# Ontologies and Knowledge Sharing

#### Building large knowledge respoitories:

- Knowledge often comes from multiple sources.
- Fields have their own terminology and division of the world.
- Systems evolve over time and it is difficult to anticipate all future distinctions that should be made.
- Designers must agree on what individuals, classes and relationships to represent. The world is not divided into individuals.
- It is often difficult to remember what notation means:
  - Given a symbol used in the computer, what does it mean?
  - Given a concept in someone's mind, what symbol to use?
    - Has the concept already been defined?
    - If already defined, what symbol has been used for it?
    - If not already defined, what can it be defined in terms of?

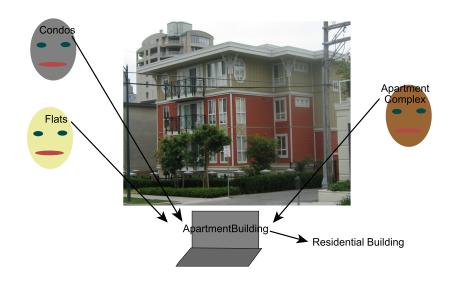


## **Knowledge Sharing**

- A conceptualization is a map from the problem domain into the representation. A conceptualization specifies:
  - What sorts of individuals are being modeled
  - The vocabulary for specifying individuals, relations and properties
  - ► The meaning or intention of the vocabulary
- If more than one person is building a knowledge base, they must be able to share the conceptualization.
  - challenge: inter-operability of separately designed knowledge bases.
- An ontology is a specification of a conceptualization.
   An ontology specifies the meanings of the symbols in an information system.



# Mapping from a conceptualization to a symbol



### Semantic Web

- Ontologies are published on the web in machine readable form.
- Builders of knowledge bases or web sites adhere to and refer to a published ontology:
  - A symbol defined by an ontology means the same thing across web sites that obey the ontology.
  - If someone wants to refer to something not defined, they publish an ontology defining the terminology. Others adopt the terminology by referring to the new ontology. In this way, ontologies evolve.
  - Separately developed ontologies can have mappings between them published.

# Challenges of building ontologies

- They can be huge: finding the appropriate terminology for a concept may be difficult.
- How one divides the world can depend on the application.
   Different ontologies describe the world in different ways.
- People can fundamentally disagree about an appropriate structure.
- Different knowledge bases can use different ontologies.
- To allow KBs based on different ontologies to inter-operate, there must be mapping between ontologies.
- It has to be in user's interests to use an ontology.
- The computer doesn't understand the meaning of the symbols.
   The formalism can constrain the meaning, but can't define it.



## Semantic Web Technologies Revisited

- RDF the Resource Description Framework is a language of triples, including the property rdf:type and containers (bags, lists, etc)
- RDF-S RDF Schema is RDF plus the class: rdfs:Class, and properties: rdfs:domain, rdfs:range, rdfs:subClassOf, rdfs:subPropertyOf,...
- Lots of alternative syntaxes: XML, Turtle, N-Triples, Json . . .
- OWL the Web Ontology Language, defines some primitive properties that can be used to define terminology. (Uses multiple alternative syntaxes).

# Main Components of an Ontology

- Individuals the things / objects in the world (not usually specified as part of the ontology)
- Classes sets of individuals
- Properties between individuals and their values



### Individuals

- Individuals are things in the world that can be named.
   (Concrete, abstract, concepts, reified).
- Unique names assumption (UNA): different names refer to different individuals.
- OWL does not adopt the unique names assumption.
- The UNA is not an assumption you can universally make: "Lewis Carroll", "Charles Lutwidge Dodgson", "the author of Alice's Adventures in Wonderland" etc.
- Without the determining equality, we can't count!
   Joe's mother was in the room. Sam's cousin was there.
   Chris's football coach was there. How many people were in the room?
- Using OWL:

```
(i_1, 'owl:SameIndividual', i_2)
(i_1, 'owl:DifferentIndividuals', i_3)
```



### Classes

- A class is a set of individuals. E.g., house, building, officeBuilding
- One class can be a subclass of another rdfs:SubClassOf(house, building) rdfs:SubClassOf(officeBuilding, building)
- The most general class is owl: Thing.
- Classes can be declared to be the same or to be disjoint: owl:EquivalentClasses(house, singleFamilyDwelling) owl:DisjointClasses(house, officeBuilding)
- Different classes are not necessarily disjoint.
   E.g., a building can be both a commercial building and a residential building.



## Example Concepts in an Ontology

The following are some of the concepts in an ontology for documents.

http://www.cs.umd.edu/projects/plus/DAML/onts/docmnt1.0.daml

correspondence publication homepage letter periodical article book email magazine journal document communication workshopPaper journalPaper discussion PersonalHomepage speech newspaper

### **Properties**

- A property is between an individual and a value.
- A property has a domain and a range.
   rdfs:domain(livesIn, person)
   rdfs:range(livesIn, placeOfResidence)
- An ObjectProperty is a property whose range is an individual.
- A DatatypeProperty is one whose range isn't an individual, e.g., is a number or string.
- There can also be property hierarchies:
  - $rdfs: subPropertyOf({\it livesIn}, enclosure) \\ rdfs: subPropertyOf({\it principalResidence}, {\it livesIn}) \\$



### Clicker Question

Suppose we are given the following triple as true:

```
years_eligibility 'rdfs:domain' student.
sam years_eligibility 3).
```

Which is the following can we infer

- A Sam is a student
- B Sam could a student (but maybe isn't)
- C All students have value 3 for years\_eligibility
- D We can infer nothing about whether Sam is a student



### Clicker Question

Suppose we are given the following triples as true:

```
years_eligibility 'rdfs:domain' student.
years_eligibility 'rdfs:domain' athlete.
sam years_eligibility 3.
```

Which is the following is true

- A Sam is both a student and an athlete.
- B Sam could be either student or an athlete.
- C We can infer nothing about whether Sam is an athlete or a student
- D There are no student athletes.
- E The facts are inconsistent, and couldn't possible all be true



# Properties (Cont.)

- One property can be inverse of another owl:InverseObjectProperties(livesIn, hasResident)
- Properties can be declared to be transitive, symmetric, functional, or inverse-functional.
   (Which of these are only applicable to object properties?)
- We can also state the minimum and maximal cardinality of a property.

```
owl:minCardinality(principalResidence, 1) owl:maxCardinality(principalResidence, 1)
```



## Property and Class Restrictions

 We can define complex descriptions of classes in terms of restrictions of other classes and properties.

E.g., A homeowner is a person who owns a house.

```
homeOwner \subseteq person \cap \{x : \exists h \in house \text{ such that } x \text{ owns } h\}
```

```
owl:subClassOf(homeOwner,person)
owl:subClassOf(homeOwner,
    owl:ObjectSomeValuesFrom(owns, house))
```

### **OWL Class Constructors**

```
owl:Thing \equiv all individuals
owl:Nothing \equiv no individuals
owl:ObjectIntersectionOf(C_1, \ldots, C_k) \equiv C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_k
owl:ObjectUnionOf(C_1, \ldots, C_k) \equiv C_1 \cup \cdots \cup C_k
owl:ObjectComplementOf(C) \equiv Thing \setminus C
owl:ObjectOneOf(I_1, \ldots, I_k) \equiv \{I_1, \ldots, I_k\}
owl:ObjectHasValue(P, I) \equiv \{x : x P I\}
owl:ObjectAllValuesFrom(P, C) \equiv \{x : x \mid P \mid y \rightarrow y \in C\}
owl:ObjectSomeValuesFrom(P, C) \equiv
          \{x: \exists y \in C \text{ such that } x P y\}
owl:ObjectMinCardinality(n, P, C) \equiv
          \{x : \#\{y | xPy \text{ and } y \in C\} > n\}
owl:ObjectMaxCardinality(n, P, C) \equiv
          \{x : \#\{y | xPy \text{ and } y \in C\} < n\}
```

### **OWL Predicates**

```
rdf:type(I, C) \equiv I \in C
rdfs:subClassOf(C_1, C_2) \equiv C_1 \subseteq C_2
owl:EquivalentClasses(C_1, C_2) \equiv C_1 \equiv C_2
owl:DisjointClasses(C_1, C_2) \equiv C_1 \cap C_2 = \{\}
rdfs:domain(P, C) \equiv if xPy then x \in C
rdfs:range(P, C) \equiv if xPy then y \in C
rdfs:subPropertyOf(P_1, P_2) \equiv xP_1y implies xP_2y
owl:EquivalentObjectProperties(P_1, P_2) \equiv xP_1y if and only if xP_2y
owl:DisjointObjectProperties(P_1, P_2) \equiv xP_1y implies not xP_2y
owl:InverseObjectProperties(P_1, P_2) \equiv xP_1y if and only if yP_2x
owl:SameIndividual(I_1, \ldots, I_n) \equiv \forall j \forall k \ I_i = I_k
owl:DifferentIndividuals(I_1, \ldots, I_n) \equiv \forall j \forall k \ j \neq k  implies I_i \neq I_k
owl:FunctionalObjectProperty(P) \equiv if xPy_1 and xPy_2 then y_1 = y_2
owl:InverseFunctionalObjectProperty(P) \equiv
          if x_1 P y and x_2 P y then x_1 = x_2
owl:TransitiveObjectProperty(P) \equiv if xPy and yPz then xPz
```

owl:SymmetricObjectProperty  $\equiv$  if xPy then yPx

# Knowledge Sharing

- One ontology typically imports and builds on other ontologies.
- OWL provides facilities for version control.
- Tools for mapping one ontology to another allow inter-operation of different knowledge bases.
- The semantic web promises to allow two pieces of information to be combined if
  - they both adhere to an ontology
  - these are the same ontology or there is a mapping between them.

## Example: Apartment Building

An apartment building is a residential building with more than two units and they are rented.

```
Declaration(ObjectProperty(:numberOfunits))
FunctionalObjectProperty(:numberOfunits)
ObjectPropertyDomain(:numberOfunits :ResidentialBuilding)
ObjectPropertyRange(:numberOfunits
                    ObjectOneOf(:two :one :moreThanTwo))
Declaration(Class(:ApartmentBuilding))
EquivalentClasses(:ApartmentBuilding
    ObjectIntersectionOf(
        :ResidentialBuilding
        ObjectHasValue(:numberOfunits :moreThanTwo)
        ObjectHasValue(:ownership :rental)))
```

## Example: hotel ontology

### Define the following:

- Room
- BathRoom
- StandardRoom what is rented as a room in a hotel
- Suite
- RoomOnly
- Hotel
- HasForRent
- AllSuitesHotel
- NoSuitesHotel
- HasSuitesHotel



# Top-Level Ontology

#### A top-level ontology

- provides a definition of everything at a very abstract level.
- provides a useful categorization on which to base other ontologies.
- facilitates the integration of domain ontologies.

At the top is entity. OWL calls the top of the hierarchy thing. Essentially, everything is an entity.



### Concrete or abstract

- Physical objects and events are concrete.
   E.g., A person, a lecture, the sending of an email.
- Mathematic objects and times are abstract.
   E.g., 17, set of all mammals on Earth, an email, a course



### Continuants vs Occurrents

- A continuant exists in an instance of time and maintains its identity through time.
  - Examples: person, a finger, a country, a smile, the smell of a flower, an email, Newtonian mechanics
- An occurrent has temporal parts.
   Examples: a life, a holoday, smiling, the opening of a flower, sending an email, earthquake
- Continuants participate in occurrents.
- a person, a life, a finger, infancy: what is part of what?

Alternative: a four-dimensional or perdurant view where objects exist in the space-time.

- A person is a trajectory though space and time
- At any time, a person is a snapshot of the four-dimensional trajectory.

### Dependent or independent

- An independent continuant is something that can exist by itself or is part of another entity.

  For example, a person, a face, a pen, a flower, a country a
  - For example, a person, a face, a pen, a flower, a country, and the atmosphere are independent continuants.
- A dependent continuant only exists by virtue of another entity and is not a part of that entity.
   For example, a smile, the ability to laugh, the inside of your mouth, the ownership relation between a person and a phone
- An occurrent dependent on an entity is a process or an event.
- A process happens over time, has temporal parts, and depends on a continuant.
  - For example: a holiday, writing an email, and a robot cleaning the lab are all processes.
- An event is something that happens at an instant, and is often a process boundary.
  - For example, the end of a lecture, the first goal in the 2022 FIFA World Cup final.

#### Provenance

- The provenance of data or data lineage specifies where the data came from and how it was manipulated
- Provenance is typically recorded as metadata data about the data – including:
  - Who collected each piece of data? What are their credentials?
  - Who transcribed the information?
  - ▶ What was the protocol used to collect the data? Was the data chosen at random or chosen because it was interesting or some other reason?
  - What were the controls? What was manipulated, when?
  - What sensors were used? What is their reliability and operating range?
  - What processing has been done to the data?



### FAIR data

#### FAIR principles for data:

- Findable the (meta)data uses unique persistent identifiers, such as IRIs.
- Accessible the data is available using free and open protocols, and the metadata is accessible even when the data is not.
- Interoperable the vocabulary is defined using formal knowledge representation languages (ontologies).
- Reusable the data uses rich metadata, including provenance, and an appropriate open license, so that the community can use the data.



# Ontologies in Science

- https://schema.org
- SNOMED CT for medicine: https://www.snomed.org/five-step-briefing or https://browser.ihtsdotools.org/
- http://obofoundry.org
- https://www.springernature.com/gp/open-research/ open-data