mathbf{I}$



2.3. Assertional knowledge

<u>Definition 2.10</u> (Assertions and ABoxes)

An assertion is of the form

```
a:C (concept assertion) or (a,b):r (role assertion)
```

where C is a concept description, r is a role, and a, b are individual names from a set I of such names (disjoint with C and R).

An ABox is a finite set of assertions.

FRANZ: Lecturer, (FRANZ, TU03): teaches,

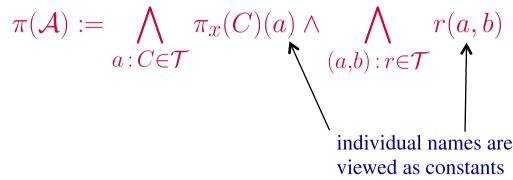
TU03: Tutorial, (TU03, RinDL): topic,

RinDL: DL



Relationship with First-Order Logic

ALC-ABoxes can be be translated into first-order logic:



Lemma 2.11

Let \mathcal{A} be an ABox and $\pi(\mathcal{A})$ its translation into first-order logic. Then \mathcal{A} and $\pi(\mathcal{A})$ have the same models.

Proof: easy



Knowledge Bases

Definition 2.12

A knowledge base $\mathcal{K} = (\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A})$ consists of a TBox \mathcal{T} and an ABox \mathcal{A} .

The interpretation \mathcal{I} is a model of the knowledge base $\mathcal{K} = (\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A})$ iff it is a model of \mathcal{T} and a model of \mathcal{A} .

First-order translation: $\pi(\mathcal{K}) := \pi(\mathcal{T}) \wedge \pi(\mathcal{A})$

Lemma 2.13

Let \mathcal{K} be a knowledge base and $\tau(\mathcal{K})$ its translation into first-order logic. Then \mathcal{K} and $\pi(\mathcal{K})$ have the same models.



Proof: immediate consequence of Lemma 2.9 and Lemma 2.11

Additional constructors

Individual names can also be used as concept constructors to increase the expressive power of the concept description language.

They yield a singleton set consisting of the extension of the individual name.

Nominals

letter *O* in the naming scheme

Nominals: $\{a\}$ for $a \in \mathbf{I}$ with semantics

$$\{a\}^{\mathcal{I}} := \{a^{\mathcal{I}}\}$$

Nominals can be used to express ABox assertions using GCIs:

$$a:C$$
 is expressed by $\{a\} \sqsubseteq C$





Description logic system

structure

2.2

2.3

2.1

description language

- constructors for building complex concepts out of atomic concepts and roles
- formal, logic-based semantics

TBox

defines the terminology of the application domain

ABox

states facts about a specific "world"

knowledge base

2.4

reasoning component

- derive implicitly respresented knowledge (e.g., subsumption)
- "practical" algorithms



2.4. Reasoning Problems and Services

make implicitly represented knowledge explicit

<u>Definition 2.14</u> (terminological reasoning)

Let \mathcal{T} be a TBox.

Satisfiability:

C is satisfiable w.r.t. \mathcal{T} iff $C^{\mathcal{I}} \neq \emptyset$ for some model \mathcal{I} of \mathcal{T} .

Subsumption:

C is subsumed by D w.r.t. \mathcal{T} $(C \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} D)$ iff $C^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq D^{\mathcal{I}} \text{ for all models } \mathcal{I} \text{ of the TBox } \mathcal{T}.$

Equivalence:

C is equivalent to D w.r.t. \mathcal{T} $(C \equiv_{\mathcal{T}} D)$ iff $C^{\mathcal{I}} = D^{\mathcal{I}} \text{ for all models } \mathcal{I} \text{ of the TBox } \mathcal{T}.$



Terminological Reasoning

Note:

If $\mathcal{T} = \emptyset$, then satisfiability/subsumption/equivalence w.r.t. \mathcal{T} is simply called satisfiability/subsumption/equivalence and we write \sqsubseteq and \equiv .

Examples:

- $A \sqcap \neg A$ and $\forall r.A \sqcap \exists r. \neg A$ are not satisfiable (unsatisfiable)
- $A \sqcap \neg A$ and $\forall r.A \sqcap \exists r. \neg A$ are equivalent
- $A \sqcap B$ is subsumed by A and by B.
- $\exists r.(A \sqcap B)$ is subsumed by $\exists r.A$ and by $\exists r.B$
- $\forall r.(A \sqcap B)$ is equivalent to $\forall r.A \sqcap \forall r.B$



• $\exists r.A \sqcap \forall r.B$ is subsumed by $\exists r.(A \sqcap B)$

Properties of Subsumption

Lemma 2.15

- The subsumption relation $\sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}}$ is a pre-order on concept descriptions, i.e.,
 - $C \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} C$ (reflexive)
 - $C \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} D \wedge D \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} E \rightarrow C \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} E$ (transitive)

It is not a partial order since it is not antisymmetric:

-
$$C \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} D \wedge D \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} C \not\rightarrow C = D$$

- The constructors existential restriction and value restriction are monotonic w.r.t. subsumption, i.e.,
 - $C \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} D \to \exists r. C \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} \exists r. D \land \forall r. C \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} \forall r. D$
- Subsumption reasoning is monotonic, i.e., if $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$, then
 - $C \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} D \to C \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}'} D$



Basic equivalences

<u>Lemma 2.16</u>

- \bullet $\neg \top \equiv \bot$
- $C \sqcup D \equiv \neg(\neg C \sqcap D)$
- $\forall r.C \equiv \neg \exists r. \neg C$
- $\exists r. \neg \bot \equiv \bot$
- $\neg (\geq n \, r.C) \equiv (\leq n 1 \, r.C)$ if $n \geq 1$
- $(\geq 0 \, r.C) \equiv \top$
- $(\leq 0 \, r.C) \equiv \forall r. \neg C$



Assertional Reasoning

<u>Definition 2.17</u> (assertional reasoning)

Let $\mathcal{K} = (\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A})$ be a knowledge base.

Consistency:

 \mathcal{K} is consistent iff there exists a model of \mathcal{K} .

Instance:

a is an instance of C w.r.t. \mathcal{K} iff $a^{\mathcal{I}} \in C^{\mathcal{I}}$ for all models \mathcal{I} of \mathcal{K} .

Lemma 2.18

Let $\mathcal{K} = (\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A})$ be a knowledge base.

If a is an instance of C w.r.t. \mathcal{K} and $C \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} D$,

then a is an instance of D w.r.t. \mathcal{K} .



Proof: exercise

between reasoning problems

There are the following polynomomial time reductions between the introduced reasoning problems:

This holds not only for ALC, but for all DLs that have the constructors conjunction and negation.



Theorem 2.19

Let $\mathcal{K} = (\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A})$ be a knowledge base, C, D concept descriptions, and $a \in \mathbf{I}$.

1.
$$C \equiv_{\mathcal{T}} D$$
 iff $C \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} D$ and $D \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} C$

2.
$$C \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} D$$
 iff $C \equiv_{\mathcal{T}} C \sqcap D$

- 3. $C \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} D$ iff $C \sqcap \neg D$ is unsatisfiable w.r.t. \mathcal{T}
- 4. C is satisfiable w.r.t. \mathcal{T} iff $C \not\sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} \bot$
- 5. C is satisfiable w.r.t. \mathcal{T} iff $(\mathcal{T}, \{a:C\})$ is consistent
- 6. a is an instance of C w.r.t. \mathcal{K} iff $(\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A} \cup \{a : \neg C\})$ is inconsistent
- 7. \mathcal{K} is consistent iff a is not an instance of \perp w.r.t. \mathcal{K}



getting rid of acyclic TBoxes

Expansion of concepts and ABoxes:

```
Let \mathcal{K} = (\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A}) be a knowledge base, where \mathcal{T} is acyclic, and C a concept description.
```

The expanded versions \widehat{C} and \widehat{A} of C and A w.r.t. \mathcal{T} are obtained as follows:

• replace all defined concepts occurring in C and A by their definitions in the expanded version \widehat{T} of T.

```
Woman \equiv Person \sqcap Female

Talk \equiv \existstopic.\top

Speaker \equiv Person \sqcap \existsgives.Talk
```

C =Woman \cap Speaker expands to



 $\widehat{C} = \operatorname{Person} \sqcap \operatorname{Female} \sqcap \operatorname{Person} \sqcap \exists \operatorname{gives.} (\exists \operatorname{topic.} \top)$

getting rid of acyclic TBoxes

Expansion of concepts and ABoxes:

Let $\mathcal{K} = (\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A})$ be a knowledge base, where \mathcal{T} is acyclic, and C a concept description.

The expanded versions \widehat{C} and \widehat{A} of C and A w.r.t. T are obtained as follows:

• replace all defined concepts occurring in C and A by their definitions in the expanded version \widehat{T} of T.

Proposition 2.20

- 1. C is satisfiable w.r.t. T iff \widehat{C} is satisfiable
- 2. $\mathcal{K} = (\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A})$ is consistent iff $(\emptyset, \widehat{\mathcal{A}})$ is consistent



getting rid of acyclic TBoxes

Expansion of concepts and ABoxes:

Let $\mathcal{K} = (\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A})$ be a knowledge base, where \mathcal{T} is acyclic, and C a concept description.

The expanded versions \widehat{C} and \widehat{A} of C and A w.r.t. T are obtained as follows:

• replace all defined concepts occurring in C and A by their definitions in the expanded version \widehat{T} of T.

Proposition 2.20

- 1. C is satisfiable w.r.t. T iff \widehat{C} is satisfiable
- 2. $\mathcal{K} = (\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A})$ is consistent iff $(\emptyset, \widehat{\mathcal{A}})$ is consistent



Similar reductions exist for the other reasoning problems.

getting rid of the TBox

This reduction is in general not polynomial,

since the expanded versions may be exponential in the size of \mathcal{T} .

$$A_{0} \equiv \forall r.A_{1} \sqcap \forall s.A_{1}$$

$$A_{1} \equiv \forall r.A_{2} \sqcap \forall s.A_{2}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$A_{n-1} \equiv \forall r.A_{n} \sqcap \forall s.A_{n}$$

The size of \mathcal{T} is linear in n, but the expansion version \widehat{A}_0 of A_0 contains A_n 2^n times.





Relationship with First-Order Logic

Reasoning in ALC can be translated into reasoning in first-order logic:

Lemma 2.21

Let $\mathcal{K}=(\mathcal{T},\mathcal{A})$ be a knowledge base, C,D be \mathcal{ALC} -concept descriptions, and a an individual name.

- 1. $C \sqsubseteq_{\mathcal{T}} D$ iff $\pi(\mathcal{T}) \models \forall x. (\pi_x(C)(x) \to \pi_x(D)(x))$
- 2. \mathcal{K} is consistent iff $\pi(\mathcal{K})$ is consistent
- 3. a is an instance of C w.r.t. \mathcal{K} iff $\pi(\mathcal{K}) \models \pi_x(C)(a)$



Classification

Computing the subsumption hierarchy of all concept names occurring in the TBox.

Man \equiv Person $\sqcap \neg$ Female

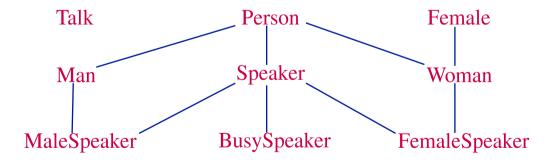
Woman \equiv Person \sqcap Female

MaleSpeaker \equiv Man $\sqcap \exists$ gives. Talk

FemaleSpeaker \equiv Woman $\sqcap \exists$ gives. Talk

Speaker \equiv FemaleSpeaker \sqcup MaleSpeaker

BusySpeaker \equiv Speaker \cap (\geq 3 gives.Talks)





Realization

Computing the most specific concept names in the TBox to which an ABox individual belongs.

```
Man \equiv Person \cap \negFemale
```

Woman \equiv Person \sqcap Female

MaleSpeaker \equiv Man $\sqcap \exists$ gives. Talk

FemaleSpeaker \equiv Woman $\sqcap \exists$ gives. Talk

Speaker ≡ FemaleSpeaker ⊔ MaleSpeaker

BusySpeaker \equiv Speaker \cap (\geq 3 gives.Talks)

```
FRANZ: Man, (FRANZ, T1): gives,
```

T1: Talk

FRANZ is an instance of Man, Speaker, MaleSpeaker.

most specific

