

Logik für Informatiker  
Logic for computer scientists  
Ontologies: Description Logics

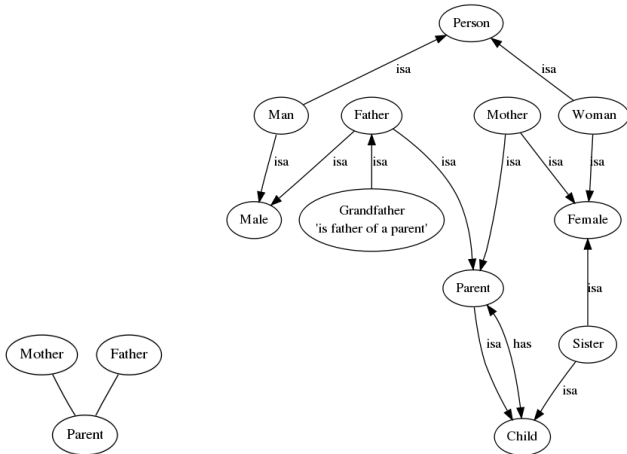
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- description logics (efficiently decidable fragments of first-order logic)
  - used for domain ontologies
  - standardised in web ontology language OWL
- first-order logics
  - used for upper ontologies
  - standardised in Common Logic, CASL

# Semantic networks

- used for representation of and reasoning about knowledge
- e.g. KL-ONE: reasoning about concepts, subclassing and their relations



- drawback of semantic networks:
  - often, meaning of arrows is not precisely defined
  - sometimes, full first-order logic is used  $\Rightarrow$  undecidable
- Description Logics:
  - completely formal syntax and semantics,
  - decidable fragments of first-order logic
  - efficient reasoning tools available (Pellet, Fact++, Racer)

- *Concepts* (in OWL: *classes*) (Mother, Father, etc.)
- *Subsumption*  $C \sqsubseteq D$  (read: “ $C$  is subsumed by  $D$ ”) means that each  $C$  is a  $D$ 
  - $Woman \sqsubseteq Person$
  - $Father \sqsubseteq Male$
  - ...

- To relate concepts, we need *roles* (in OWL: *properties*) like 'hasChild'.
  - $Parent \sqsubseteq \exists hasChild. \top$  ( $\top$ : top concept, includes everything. In OWL: *Thing*)
  - $Parent \sqsubseteq \exists hasChild. Child$
  - $Child \sqsubseteq \exists hasParent. \top$  (Bad, because *hasChild* is converse to *hasParent* which is not expressed here)
  - $Child \sqsubseteq \exists hasChild^{-}. \top$  (Better formalization)
  - $hasParent \equiv hasChild^{-}$  (Alternative, not possible in every DL)
  - $Grandfather \equiv (\exists hasChild. \exists hasChild. \top) \sqcap Male$   
( $C \equiv D$  is an abbreviation for  $C \sqsubseteq D$  and  $D \sqsubseteq C$ )
  - $Grandfather \equiv (\exists hasChild. Parent) \sqcap Father$   
(Alternative formalization)

A *DL-signature*  $\Sigma = (\mathbf{C}, \mathbf{R}, \mathbf{I})$  consists of

- a set  $\mathbf{C}$  of concept names,
- a set  $\mathbf{R}$  of role names,
- a set  $\mathbf{I}$  of individual names,

For a signature  $\Sigma = (\mathbf{C}, \mathbf{R}, \mathbf{I})$  the set of *ALC*-concepts over  $\Sigma$  is defined by the following grammar:

$C ::=$	$A$ for $A \in \mathbf{C}$	(Hets) Manchester syntax
	$\top$	a concept name
	$\perp$	Thing
	$\neg C$	Nothing
	$C \sqcap C$	not $C$
	$C \sqcup C$	$C$ and $C$
	$\exists R.C$ for $R \in \mathbf{R}$	$C$ or $C$
	$\forall R.C$ for $R \in \mathbf{R}$	$R$ some $C$
		$R$ only $C$

*ALC* stands for “attributive language with complement”



The set of  $\mathcal{ALC}$ -Sentences over  $\Sigma$  ( $\text{Sen}(\Sigma)$ ) is defined as

- $C \sqsubseteq D$ , where  $C$  and  $D$  are  $\mathcal{ALC}$ -concepts over  $\Sigma$ .  
Class:  $C$  SubclassOf:  $D$
- $a : C$ , where  $a \in \mathbf{I}$  and  $C$  is a  $\mathcal{ALC}$ -concept over  $\Sigma$ .  
Individual:  $a$  Types:  $C$
- $R(a_1, a_2)$ , where  $R \in \mathbf{R}$  and  $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbf{I}$ .  
Individual:  $a_1$  Facts:  $R$   $a_2$

Description logics axioms are generally split up in two sets:

- *TBox*: subsumptions and definitions involving concepts and roles
  - e.g.  $Woman \sqsubseteq Person$
- *ABox*: individuals and their membership in concepts and roles
  - e.g.  $john : Father, hasChild(john, harry)$

Given  $\Sigma = (\mathbf{C}, \mathbf{R}, \mathbf{I})$ , a  $\Sigma$ -model is of form  $\mathcal{I} = (\Delta^{\mathcal{I}}, \cdot^{\mathcal{I}})$ , where

- $\Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$  is a non-empty set
- $A^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$  for each  $A \in \mathbf{C}$
- $R^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \times \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$  for each  $R \in \mathbf{R}$
- $a^{\mathcal{I}} \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$  for each  $a \in \mathbf{I}$

We can extend  $\cdot^{\mathcal{I}}$  to all concepts as follows:

$$\top^{\mathcal{I}} = \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}$$

$$\perp^{\mathcal{I}} = \emptyset$$

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

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

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

$$(\exists R.C)^{\mathcal{I}} = \{x \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \mid \exists y \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}. (x, y) \in R^{\mathcal{I}}, y \in C^{\mathcal{I}}\}$$

$$(\forall R.C)^{\mathcal{I}} = \{x \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}} \mid \forall y \in \Delta^{\mathcal{I}}. (x, y) \in R^{\mathcal{I}} \Rightarrow y \in C^{\mathcal{I}}\}$$

# Description Logic: Satisfaction of sentences in a model

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{I} \models C \sqsubseteq D & \quad \text{iff} \quad C^{\mathcal{I}} \subseteq D^{\mathcal{I}}. \\ \mathcal{I} \models a : C & \quad \text{iff} \quad a^{\mathcal{I}} \in C^{\mathcal{I}}. \\ \mathcal{I} \models R(a_1, a_2) & \quad \text{iff} \quad (a_1^{\mathcal{I}}, a_2^{\mathcal{I}}) \in R^{\mathcal{I}}. \end{aligned}$$

For  $\Gamma \subseteq \text{Sen}(\Sigma)$ ,  $\phi \in \text{Sen}(\Sigma)$ ,  $\phi$  is a *logical consequence* of  $\Gamma$  (written:  $\Gamma \models_{\Sigma} \phi$ ), if for each  $\Sigma$ -model  $\mathcal{I}$

$$\mathcal{I} \models \Gamma \text{ implies } \mathcal{I} \models \phi.$$

If  $\Gamma$  contains only subsumptions,  $\Gamma$  is written as  $\mathcal{T}$  (TBox).

If  $\Gamma$  contains only sentences  $a : C$  and  $R(a_1, a_2)$ ,  $\Gamma$  is written as  $\mathcal{A}$  (ABox).

# Example: a pizza ontology

VegetarianPizza	$\sqsubseteq$	Pizza
MagheritaPizza	$\sqsubseteq$	Pizza
TomatoTopping	$\sqsubseteq$	VegetableTopping
MozzarellaTopping	$\sqsubseteq$	CheeseTopping
VegetarianPizza	$\equiv$	$\forall$ hasTopping (VegetableTopping $\sqcup$ CheeseTopping)
MagheritaPizza	$\sqsubseteq$	$\exists$ hasTopping MozzarellaTopping $\sqcap$
		$\exists$ hasTopping TomatoTopping $\sqcap$
		$\forall$ hasTopping
		(MozzarellaTopping $\sqcup$ TomatoTopping)

Logical consequence: MagheritaPizza  $\sqsubseteq$  VegetarianPizza

Usually, satisfiability of concepts is tested. A concept  $C$  is *satisfiable* in a TBox iff there is a model of the TBox that leads to a non-empty interpretation of  $C$ .

Satisfiability and subsumption are inter-reducible:

$$\mathcal{T} \models C \sqsubseteq D \quad \text{iff} \quad \mathcal{T} \models \text{unsat}(C \sqcap \neg D)$$

$$\mathcal{T} \models \text{unsat}(C) \quad \text{iff} \quad \mathcal{T} \models C \sqsubseteq \perp$$

Complexity of TBox reasoning for  $\mathcal{ALC}$ :

- general TBoxes: EXPTIME complete
- empty or acyclic TBoxes: PSPACE complete<sup>1</sup>.

Acyclic TBoxes contain only definitions  $A \equiv C$ , such that concept dependency is acyclic ( $A$  depends on all concepts occurring in  $C$ ).

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<sup>1</sup>We know that  $P \subseteq NP \subseteq PSPACE \subseteq EXPTIME$  and that  $P \subset EXPTIME$ , so it is possible that  $PSPACE \subset EXPTIME$ .



For example: Instance checking:

$$\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{A} \models a : C \text{ iff } \mathcal{T} \cup \mathcal{A} \cup \{ \text{not } a : C \} \text{ inconsistent}$$

Complexity of deciding ABox consistency may be harder than TBox reasoning, but it usually is not.

For  $\mathcal{ALC}$  it is PSPACE/EXPTIME complete.